INTRODUCTION TO ENGLISH PRAGMATICS

APPLYING RESEARCH-BASED LEARNING MODEL

Buku ini bermula dari produk penelitian pengembangan pembelajaran berbasis riset dalam matakuliah linguistik. Setelah melakukan kajian literatur pembelajaran berbasis riset, membuat model pembelajaran berbasis riset dan membuat modul sebagai produk penelitian, buku akhirnya digunakan dalam matakuliah *Linguistics for ELT: Interlanguage Pragmatics*.

Buku ini terdiri atas sembilan unit. Unit 1 mengupas tentang *Pragmatics and Foreign Language Teaching*; Unit 2 membahas tentang *Pragmatics & Context*; Unit 3 hingga Unit 9 membahas topik-topik dalam *Pragmatics* antara lain: *Deixis, Presupposition, Speech Acts, Cooperative Principles & Grice's Maxims, Implicatures, dan Politeness Maxims & Strategy*.

Buku ini perlu dimiliki terutama oleh para mahasiswa Sastra Inggris dan semua pembaca lain yang berminat mendalami *pragmatics*.

DITERBITKAN ATAS KERJA SAMA

KENCANA

IAIN BATUSANGKAR

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Dr. Rita Erlinda, M.Pd.

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Kata Pengantar

Puji syukur penulis sampaikan kepada Allah Swt. yang telah memberikan rahmat dan karunia-Nya kepada penulis, sehingga buku *Introduction to English Pragmatics: Applying Research-based Learning Model* dapat diselesaikan. Selanjutnya, selawat dan salam dihadiahkan kepada Nabi Muhammad saw. yang telah menjadi pelopor kemajuan peradaban umat manusia di muka bumi ini.

Buku ini sudah melalui proses yang panjang. Buku ini bermula dari produk Penelitian Pengembangan Pembelajaran Berbasis Riset dalam Matakuliah Linguistik. Setelah melakukan kajian literatur pembelajaran berbasis riset, membuat model pembelajaran berbasis riset dan membuat modul sebagai produk penelitian, buku akhirnya digunakan dalam matakuliah *Linguistics for ELT: Introduction to Pragmatics*.

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Dengan selesainya karya tulis ini, diharapkan buku ini dapat dimanfaatkan oleh para mahasiswa dan pembaca lain yang berminat mendalami *pragmatics*. Di samping itu, buku ini diharapkan

juga bermanfaat bagi penulis sendiri untuk dapat berpartisipasi mengembangkan ilmu pengetahun pada umumnya, *Amin ya Rabbal 'alamiin.*

Batusangkar, April 2019
Penulis

Dr. Rita Erlinda, M.Pd.

Daftar Isi

UNIT 1
Pragmatics and Foreign Language Learning: An Introduction

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

Students have to be able correctly to:
- Differentiate pragmatics from semantics;
- Conclude the brief history of pragmatics;
- Explain the use of pragmatics as the systematic study of meaning;
- Elaborate the reasons why pragmatics is known as a waste basket of linguistics;
- Explain pragmatic competence, pragmatic failure and pragmatic transfer;
- Explain some tasks of explicit and inductive instruction of L2 pragmatics.

LEARNING MATERIALS

INTRODUCTION

Pragmatics is a hastily growing field in contemporary linguistics. In recent years, it has not only become a gallop of intents

interest in linguistics and the philosophy of language, it has also attracted a considerable amount of attention from anthropologists, artificial intelligence workers, cognitive scientist, physiologist, and semioticians. To get basic understanding about pragmatics, in this unit, there are some topics that will be discussed (1) What is pragmatics all about?, (2) A brief history of pragmatics; (3) Why do we need pragmatics? (4) What use is pragmatics? and (5) Pragmatics and Foreign Language Teaching

1. What is Pragmatics?

There are several linguists bestowed definition of pragmatics. Some of them are Levinson (1983), Mey (1993), Yule (1996), Tomas (1995), Cutting (2002), Huang (2007) which will be described in the following:

Levinson (1983: 21-27) provides three definitions of pragmatics as follows:

(a) "Pragmatics is the study of the relations between language and context that are basic to an account of language understanding."

(b) "Pragmatics is the study of the ability of language users to pair sentences with the context in which they would be appropriate."

(c) "Pragmatics is the study of deixis (at least in part), implicature, presupposition, speech acts, and aspects of discoure structure."

Mey (1993: 6) defines "pragmatic as the study of the use of language in human communication as determined by the condition of society." Huang (2007: 2), pragmatic is the systematic study of meaning by virtue, on dependent on, the use of language. The central topics of inquiry of pragmatics include implicature presupposition, speech acts, and the deixis.

Meanwhile, Yule (1996: 3-4) defines pragmatics in several definitions as follows:

a. Pragmatics is the study of the speaker meaning. It concerns with the study of meaning as communicated by a speaker (or writer) and interpreted by a listener or reader.
b. Pragmatics is the study of contextual meaning. Pragmatics involves the interpretation of what people mean in particular context and how the context influence what is said.
c. Pragmatics is the study of how more gets communicated that is said. Pragmatics also explores how listeners can make inferences about what is said in order to arrive at an interpretation of the speaker's intended meaning.
d. Pragmatic is the study of the expression of relative distance. It raises the questions of what determine choice between the said and unsaid.

In conclusion, pragmatics is related to the study of meaning based on some factors such as speaker meaning, contextual meaning, listeners' inference and even the expression.

2. A Brief History of Pragmatics

Pragmatics was insinuated by philosophers like Charles Morris, Rudolf Carnap and Charles Peirce in 1930's. Morris, was influenced by Pierce, put a threefold of categories like syntax, semantics and pragmatics under the umbrella of semiotics—a general science of sign. In accordance with this classification, **syntax** means the study of the formal relation of one sign with another; **semantics** deals with relation of signs to what they denote and **pragmatics** is the relation of signs to their users and interpreters. Syntax is the most and pragmatic the least abstract, with semantics lying somewhere in between. Syntax provides input to semantics which provides input to pragmatics (Huang, 2007: 2).

In 1950s, the two different schools concerned with analytic philosophy of language were emerged—the school of ideal language philosophy and the school of ordinary language philosophy. Ideal language philosophers—Gottlob Frege, Alfred Tarski, and Bertrand Russell—were predominantly interested in the study

of logical system of artificial languages. Later, this ideas was popularized by the followers like Richard Montague, David Donaldson, and David Lewis who were successfully applied the theory and methodology of natural language. They were the pioneers of today's formal semantics.

On the contrary, the tradition of school of ordinary language philosophy pointed out the use of natural language rather that formal language used by the logicians. This tradition was pilotted by J.L. Austin. This school was prospered in the 1950's and 1960's. Other leading thinkers of the school were H.P. Grice, Peter Strawson, John Searle and Ludwig Wittgenstein. Within this tradition, Austin developed the theory of Speech Acts and Grice cultivated the theory of conversational implicature. Both theories have become milestone of pragmatic theory of language use.

In 1970's, there was a great research conducted by Laurence Horn, Charles Fillmore and Gerald Gazdar. They were initiated ideas about pragmatics as waste-basket. In 1983, Stephen Levinson published his book entitled *Pragmatics*. This book was designated that pragmatics become a linguistic discipline in its own right.

In contemporary pragmatics, there are two schools were emerged—Anglo American and European Continental. Within Anglo-American tradition, pragmatics is defined as systematic study of meaning rely on language use. The components view of pragmatics include implicature, presupposition, speech acts, and deixis. Within the Continental tradition, pragmatics are considered as pragmalinguistics which is general conceived of as a theory of linguistic communication, including how to influence people through verbal messages. Continental tradition is closer to the original view of pragmatics expressed by Morris, that pragmatics should study 'the relation of signs to interpreters'.

3. Why Do We Need Pragmatics?

According to Yule (1996: 7), pragmatic is needed if we want a fuller, deeper, and more reasonable account of human language

behavior. Sometimes, a pragmatics account is the only possible one, as in the following example:

(1) *'I just met the old Irishman and his son, coming out of the toilet.'*
(2) *'I wouldn't have thought there was room for the two of them.*
(3) *'No, silly, I mean I was coming out of the toilet. They were waiting.*

Linguists usually say that the first sentence is ambiguous. For a pragmatician, there is no such thing as ambiguity. Excepting certain, rather special occasion on which one tries to deceive one partner.

Huang (2007: 5-9) defines there are two reasons for including pragmatics in an integrated linguistic theory—linguistic underdeterminacy and simplication of semantic and syntax:

Linguistics underdeterminacy; There is a huge gap between the meaning of a sentence and the messages actually conveyed by the uttering of that sentence. In other words, the linguistically encoded meaning of a sentence radically underdetermines the proposition the speaker expresses when he or she utters that sentence. This is called **linguistic underdeterminacy**. For example:

(4) *You* and *you*, but not *you*, stand up

The three uses of the pronoun *you*—called a deictic expression—in (4) can be properly interpreted only by a direct, moment by moment monitoring of the physical aspects of the speech event in which the sentence is uttered. In other words, the deictic parameter can be fixed only if the deictic expressions are accompanied by physical behavior of some sorts (such as a selection of gestures or an eye contact)

Simplification of semantic and syntax; The second reason why we need a pragmatic component is because its inclusion can effect radical simplification of other core components, such as semantics and syntax, in overall theory of linguistics ability.

5

4. What Use Is Pragmatics?

Mey (1993: 10) argues that the immanent approach to the study of language has tended to isolate its different aspects and in many cases the practitioners of linguistics have not been able to talks to each other except in very general terms. When it comes to do things for a purpose, such as describing languages, often thought of as the prime practical endeavor of linguists, the consensus remains largely theoretical.

With the increasing westernization and industraliazitation, a number of many languages began to disappear and have been doing so at an ever more rapid speed. These languages are in danger of disappearing; linguists speak of endangered languages, and vote on resolution about what to do to save those languages.

Furthermore, Mey (1993: 11) explains as long as the purpose of linguistics is seen as to go out there and collect as many species as possible of vanishing races of languages, it is clearly a catastrophe when species start disappearing on a grand scale. The linguistics remedy for this evil is to save the languages by accelerating and perfecting the descriptive, through better and more generous funding, through the training of native linguists providing teachers, and other personal that can help in alphabetizing those mostly unwritten and unrecorded languages, so at least there are some documentation to show to the successor in the trade and can parry the reproach of having squandered away the linguistic patrimony of generation to come.

A pragmatic look at the problems of endangered languages tells not just to go out there and describe, but to fight what some gave called linguistic genocide for short linguicide.

5. Pragmatics in Foreign Language Teaching

Pragmatic instruction is particularly necessary in a foreign language context since the objective of English Language Teaching is to gain communicative competence—the social rules of language use.

a. Communicative Competence

Communicative competence refers to a knowledge of the rules for understanding and producing both the referential and the social meaning of language. Canale & Swain (1980) classifies communicative competence into three types—grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence and strategic competence. **Grammatical competence** refers to speaker's knowledge of morphological and phonological rules as well as syntactic lexical knowledge. **Sociolinguistic competence** can be divided into two forms—socio-cultural rules of use and the rules of discourse. The former refers to the rules that govern how an utterance is produced and interpreted within a certain speech community; whereas the latter deals with the rules of cohesion and coherence. **Strategic competence** can be defined as verbal and nonverbal communication strategies.

b. Pragmatic Competence

Canale (1983) introduces pragmatic competence under the umbrella of sub- sociolinguistic competence. Pragmatic competence refers to knowledge of the socio-cultural rules that govern language use. In this sense, communication as an interaction between speaker-meaning and hearer-effect and is accomplished successfully when the speaker conveys his or her attitude to the hearer. This attitude can be interpreted through pragmatic competence. Pragmatic competence involves a complex set of inter-related factors—both linguistic and socio-cultural. Thus, pragmatic competence is very difficult for non-native speakers to acquire. The two areas of pragmatic competence—pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic—appear to be particularly difficult for English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners.

c. Pragmatic Failure

EFL learners often fail to follow the socio-cultural rules that govern language behavior in the English language. This can be regarded as **pragmatic failure**. According to Thomas (1983), there are two reasons for pragmatic failure. *First,* learner's lack

of linguistic means to convey his or her pragmatic knowledge. *Second,* speaker's inability to recognise cross-cultural differences as to what constitutes appropriate culture behavior.

d. Pragmatic Transfer

When learners lack of socio-pragmatic knowledge of what constitute approppriate linguistic behavior in L2, they often draw on their knowledge of appropriate language behavior from L1. This important phenomena has been referred to as **pragmatic transfer**. In other words, pragmatic transfer means the transfer of L1 socio-cultural competence when performing L2 speech acts or any other language behaviors in L2.

Thomas (1983) divides pragmatic transfer into two—pragmalinguistic transfer and sociopragmatic transfer. Pragmalinguistic transfer means the transfer from L1 of utterances that are syntactically and semantically equivalent but are interpreted differently in the two cultures. Sociopragmatic transfer refers to transfer of knowledge about the social and cultural norms that govern language use in a given speech community.

e. Pragmatic Instructions

Pragmatic instruction is very desirable in order to help prevent the consequences of pragmatic failure. O'Kefee *et al.* (2011) suggests that explicit instruction is more effective than implicit instruction. The explicit teaching of pragmatics is in line with an awareness-raising approach, which has been widely used in the current teaching of L2 pragmatics (Ishihara & Cohen, 2010). The following is listing of possible classroom tasks for receptive or productive skills development, or a combination of both. It is included instructional tasks that focus primarily on either the linguistic dimension or on the social and cultural dimensions.

Tasks with a mainly linguistic (pragmalinguistic) focus:
- analyzing and practicing the use of vocabulary in the particular context;
- identifying and practicing the use of relevant grammatical

structures;
- identifying and practicing the use of strategies for a speech act;
- analyzing and practicing the use of discourse organization (e.g., discourse structure of an academic oral, and presentation);
- analyzing and practicing the use of discourse markers and fillers (e.g., *well, um, actually*);
- analyzing and practicing the use of *epistemic stance markers* (i.e., words and phrases to show the speaker's stance, such as: *I think, maybe, seem, suppose, tend to, of course*);
- noticing and practicing the use of tone (e.g., verbal and non-verbal cues and nuances).

Tasks with a mainly social and cultural (sociopragmatic) focus:
- analyzing language and context to identify the goal and intention of the speaker, and assessing the speaker's attainment of the goal and the listener's interpretation;
- analyzing and practicing the use of directness/politeness/formality in an interaction;
- identifying and using multiple functions of a speech act;
- identifying and using a range of cultural norms in the L2 culture; and
- identifying and using possible cultural reasoning or ideologies behind L2 pragmatic norms.

In reality, these two sets of dimensions focusing on language and culture may actually be intertwined and not clear-cut. For example, in order to communicate effectively, learners need to know the meaning and linguistic form associated with the expressions, *I agree* and *I disagree* (pragmalinguistics). In addition, they need cultural knowledge about the appropriate contexts for using these expressions (sociopragmatics).

The above tasks could be used in conjunction with these classroom exercises:

- collecting L2 data in the L2 community or the media, e.g., films, sitcoms;
- comparing learners' L1 and L2 pragmatic norms;
- comparing felicitous and infelicitous L2 pragmatic uses, e.g., comparing successful and awkward interactions;
- sharing personal stories about pragmatic failure or similar or different pragmatic norms in another culture;
- reconstructing sample dialogues, e.g., recreating dialogues and sequencing of lines from a dialogue;
- role-playing (variation: role-plays with specific intentions, such as where one person attempts to persuade the other to accept an invitation and the other intends to refuse the invitation. The role-play can be recorded for subsequent reflection;
- keeping a reflective journal or interaction log;
- interviewing L2-speaking informants about norms for pragmatic behavior; and
- experimenting with certain pragmatic behavior in the L2 community.

In a **second-language** setting where the target language is commonly spoken outside of the classroom, pragmatics instruction may best capitalize on exercises that encourage learners to study the language as used authentically in the community. This technique is termed *learner as an ethnographer* or *learners as researchers*. In this learner-centered approach with explicit instruction of pragmatics in largerly inductive terms, learners act like researchers, collecting naturally occurring linguistic samples from speakers of the L2, or conducting surveys or interviews regarding particular L2 use. Then, learners analyze the linguistic features as well as the non-linguistic contextual factors that influenced the language use in their samples. They might also compare their preexisting assumptions about L2 pragmatic use with their new discoveries. These awareness-raising exercises function as a type of guided simulation for future independent learning of pragmatics. During these exercises, learners observe, analyze, and adopt some features of language they encounter in authentic situations. The learners

can be encouraged to create hypotheses about pragmatic L2 use, test them in authentic settings by using the L2 or further observing others, and then revise hypotheses if necessary. A learners-as-researchers approach models this cycle of student-centered learning of L2 pragmatics.

Researchers have suggested several instructional frameworks regarding how pragmatics-focused instructional tasks might be sequentially organized.

One instructional model includes the following stages of instruction:
(a) learners' exploration;
(b) learners' production; and
(c) feedback from peers and from the teacher.

Another instructional framework is composed of the following phases:
(a) a feeling (warm-up) phase;
(b) a doing phase;
(c) a thinking phase;
(d) an understanding phase; and
(e) a using phase.

The instructional tasks and techniques listed above can be utilized either with an inductive or deductive orientation, or combination of the two.

Instruction is *deductive* when outside sources, such as teacher and materials, provide learners with explicit information about pragmatics before learners study examples. In *inductive* teaching, learners analyze pragmatic data to discover L2 pragmatic norms that govern various language uses (see below). An inductive approach is generally believed to promote higher-order thinking and may be more effective than a deductive approach. However, existing research in L2 pragmatics has shown contradicting results that may be inconclusive at this point. It appears that although learners' inductive self-discovery can contribute to pragmatic learning, it may be difficult to "get it right." Even if inductive language learn-

ing is an effective means to develop pragmatic control, learners may take differential advantage of it, depending on their learning styles. Effective inductive teaching may also take some practice on the part of the teachers, especially if their professional preparation centered on a more teacher fronted. However, a recent study conducted in a **foreign-language** setting has shown promising results for both inductive and deductive instruction. In fact, that study found that pragmatic knowledge gained through induction may even be longer-lasting and more easily accessible in real time than pragmatic knowledge acquired through deduction.

CONCLUSION

Based on the discussion above, it can be concluded that pragmatics is the systematic study of meaning by virtue, on dependent on, the use of language. Pragmatic is needed to get a fuller, deeper, and more reasonable account of human language behavior. The objective of language teaching is communicative competence in order to avoid pragmatic failure. One of communicative competence is pragmatic competence. Pragmatic competence focuses on how EFL learners realize speech acts in English language. Explicit and inductive instruction of L2 Pragmatics better to develop EFL learner's pragmatic ability.

STUDENTS' TASK/EXERCISE

1. How could you define pragmatics?
2. Elaborate similarities and differences of definition of pragmatics from three experts—Yule, Huang and Mey.

3. What is the history of pragmatics?
4. Elaborate some reasons why we need pragmatics?
5. Can you predict how pragmatics can be important in a language classroom? Give examples and explain.
6. Can you elaborate reasons why explicit and inductive instruction of L2 pragmatics better in developing learner's pragmatic competence?

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UNIT
2   Pragmatics and Context

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

Students have to be able correctly to:
- Explain concepts of context & context;
- Differentiate between context and co-text;
- Explain types of contexts;
- Elaborate functions of context in pragmatics;
- Analyze contexts of a given conversation.

LEARNING MATERIALS

INTRODUCTION

This chapter discusses about pragmatics and contexts. The elaboration will include (1) concept/definition of context; (2) types of contexts—context outside of text and context inside of text (co-text) d; (3) functions of context in pragmatics analysis; and (4) examples of analysis of contexts in Pragmatic study.

1. Concept of Contexts

Contexts means surrounding situations that facilitate inter-locutors to interpretate utterances in an interactional exchange. Contexts, in general, can be in the forms of physical settings, background knowledge and socio-psychological factors owned by the participants in a communication both spoken and written forms. Cutting (2002: 2) defines contexts as in the following:

> Context means the parts of meaning that can be explained by know-ledge of the **physical** and **social world**, and **sociopsychological factors influencing communication**, as well as the **knowledge of the time and place** in which the words are utterred or written. (Cutting, 2002: 2)

2. Types of Contexts

Yule (2003: 129-130) differentiate between two main types of contexts— linguistic context (co-text) and physical context. Physical context means the time and place where the linguistic expression are encountered. For example, the work *bank* which is identified as homonym; when the word *bank* is used in a sentence accompanied by the word *river*, there will be easy to the recognised the meaning of the word '*bank*'. The same thing will happen, if the word *bank* used in the phrase like *get to the bank to cash a check*, it will also be easy to know the meaning of the word *bank*. In this case, the meaning of the the word *bank* are easily to identified because of the linguistic contexts in which the both words of *bank* are used. In addition, when the word BANK is hanged out in a building, the place or the location where it is put can help us to catch the meaning of the work *bank*. This is because of the help of physical context where the word *bank* is tied.

Huang (2007: 13-14) defines context as referring to any relevant features of the dynamic setting or environment in which linguistic unit is systematically used. Context can be divided into three types—physical, linguistic, and general knowledge contexts.

Physical context means the physical setting or spatiotemporal location of the utterance. **Linguistic context** refers to the surrounding utterances in the same discourse—what has been mentioned in the previous discourse. **General knowledge context** deals with a set of background assumptions (real-world knowledge) shared by the speaker and the address. This is also known as common ground—communal and personal. Communal common ground is the set of background assumption shared by members of a community; whereas personal common ground means the body of background knowledge two members of community share from their past experience each other.

Cutting (2002) claims that there are two major types of contexts— contexts outside of text (**contexts**) and context inside of text (**co-texts**). The former type of context is known as extra-linguistic context; the latter one is regarded as linguistic context. There two type of extralinguistic contexts—situational context and background knowledge context. Further, background knowledge context can be classified into interpersonal context
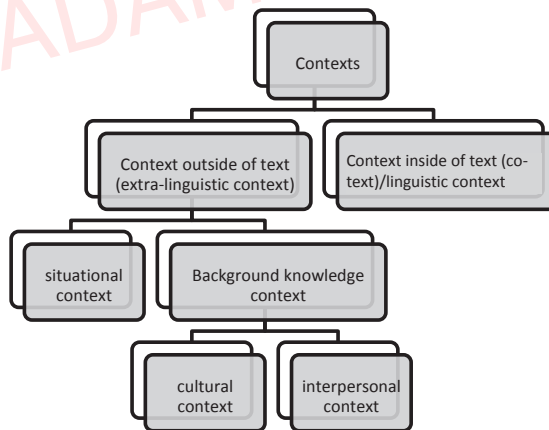
FIGURE 2.1. TYPES OF CONTEXT

a. Contexts Outside of Text

Situational context refers to what the speaker know about what they can see around them (Cutting, 2002). The situational context is the immediate physical co-presence, the situation where the interaction is taking place at the moment of speaking. In other words, situational context means any physical environment where people can see the place where the utterances occur at the time of interaction. Let's take a look the following excerpt:

(1) Student : What do you think about our previous class with Mrs. Lani? (*a student is asking his friend loudly*)

     Librarian : Ups, **this** is library. Keep silent please!

From the excerpt (1) it can be identified that the situational context of the interaction is in the library. It can be recognised from the use of word *this*. "*This*" is a demonstrative pronoun, used for pointing to something, an entity, that speaker and hearer can see. Let us look another example:

(2) Lecturer : Forty-nine? Why do you say forty-nine?

     Pupil : Cos there's another one **here**.

     Lecturer : Right, we've got forty-nine **there**, haven't we? But **here** there's two, okay? Now, what is it that we've got two of? Well, let me give you a clue. Erm, **this here** is forty, that's four tens, four tens are forty.

             (BNC: jjs Bacons College lesson taken from Cutting (2002).

Excerpt (2) is conversation between a male lecturer from London. He is explaining mathematical problem to a male pupil. The situational context is obviously the classroom, and apparently the lecturer and the pupil are pointing to either the blackboard or an exercise book. Their "*here*" and "*there*" are demonstrative adverbs indicating a figure in an equation, and the "*this here*" is a demon-

strative pronoun and adverb together emphatically indicating what is being puzzled over. Without the surrounding situation, the exchange makes little sense.

Cultural contexts means general knowledge that most people carry with them in their minds about areas of life (Cutting, 2002). Look at the following excerpt.

(3) AF : So you went to Arran. A bit of a come-down isn't it! ((laughing))

DM : It was nice actually. Have you been to Arran?

AF : No, I've not. Like to go.

DM : Did a lot of climbing?

AF : //(heh)

DM : // I went with Francesca and David.

AF : Uhuh?

DM : Francesca's room-mate and Alice's-a friend of Alice's from London. There were six of us. Yeah we did a lot of hill walking. We got back, er Michele and I got home she looked at her knees. They were like this. Swollen up like this. Because we did this enermous eight hour stretch.

AF : Uhm.

(Students on hill walking taken from cutting (2002)

In except (3), the participants—AF & DM—share cultural background knowledge about the low mountains on the island: AF does not appear surprised that DM and his friends went "hill walking", that they could walk for eight hours there, or that the walk was streneous enough to make somebody's knees swell. One of the reasons why honour from one country is difficult to understand by another people from different country is the cultural context and shared attitude of a group.

Interpersonal contexts refers to specific and possibly private knowledge about the history of the speakers themselves (Cutting, 2002). Shared interpersonal knowledge is knowledge acquired through previous verbal interactions or joint activities and experi-

ences, and it includes priveleged personal knowledge about the interlocutor. Let us look a dialogue between husband and wife of US television advertisement:

(4) Her : How are you?

    Him : OK.

    Her : Did you have friends in and get a video last night?

    Him : Oh, I had friends in, but we just watched a little TV.

    Her : Ah right.

    Him : That was great. How do you feel?

    Her : OK.

(taken from Cutting [2002])

It is only when she say "OK" at the end that there is a flash-back and we see that she won a gold medal in an Olympic event. At this point, we understand that "*Oh, I had friends in, but we just watched a little TV*" means "*I had friends in to watch you playing on TV and I know you won.*" The interpersonal knowledge shared by a husband and wife is obviously enermous: this is why reference to any part of it can be so vague.

b. Co-textual Contexts

Contextual context is also known as the context of the text itself which is also regarded as co-text (Cutting, 2002). Co-text includes grammatical cohesion and lexical cohesion.

1) Grammatical Cohesion

Grammatical cohesion refers to the linkage or connection between a referring expression with another referring expression within the co-text (Cutting, 2002). In short, grammatical cohesion is what interconnects text together. Grammatical cohesion can be grouped into reference, substitution and ellipsis. It can be seen clearly in the following chart.
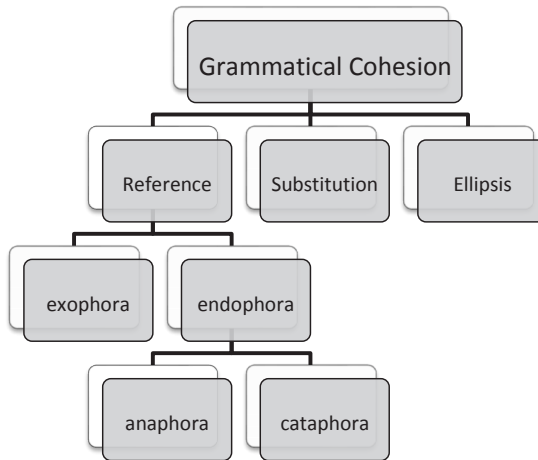
FIGURE 2.2. TYPES OF GRAMMATICAL COHESION

Reference

Reference refers to the act of using language to refer to entities in the context. In other words, it can be stated that reference is the act in which a speaker employs linguistic forms to facilitate the hearer to identify something. The speaker uses linguistic forms, known as **referring expression**, to enable the hearer to identify the entity being referred to is regarded as **referent**. For example:

(5) DM : // **I** went with Francesca and David.

AF : Uhuh?

DM : Francesca's room-mate and Alice's-a friend of Alice's from London. There were six of **us**. Yeah **we** did a lot of hill walking.

In the excerpt (5) , the word "*I*" in the utterance "*I went with Francesca and David*" is the first person singular personal pronoun. "*I*" is a referring expression which refers to the person speaking, who is referent. Correspondingly, the proper nouns "*Francesca*" and *"David"* are the referring expressions that refers to the two

people whose name *Francesca* dan *David,* the later being referents.

When the referents are preceeding the referring expression or there no previous mention of the reference in the preceeding text is called **exophoric reference**. In addition, exophora is dependent on the context outside of text. Therefore, the "*us*" and "*we*" are **endophoric** because they refers to entities mentioned in the text. They refer back to DM, Francesca, David, Francesca's roommate, the friend of Alice's and Michelle. Accordingly, endophoric reference can be defined as the referring expressions refer to items within the same text.

There are two types of endophora—anaphora and cataphora. **Anaphora** refers to the referent of referring expression is back to something that went before in the preceding text. Whereas, **cataphora** is opposite—pronouns link forward to a referent in the text that follows.

Substitution

Substitution refers to endophoric references that holds the text together and avoid repetition. For example:

(6)   *Little boxes on the hillside*
      Little boxes made of ticky-tacky
      Little boxes, little boxes
      Little boxes, all the same
      There's a green **one** *and a pink* **one**
      And a blue **one** *and a pink* **one**
      And they're all made out of ticky-tacky
      And they all look just the same
      (taken from Cutting [2002])

The excerpt (6) shows us the use of referring expression **one** in the sentences *"There's a green one and a pink one"* and *"And a blue one and a yellow one"* are the examples of **substitution**. The word *"one"* is substituting for the *"little box"*.

Ellipsis

Ellipsis, just like substitution, avoids repetition and depends on the hearer or reader's being able to retrieve the missing words from the surrounding cotext. Ellipsis is a typical feature of both spoken and written text, although it occurs more frequent in a dialogue since the spoken interaction tends to be less explicit. For example:

(7) Catriona : What was he doing? Tell me, make me cringe
    Jessica : Oh nothing to make you cringe or anything. He was just, he was just like... saying you know just stuff that was really pretty well sick.
    Catriona : Oh last night, last night **he was as well** with Romeo and Juliet.

(taken from Cutting [2002])

From the excerpt (7) we see that Catriona uses ellipsis in her utterance like "*he was as well*", and thus avoids stating "*he was saying stuff that was really pretty well sick as well*".

Both substitution and ellipsis canonly be used when there is no ambiguity as to what is being substituted or ellipted. If there is more than possibility, the result can be confusion.

2) Lexical Cohesion

Lexical cohesion refers to linguistic devices function to interconnect words in the texts to make a cohesive exchange. There are four types of lexical cohesion, namely repetition, synonym, superordinate and general words. They are presented in the diagram as follows:
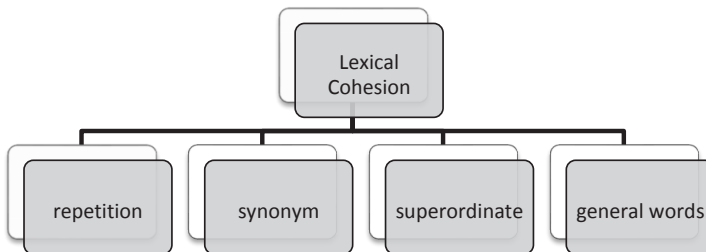
FIGURE 2.3. TYPES OF LEXICAL COHESION

Repetition

One of lexical cohesion devices is by simply repeating words or phrases thoroughly in the texts. It is known as **repetition**. Mostly writer used repetition in stylistic purpose—to make tasteful effect.

Synonyms

Synonym refers to linguistic devices in which to indicate cohesive texts utilised by the speaker or writer by the another word that has the same meaning or almost the same meaning. It is done by the speaker or writer to create enjoyable conversation or interesting essay.

Superordinates

Superordinate is one way of speaker or writer to avoid word repetition, but using the general term. For example, the speaker or writer can use *flower* as superordinate of *rose, tullip, orchid, etc*. *Flower* is the upper level; whereas *rose, tullip, and orchid* are lower one. The lower levels are referring to noun classified as superordinate functions as umbrella term.

General Words

General words means one kind of lexical cohesion in which speaker or writer use one word a higher level that functions as umbrella term. For example: *thing, woman, person, man*, etc.

CONCLUSION

In the context of pragmatics, there are two things to be considered; context and co-text. Context is how to someone understanding of much of what he reads and hears is tied to the physical context, particularly the time and place, in which someone encounter linguistic expressions. And co-text is based on physical context.

STUDENTS' TASK/EXERCISE

1. What is contexts? Give comprehensive explanation!
2. What is context outside of text? Give explanation and examples!
3. What is context inside of text? Give explanation and examples!
4. Complete the following table with the differences of extralinguistic context from linguistic context.

No	Aspects	Extralinguistic Context	Linguistic Context
1			
2			
3	dst.		

5. What is the role of contexts in pragmatic analysis? Give examples and explanation.

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UNIT
3   English Deixis

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

Students have to be able correctly to:
- Write the concept/definition of deixis from three experts;
- Differentiate deictic expression from non-deictic expression;
- Differentiate gestural from symbolic dectics o elaborate types of deixis with its indicators and examples;
- Find out types of deixis applied by the participants in the transcription of classroom interaction.

LEARNING MATERIALS

INTRODUCTION

Pragmatics studies everything all aspects related to language and its meaning. One of them is deixis. As what stated by Huang (2007: 132), the term of "deixis" is derived from the Greek word meaning "to show" or "to point out." Moreover, he explains that deixis directly concerned with the relationship between the structure of a language and the context in which the language is used. There are some basics categories of deixis that will be explained

in this unit such as person deixis, temporal (time) deixis, spatial (space) deixis, social deixis and discourse deixis, but at first it will be explained about deictic and nondeictic expression and also gestural with symbolic use of deictic.

1. Deitic vs Non-Detic Expression

Huang (2007: 133) claims that deitic expression or deitics are expression that have a deictic usage as basic or central. Meanwhile, non-deictic expressions are expressions that do not have such a usage as basic or central.

(1) a. *You and you, but not you, back to your dorms!*
(deictic expression)
b. *Mary wishes that she could visit the land of Liliput.*
(non-deictic expression)

Moreover, Cruse (2000: 319) simply defines deixis as different thing to different people. It means deixis is relation between statement and its contacts. In addition, Grundy (1995: 19) explains deixis as the relations of language to each point of origin. The more speaker an address share come on ground, the more they are able to effect reference. Reference is result by contact in the case of indexical for example, *I know you enjoy reading the chapter. You* picks out a particular but different person on each separate occasion. The utterance would be accompanied by gestures and/or eye contact.

2. Gestural vs Symbolic Use of Deictic Expression

Huang (2007: 134) explains that gestural use can be properly interpreted only by a direct, moment by moment monitoring of some physical aspects of the speech event. By contrast, interpretation of the symbolic use of deictic expressions only involves knowing the basic spatio-temporal parameter of the speech event. Furthermore, it is explained that gestural use is the basic use, and

symbolic use is the extended use. In general, if the deictic expressions can be used in symbolic it can be used in gestural way; but not vice versa.

Related to this case, Cruse (2000: 324) argues that gestural deixis related to the uses of deictics that require for someone's interpretation continuous monitoring of relevant aspects of the speech situation: in the clearest cases, the hearer has to be able to see the speaker and their gestures. In this case, the example can be seen from this sentence: *Put one over* **there** *and the other one* **here***.* Meanwhile, in symbolic deixis such minute monitoring of the speech situation is not necessary and in general the relevant parameters for deictic interpretation are established over relatively long periods of a conversation/discourse such in this sentence: *Isn't this weather gorgeous?*

3. Definition of Deixis

Deixis refers to different thing for different people (Cruse, 2000). Yule (1996) asserts that deixis can be defined as "pointing via language". Any linguistic form used to accomplish this 'pointing' is called **deictic expression—** sometimes it is called **indexi-calls**. For example, when you notice a strange object and ask by utterring question such as (1).

(2) What is **that**?
     The word *"that"* is deictic expression to indicate something in the immediate context. Deictic expressions have their most basic uses in face-to-face spoken interaction where utterance such as [2] are easily understood by people present, but may need a translation for someone not right there.

(3) I'll put **this here**
     If the conversation occurs between your mother and you and you are present in this interaction, you will understand that your mother was telling to you that she was about to put a knife in one of kitchen drawer. The word '*this'* refers to *a knife* and "*here*" refers to *one of kitchen drawers*.

4. Types of Deixis

a. Person Deixis

Cruse (2000) divides person deixis into three categories: the speaker which is known as **the first person**; the adressee which is called as **the second person**; and significant participants in the speech situation which is called as **the third person**. Yule (1996) claims that person deixis relates to the use of personal pronoun *"I"* (the first speaker) and *"You"* (the second speaker) because when face-to-face interaction occurs, the first speaker being *"I"* will be shifted into being *"You"* constantly. Huang (2007: 136) says that person deixis is concerned with the identification of interlocutor or participant-roles in a speech event. In addition, Grundy (1995) claims that all pronouns require identification with some other points. For their reference to be affected in the case of deictic, the reference is determined in relation to the point of origin of utterance.

Yule (1996) and Huang (2000) propose two basic categories of person deixis:

a. Personal pronouns generally exhibit a three-way distinction of first person, second and third person:
-       The speaker (the first person): *I* (singular), exclusive and inclusive *we* (plural), as in (4).

> (4) **We** clean up after ourselves around here
> The first person plural "*We*" in (4) has potential ambiguity. It allows two different interpretations. There is an **exclusive 'We'** (speaker plus other(s), excluding addresse) and **inclusive 'We'** (speaker and addressee included). In English, ambiguity present in (3), provides a subtle opportunity for hearer to decide what was communicated. Either the hearer decides that he or she is a member of the group to whom the rule applies (i.e. an addressee) or an outsider to whom the rule does not apply (i.e. not an addressee). In this case the hearer gets to decide the kind of 'more' that is being communicated.

> The inclusive-exclusive distinction may also be noted in the difference between saying "*Let's go*" (to some friends) and *"Let us go"* (to someone who has captured the speaker and friends). The action of going is inclusive in the first, but exclusive in the second.

- The addressee (the second person): *You* (singular/plural).
- Significant participants in the speech situation (the third person): *She, He, It.*

b. Vocatives which can be encoded in, for example kinship term, titles, and proper names and in combination of these. Vocatives are Noun Phrase (NP) that refer to the addresse but form no part of the arguments of a predicate. Prosodically, they are separated from the body of an utterance that may accompany them. Vocatives in general are grouped into two types. First is **calls** or **summonses** which is being gestural in nature and utterance initial, as in (3). Second is **addresse** which is being symbolic in character, parenthetical and can occur wherever other parentheticals can occur, as in (4). All **addresse** can be used as calls/summones; only some calls/summones can be used as addresse.

[3] a. Hey *Daddy*, look, a spider in the corner
     b. *John*, if we don't leave now, we'll be late for our next appointment
[4] a. I'm afraid, *Sir*, we are closing.
     b. Do you fancy going to a concert of Islamic music, *Lucy*?

b. Temporal (Time) Deixis

Cruse (2000) asserts that temporal deixis connotes with points or interval on time axis; using (ultimately) moment of utterances as reference time. Huang (2007: 144) defines time deixis as the encoding of temporal points and span relative to the time at which an utterance is produce in a speech events.

a. Time.

Time is one dimensional and unidirectional. Generally, the

passage of time is represented in two distinct ways; (i) to regard time as constant and the "world" as moving through time from the past into the future and (ii) to think of the world as stable and of time as flowing through the world from the future to the past. A distinction can be made between time point such as "eight o'clock" and time period such as "tomorrow evening." Time periods can be uniquely defined in terms of their beginning and ending points. Another distinction that need to make is between the moment of utterance called coding time (CT) and the moment of reception called receiving time (RT).

b. The encoding of time deixis.

Time deixis is commonly grammaticalized in:

•   Deictic adverbs of time.

Now and *then* in English is the two pure time deictics called temporal demonstratives. *Now* designates "**proximal**" time, it can be defined as the pragmatically given (time) span including CT. By contrast, *then* refers to "**distal**" time, and can be reduced to meaning "not now" it can be indicated time either in the past or in the future.

Deictic calendrical unit terms such as *today* and *tomorrow* and *yesterday,* this deictic names of days divide time into diurnal spans. Today can be glossed as the diurnal span including CT, *tomorrow* as the diurnal span following today, and *yesterday* as the diurnal span preceding today. Both *now/then* and *today/tomorrow/yesterday* can relate to either a time point, or an interminable time period within the relevant span, or the whole spans itself.

The use of *today/tomorrow/yesterday* pre-empts, that is, it has priority over, the use of the calendrical terms for the relevant days.*This month, next Monday,* and *last year* are complex deictic adverbs of time. These contain two components, a deictic component like *this, next* and *last*, and nondeictic components like *month, Monday,* and *year*. The interpretation of such adverbs is systematically

determined by two distinctions: (i) the distinction between calendrical (such as Thursday, July and evening), and non-calendrical (such as month, week, year), modes of reckoning of time, and (ii) the distinction between positional and non-positional calendrical units.

- Tense

  Lyons and Levinson in Huang (2007: 148) distinguish time into metalinguistic tense (M-tense) and linguistic tense (L-tense). M-tense is meant the theoretical category of tense, whereas L-tense is meant by linguistic realization of M-tense. M-tense may be lexically realized by means of adverbs of time or the like—expression equivalent to *yesterday, this week* and *next year*.

  Moreover, Cruse (2000: 321) adds that temporal deictic function to locate points or interval on the axis. There are three major divisions of the time axis: (i) before the moment of utterance; (ii) at the time of utterance; (iii) after the time of utterance.

  In addition, Grundy (1995: 25) adds the use of time deictic is not always so straight forward and tense system is important to the time deictic. Almost every sentence makes reference to an event time often this event time can only be determined in relation to the time of the utterance.

c. Spatial (Place) Deixis

In Huang (2007: 149), space deixis is concerned with the specification of location in space relative to that of participant as CT in a speech event.

a. Frames of spatial reference.

   They are coordinate system used to compute and specify the location of object with respect to other objects. There are three linguistic frames of reference to express spatial relationship between the entity to be located and the landmark: (i) intrinsic; (ii) relative; and (iii) absolute. Intrinsic is based on

object-centred coordinate, which are determine by "inherent feature" such as the sideness or facets of the object to be used as ground. The second, relative frame of reference expresses a ternary special relation between a few point, and a figure and a ground that are distinct from the view point. The last one, the absolute frame of reference also involves a coordinate system, but it is based on absolute coordinate like *north/south/east/west.*

b. The grammaticalization of space deixis.
    Special deictic notion are commonly expressed by the use of (i) demonstrative including both demonstrative pronouns and adjectives; (ii) deictic adverb of space; (iii) deictically marked third person pronouns; (iv) verbal affixes of motion and verbs of motions.

c. Demonstratives and deictic adverb of space
    1) Distance.
        Languages can be classified according to the number of terms demonstrative and deictic adverbs of space display. One—term systems, they are supplemented by a two—term systems of deictic adverbs of space. Two—term systems, it seems to be the most difficult and universal system of space deixis. Three—term systems, it is called distance—oriented. In this system, the middle term refers to a location that is so close to the addressee. Four—term systems, it is more remote from the speech situation—more than four—term systems. They are defined along the basic, single deictic dimension of distance, most are involved with more than one dimension of contrast.

    2) Visibility
        It is in concern with whether the entity in question is within sight of the speaker or not. First type of visibilities is Imai in Hwang (2007: 156) distinguished three types of invisibilities, first type is invisibility parameter (remote) is used to mark entities that are out of sight and far from the speaker. The second type is invisible—occlusion, it is

employed to refer to entities that are behind an obstacle or inside a container. The last type is invisible–periphery which is utilized to encode entities that are out of sight but audible and/or olfactory, that is to say thing that speaker can identify by their noise and/or smell but cannot see.

3) Elevation

It is the physical dimension of height relative to the deictic centre typically the speaker.

4) Side

Language in which there is a set of deictic terms which and code on which side a settlement is located along the coastline.

5) Stance

The demonstrative must indicate the stance or motion of the referent. Whether it is "standing", "sitting", "laying", "coming", or "going".

d. Deictically marked third – person pronounce.

These pronouns specify the location of the intended referent with respect to the speaker.

e. Deictic directional

They can be grouped into two categories: (i) kinetic or deictic motion affixes, morphemes, and particles, which mean "hither/thither"; and (ii) deictic motion verbs—verb such as "come and go".

In addition, Cruse (2000: 320) states that spatial deixis manifests itself principally in the form of locative adverb such as *here* and *there*, and demonstratives or determiners such as *this* and *that*. The term *here* means something "region relatively close to the speaker", and *there* means "relatively distance from the speaker". *Here* may represent an area less than the squaremeter on which the speaker on standing *this* is a first deictic. Meanwhile, Grundy (1995: 23) divides deictic proximal demonstrative into two, *this* (pl. *these*) and *that* (pl. *those*), which may be used either as pronouns or in combination with nouns.

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d. Social Deixis

Cruse (2000: 322-323) claims that social deixis is exemplified by certain uses of the so-called TV (tu/vous) pronouns in many languages. The example can be be illustrated by using example from French. Arguments will be presented that not all usages of TV pronouns fall properly under the heading of deixis. One which incontrovertibly does is where relative social status of speaker and hearer is signaled.

There are three basic possibilities involving two communicants A and B: (i) A addresses B with tu, B addresses A with vous; (ii) A addresses B with vous, B addresses A with tu; (iii) A and B both use the same from (either tu or vous). The basic parameter here is social status: tu points downwards along the scale of social status with the speaker's position as reference point, vous points upwards while symmetrical use signals social equality.

Meanwhile, Huang (2007: 163) argues that social deixis is concerned with the codification of the social status of the speaker, the addressee, or a third person or entity referred to, as well as the social relationship holding between them. The information encoded in social deixis may include social class, kin relationship, age, sex, profession, and ethnic group. Further, he explains social deixis in these some subtopics as below:

a. Absolute versus relational social deixis.

    Comrie, Levinson, and Brown and Levinson in Huang (2007: 163) state the two main types of socially deictic information can be identified absolute and relational. Absolute information in social deixis can be illustrated by forms that are reserved for authorized speakers or authorized recipients. For example, in imperial China there was a form zhen that was specially reserved for the emperor to refer to himself. Going next to forms that are reserved for authorized recipients, restrictions are placed on most titles of addresses such as your majesty, Mr. Presidents, and professor in English.

b. Four axes of relational social deixis.

    Relational information in social deixis can be represented between:

a) Speaker and referent (e.g. referent honorifics);
b) Speaker and addresses (e.g. addressee honorifics);
c) Speaker and bystander (bystander honorifics);
d) Speaker and setting (level of formality).

Referent honorifics are forms that are employed by the speaker to show respect towards the referent. Addresses honorifics are forms that are used by the speaker to show deference towards the addressee. Bystander honorifics are form that used by the speaker to signify respect to a bystander, including participant in the role of audience and non-participant overhearers. Speaker-setting axis has to do with the relationship between the speaker (and perhaps other participations) and the speech setting or event.

c. The expression of social deixis.
   Social deixis can be accomplished by a wide range of linguistic devices including personal pronouns, forms of address, affixes, clitics and particles, and the choice of vocabulary.

d. Personal pronoun.
   Personal pronouns can be used to achieve a number of socially deictic effects.

e. Forms of address.
   Forms of address are another common way of realizing social deixis. They include different types of name such as first name (e.g. James), last name (e.g. Bond), and a combination of first and last name (e.g. James Bond).

f. Affixes, clitics, and particles.
   Socially deictic information can also be encoded by affixes, clitics, and particles. Verb forms in Korean, for example, may select one of the following suffixes attached.

g. Choice of vocabulary.
   Socially deictic information can also be reflected in the choice of the vocabulary used.

e. Discourse Deixis

Huang (2007: 172) argues that discourse deixis is concerned with the use of a linguistic expression within some utterance to point to the current, preceding or following utterances in the same spoken or written discourse.

Alternatively, discourse deixis can be said to refer to propositions.

A few illustrative examples from English are given in:

a) This is how birds evolved from predatory dinosaurs;
b) That is tonight's evening news;
c) Here goes the main argument;
d) In the last section, we discussed conversational implicature, in this section, we consider conventional implicature, and in the next section, we shall compare and contrast them;
e) As already mentioned, the three main branches of the legal profession in England are solicitors, barristers and legal executive.

Huang (2007: 172) explains that the use of the proximal demonstrative this in: (a) anticipates information to be conveyed in an upcoming stretch of the discourse. The same is true of the use of the proximal adverb of space here in; (b) by contrast, the use of the distal demonstrative that in; (c) refers back to a preceding segment of the discourse. This is also the case with the use of already in; (d) the term last, this, and next used in; (e) make reference to a preceding, current, and following portion of the discourse.

Moreover, according to Cruse (323-324) discourse deixis refers to such matter as the use of this to point to future discourse elements, that is, thing which are about to be said, as in *Listen to this, it will kill you!* And *that* to point to past discourse elements, as in *that was not a very nice thing to say*. It is sometime claim that certain sentence adverbs, such as *therefore* and *furthermore* the recovery of the piece of previous discourse to be understood. A distinction can be made between discourse deixis and anaphora, although the two are obviously related. Anaphora picks up a previous reference to an extralinguistic entity and repeats it.

CONCLUSION

Expressions can be divided into deictic and non-deictic expression. Deitic expression or deitics are expression that have a deictic usage as basic or central; non-deictic expressions do not have such a usage as basic or central.

Furthermore, deictics can be used in gestural and also symbolic. Gestural use is the basic use, and symbolic use is the extended use. In general, if the deictic expressions can be used in symbolic it can be used in gestural way; but not vice versa. There are some basic categories of deixis such as person deixis, temporal (time) deixis, spatial (space) deixis, social deixis and discourse deixis. Person deixis is related to with the identification of interlocutor or participant-roles in a speech event. Temporal (time) deixis is concerned with the encoding of temporal points and span relative to the time at which an utterance is produce in a speech events. Meanwhile, spatial (space) deixis is concerned with the specification of location in space relative to that of participant as CT in a speech event. Social deixis is concerned with the codification of the social status of the speaker, the addressee, or a third person or entity referred to, as well as the social relationship holding between them. The last point, discourse deixis deals with such matter as the use of this to point to future discourse elements.

STUDENTS' TASK/EXERCISE

1. Complete the following table with the definition of deixis from three experts.

Definition of deixis		
Grundy (1995)	Cruse (2000)	Huang (2007)
Deixis (use your own words) is		

2. Complete the following table with definition, indicators and examples of each type of deixis.

Types of Deixis	Definition	Indicators	Examples
Person deixis			
Time deixis			
Spatial deixis			
Social deixis			
Discourse deixis			

3. Analyze transcript of classroom interaction in Appendix, then find out types of deixis used by participants in the interaction.

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UNIT
4   English Presuppositions

Students have to be able correctly to:
- write the concept/definition of presupposition from two experts;
- elaborate some properties/indicators of presupposition;
- elaborate types of presupposition and its indicators and examples;
- find out types of presipposition used by participants in data source.

INTRODUCTION

One of topics which is studied in pragmatics is presupposition. In Huang (2007: 64), it found that in linguistics, the investigated of presupposition is concerned with a much wider range of phenomena, centering around the general debates about the interaction and division of labour between semantics and pragmatics. Thus, in this unit, it will be explained all about presupposition which is divided

into some topics such as: (1) the nature of presupposition; (2) the properties of presupposition; and (3) the types of presupposition.

1. What is Presupposition?

Presupposition can be simply defined as an inference. In this case, Huang (2007: 65) explains that presupposition whose trust is taken for granted in the utterance of a sentence. Its main function is to act as a precondition of some sort for the appropriate of that sentence. Furthermore, he argues that presupposition is usually generated by the use of particular lexical items and/or linguistic construction. Presupposition has in general been regarded as "a heterogenous collection of quite distinct and different phenomena." Presupposition can be seen from these examples given by Huang (2007: 65) below:

(1) a. *The king of France is/isn't bald.*
It presupposes that there is a king of France.
b. John knows/doesn't know that Baird invented television.
It presupposes that Baird invented television.

Meanwhile Yule (1996: 25) claims presupposition as something the speaker assumes to be the case prior to making an utterance. Moreover, he adds that presupposition is treated as a relationship between two propositions. Simply, he explains this case by using these following sentences:

(2) a. *Mary's dog is cute* (=p)
b. *Mary has a dog* (=q)
c. p >> q (p presupposes q)

2. Properties of Presupposition

It is explained in Huang (2007: 67) that presuppositions exhibit a number of distinctive properties, notably: constancy under negation, defeasibility or cancellability and projection problem.

a. Constancy under Negation

Huang (2007: 65) explains that a presupposition generated by the use of a lexical item or a syntactic structure remains the same when the sentence containing that lexical item or syntactic structure is negated. It is supported by Yule (1996: 26) who states that the presupposition of a statement will remain constant (still true) even when that statement is negated.

Furthermore, he explains that in these sentences as example:

(3) a. *Everybody knows that John is genius.*　　(=p)
     b. *Everybody doesn't know that John is genius.*　(=NOT p)
     c. *John is genius.*　　(=q)
     d. p>>q & NOT p>>q

Yule (1996: 27) explains that, in this case although both speakers disagree about the validity of the statement in the sentences before, they both assume the true of the presupposition of *q*. it is presupposed that both *p* and *NOT p* remaining constant under negation.

b. Defeasibility or Cancellability

Huang (2007: 68) claims that presuppositions are cancellable. They are nullified if they are inconsistent with background assumption, conversational implicatures, and certain discourse context. They can also drop out in certain intrasentential context.

Firstly, presupposition can disappear in the face of inconsistency with background assumption or real—world knowledge. Huang (2007: 69) explains this case by using the example as below:

(4) a. *John got an assistant professorship before he finished his Ph.D.*
         (It presupposes that John finished his Ph.D.)
     b. *John died before he finished his Ph.D.*
         (It doesn't carry presupposition because the putative presupposition conflicts with real–word knowledge that one cannot do anything after one dies).

Secondly, presupposition can be cancelled by inconsistent conversational implicatures. Simply, it can be explained by using this sentence as consideration:

(5) *If John is organizing a stag night, Marry will be angry that he is doing so.*

The use of factive of predicate *angry* in the sentence should give rise to the potential presupposition that John is organizing a stag night. However, it is also possible that John is not organizing a stag night.

Thirdly, presuppositions are contextually cancelable if they run contrary toward immediate discourse context tells about. For example:

(6) *There is no king of France. Therefore the king of France is not bold.*
(It should presuppose that there is a king of France).
Presupposition also can be suspended by so called reduction arguments.

Such in this example below:

(7) Someone noticing the open door and asked: *Was it you who opened the door to the porch? I closed it at lunch time.* Someone else answer: *Well it was not me who opened it because I've been gone all afternoon, and it wasn't Joan who opened it because he was with me and it wasn't any of the kids who opened it because they are on the field trip. And I strongly suspect that nobody opened it.*

In this conversation it should bear the presupposition that someone opened the door to the porch. However, the second speaker's utterance is to convince that no one opened it.

Finally, presupposition can disappear with certain verbs of saying such as *say, mention, tell, ask,* and *announce* and certain verbs of propositional attitude such as *believe, think, imagine, dream,* and *want.*

3. The Projection Problem

The projection problem manifests itself in two opposite directions as stated by Huang (2007: 73). Moreover, he explains that on the one side of the projection point, the presupposition of a component sentence may felt to be projected on to and hence, inherited by the whole complex sentence. On the other sides, the presupposition of a component sentence may be preserved when that constituent sentence becomes part of more complex sentence.

Meanwhile, Yule (1996: 30) explains this case as one version of the general idea that the meaning of the whole sentence is a combination of the meaning of its parts. However, the meaning of some presuppositions (as parts) doesn't survive to become the meaning of some complex sentences (as wholes). Further, this case can be seen through the examples below:

(8) a. *Blaine regrets getting Gigi pregnant.* (=p)
    b. *Blaine got Gigi pregnant.* (=q)
    c. p>>q

(9) a. *He didn't get her pregnant.*   (=r)
    b. *Blaine regrets getting Gigi pregnant, but he didn't* (=p & r)
       get her pregnant.
    c. p & r >> NOT q

In this case, one way to think about the whole sentence presented is an utterance by person reporting what happened actually.

4. Types of Presupposition

Yule (1996: 27) argues that in the analysis of how speakers' assumptions are typically expressed, presupposition has been associated with the use of a large number of words, phrases, and structures. He considers these linguistics forms as indicators of potential presuppositions which will be explained in these points below.

a. Lexical Presupposition

In this case, Yule (1996: 28) claims that in lexical presupposition, the use of one form with its asserted meaning is conventionally interpreted with the presupposition that another (non-asserted) meaning is understood. It involves the lexical items such as *manage, try, stop, start,* and *again.* Further, he gives some examples as following:

(10) a. *He* **stopped** *smoking.*
          (It can be presupposed that he used to smoke).
      b. *They* **started** *complaining.*
          (It can be presupposed that they weren't complaining before).
      c. *You're late* **again.**
          (It can be presupposed that you were late before).

b. Structural Presupposition

Yule (1996: 28) explains that certain sentence structure has been analyzed as conventionally and regularly presupposing that part of the structure is already assumed to be true. For example, the WH Question construction in English is conventionally interpreted with the presupposition that the information after the WH form is already known to be the case as in this question below:

(11) a. *When did he leave?*
          (It is already known that he left).
      b. *Where did you buy the bike?*
          (You bought the bike).

c. Existential Presupposition

As what stated by Yule (1996: 27) that existential presupposition is not only assumed found in possessive construction, but more generally in any definite nonphrase by using any of expressions such as *the king of Sweden, the cat, the girl next to the door*; which the speaker is assumed to be committed to the assistant of the entities named.

d. Factive Presupposition

Yule (1996: 27) describes factive presupposition as information that can be treated as a fact. It is usually signaled by a verb like *realize, regret* and also by phrases involving *be* with *aware, odd* and *glad*. Example:

(12) a. *She didn't realize he was ill.*
     (It can be presupposed that he was ill).
   b. *We regret telling him.*
     (It can be presupposed that we told him).
   c. *I'm glad that it is over.*
     (It can be presupposed that it's over) .

e. Non-factive Presupposition

The other type of presupposition is non factive presupposition which explained by Yule (1996: 29) as one that is assumed not to be true. It uses verbs like *dream, imagine* and *pretend*. The examples are as follow:

(13) a. *I dreamed that I was rich.*
     (It can be presupposed that I was not rich).
   b. *We imagine we were in Hawaii.*
     (It can be presupposed that we were not in Hawaii).
   c. *He pretends to be ill.*
     (It can be presupposed that he is not ill).

f. Counter-factual Presupposition

Yule (1996: 29) explains that counter-factual presupposition refers to what is presupposed is not only not true, not is the opposite of what is true, or contrary to the fact.

(14) *If you were my friend, you would have helped me.*
    (It can be presupposed that you are not my friend).

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CONCLUSION

Presupposition can simply define as something the speaker assumes to be the case prior to making an utterance. It exhibits a number of distinctive properties, notably: constancy under negation, defeasibility or cancellability and projection problem. Presupposition is divided into some types. The first type is lexical presupposition which deals with the use of one form with its asserted meaning. The second type is structural presupposition. It is related to sentence structure which is conventionally and regularly presupposing that part of the structure is already assumed to be true. There is also existential presupposition which is more generally in any definite nonphrase by using any of expressions which thse speaker is assumed to be committed to the assistant of the entities named. The other type, factive presupposition refers to information that can be treated as a fact. Meanwhile, nonfactive presupposition is assumed not to be true. The last one, counter-factual presupposition refers to what is presupposed is not only not true, not is the opposite of what is true, or contrary to the fact.

STUDENTS' TASK/EXERCISE

1. Complete the following table with the definition of presupposition from two experts.

No	Experts	Concepts/Definitions of Presupposition
1	Yule (1996)	
2	Huang (2007)	
(Using your own words) Presupposition deals with … …… ……………… ……………………………………………………………………………………………… ………………………………………… ………………………………………………………………………………		

2. Complete the following table with definition, indicators and examples of each type of presupposition.

No .	Types of Presupposition	Definition	Indicators	Examples
1	Lexical Presupposition			
2	Structural Presupposition			
3	Existential Presupposition			
4	Factive Presupposition			
5	Non-factive Presupposition			
6	Counter-Factual Presupposition			

3. Analyze the transcript of classroom interaction in Appendix, find out the types of presupposition used by participants in the interaction.

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Cooperative Principles & Grice's Conversational Maxims

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

Students have to be able precisely to:
- Write the concept/definition of maxims from three experts;
- Elaborate some properties/indicators of conversational maxims;
- Elaborate types of maxims with its indicators and examples o find out the application of types of maxims (observed and non-observance maxims) in the data source.

LEARNING MATERIALS

INTRODUCTION

This unit will discuss cooperative principles and grice's conversational maxim. The explanation will be elaborated into: (1) concept of cooperative principles, (2) what is maxim?; (3) types of maxims, namely: (a) quantity maxims; (b) quality maxims; (c) relation maxims; (d) manner maxims; (e) the relation between the speaker and maxims; (f) flouting maxims; and (g) hedging maxim.

1. What is Cooperative Principles?

To get the concept of cooperative principles, consider the following scenario proposed by Yule (1996: 36). There is a woman sitting on a park bench and a large dog lying on the ground in front of the bench. A man comes along and sits down on the bench.

(1) Man : Does your dog bite?
    Woman : No
            (The man reaches down to pet the dog. The dog bites the man's hand).
    Man : Ouch! Hey! You said your dog doesn't bite.
    Woman : He doesn't. But that's not my dog.

One of the problems in this scenario has to do with communication. Specifically, it seems to be a problem caused by the man's assumption that more was communicated than was said. It isn't a problem with presupposition because the assumption in "*your dog*" (i.e. the woman has dog) is true for both speakers. The problem is the man's assumption that his question "*Does your dog bites?*" and the woman's answer "*No*" both apply to the dog in front of them. From the man's perspective, the woman's answer provides less information than expected. In other words, she might be expected to provide the information stated in the last line. Of course, if she had mentioned this information earlier, the story wouldn't be as funny. For event to be funny, the woman has to give less information than is expected.

The concept of there being expected amount of information provided in conversation is just one aspect of the more general idea that people involved in a conversation will cooperate with each other. (Of course the woman in [1] may actually be indicating that she does not want to take part in any cooperative interaction with the stranger). In most circumstances, the assumption of cooperation is so pervasive that it can be stated as **cooperative principles** of conversation and elaborated in four sub-principles called **maxims**.

In short, the cooperative principles means <u>**make your conversational**</u> <u>**contribution such as is required, at the stage at**</u>

<u>which it accours, by the</u> <u>accepted purpose or direction of the</u> <u>talk exchange in which you are</u> <u>engaged.</u>

2.   What is Maxims?

Imagine what would happen to language if there were no rules to follow during conversations. The nit would be perfectly acceptable to follow "Hi, how are you doing?" with" cars are typically made from steel", or to simply lie with every statement you made. But then communication would be virtually impossible. It is clear that in normal conversation we don't simply say whatever we please, but instead follow some general guidelines as to what is acceptable and what isn't.

The question now is what exactly are these rules? One of the most basic assumptions we must make for successful communication to take place is that both people in a conversation are cooperating. This is called the Cooperative Principle (conceived originally by the Philosopher H.P. Grice.). Grice suggested that conversation is based on a shared principle of cooperation, something like, "make your conversational contribution what is required, at the stage at which it occurs, by the accepted purpose or direction of the talk exchange in which you are engaged." This principle was fleshed out in a series of maxims.

3.   Types of Conversational Maxims

What can a speaker do with regard to the maxims? *First,* he or she can straightforwardly observe the maxims. *Second*, he or she can violate a maxim. For example, he or she may breach the first sub maxim of quality by telling deliberate lie. *Third*, he or she can opt out of a maxim.

In general, there are two types of maxims—observable and non-observable maxims. Observable maxims can be identified clearly because it is stated explicitly. It follows the rules of conversational maxims. Non-observable maxims is difficult to recognise because it is not explicitly stated.

a. Observing the Maxims

1) The Maxims of Quantity

According to Cruse (2000: 356) quantity maxims is concerned with the amount of information an utterance conveys. Then, Huang (2007: 25)

✓ Make your contribution as informative as is required (for the current purposes of the exchange).
✓ Do not make your contribution more informative than is required.

For Examples:

Imagine a conversation between mother and her daughter:

(2) Mother : What did you have for lunch today?
    Daughter : Food.
(3) Mother : What did you have for lunch today?
    Daughter : I had 87 warmed-up baked beans served on a slice of toast 12.7 cm, by 10.3 cm, which had been unevenly toasted ...

The answer of daughter as in (2) gives too little information, whereas in example (3) the daughter gives too much information.

2) The Maxims of Quality

Huang (2007: 25) described that quality maxims are an effort to make your contribution one is true. They are two terms of quality.

✓ Do not say what you believe to be false.
✓ Do not say that for which you lack adequate evidence.

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3) The Maxims of Relation

According to Cruse (2000:356), maxim of relation means "be relevant" in contributing to a conversation. The guidelines for this maxims is:

For example:

(4)   A : Have you seen Mary today?
      B : I'm breathing

The respon of B as in (4) is not relevant to goal of speaker question.

4) The Maxims of Manner

Huang (2007:25) states that manner maxims refers to the way how speaker contributing in a conversation in a perspicious way. The maxims of manner has four components, namely:

The four types of maxims can be observed in one example, like in the following:

(5)   Husband   :   Where are the car keys?
      Wife   :   They're on the table in the hall.

From the example of (5), it can observed that the wife answered clearly (manner); truthful (quality); has given just the right amount of information (quantity); and has directly addressed her husband's goal in asking the question (relation). She has said precisely what she meant, no more; no less; and has no generated implicature.

b. Non-observance of Maxims

There are many occassions when people fail to observe the maxims. According to Thomas (1995: 65), there are five ways of failing to observe a maxim: (a) flouting maxims; (b) violating maxims; (c) infringing maxims; (d) opting out of a maxim; (e) suspending maxims.

1) Flouting Maxims

According to Grundy (2000: 36), flouting a maxim is a particularly silent way of getting an addressee to draw an inference and hence recover an implicature. Thus there is a trade-off between abiding by maxims (the prototypical way of conducting a conversation) and flouting maxims (the most silent way of conveying implicit meaning).If one tells a lie in English, one breaks one of Grice's maxims (the maxim of quality); but this does not mean that one fails to speak the English language, (Leech, 1983: 8-9). The flouting of the conversational maxims can happen in some situations or occasions for some purposes.Thomas (1995) adds that a flout occurs when a speaker blatantly fails to observe a maxim at the level of what is said, with deliberate intention of generating an implicature.

Flouting Maxims Involved Four Types of Maxims

1) Flouts exploting maxim of quality.

Flout which exploit the maxim of quality occur when the speaker says something which is blatantly untrue or for which he or she lacks adequate evidence (Thomas (1995: 67). Cutting (2002: 37) and Grundy (2000) states that the speaker flouting the maxim of quality may do it in several ways, namely (a) simply saying something that obviously does not represent what he think; (b) exaggerating hyperbole; (c) using a metaphor; (d) using irony and banter; (e) tautology; (f) overstatement; (g) understatement; and (h) rhetorical question.

a. <u>Simply saying something that obviously does not represent what he/she think</u>
For example:

(6)   Sir Maurice   : I think you would be happier in a larger—or smaller—college'
Young man   : ???

This utterance of Sir Maurice in (6) flouts the maxim if he knew that the student would undertand what he was getting at, and hear the message behind his words.

b. *Hyperbole/overstatement* is exaggerated statement, so it is too or more informative (Hornby, 1974: 600). It means that the speaker says more than is necessary that violating the maxim of quality. In another way, he may also convey implicature.
For example:

(7) Lyn : Yes, **I'm starving** too**. I could eat a horse** Martin: Hurry up girl.
    Lyn : Oh dear, stop eating rubbish. You won't eat any dinner.

Utterance "*I'm starving*" in the example is well established exaggerating expression. No speaker would expect their hearer to say, "*What, you could eat a whole horse?*" or "*I don't think you are dying of hunger—you don't even look thin*". Hearers would be expected to know that the speaker simply meant that they were very hungry. Hyperbole is often at the basis of humour.

(8) *"There were* **a million people** *in the room tonight"*

This example is classified as overstatement because it uses exaggeration statement (**a million people**), therefore, the information is more informative.

c. *Metaphor* is using of word to indicate something different from the literal meaning (Hornby, 1974: 533). In metaphor a word which in literal usage denotes one kind of things. Furthermore, metaphor flouts the maxim of quality. The use of metaphor is perhaps usually on record, but there is possibility that exactly which of the connotations of the speaker intends may be of record, (Goody: 227).
For example:

(9) a. *Harry is a real fish.*
       (It means that he drinks of swims or is cold blooded like a fish).

> b. *My house is refrigerator in January.*
>   (the house was very cold).
> c. *Don't be such a wet blanket.*
>   (we just want to have fun).
> d. *I'm going to wash my hand.*
>   (I'm going to urinate).
> e. *She's got a bun in the oven.*
>   (She is pregnant)
> f. *He kicked the bucket.*
>   (He died).

d. <u>Irony and banter</u>; irony is expression of one's meaning by saying something, which is the direct opposite of one's thoughts, in order to make one's remark forceful (Hornby, 1974: 450). By saying the opposite of what means, again violation of quality maxims, speaker can directly convey his intended meaning. According to Cutting (2002: 38) irony is an apparently friendly way of being offensive (mock-politeness). The speaker expresses a positive sentiment and implies a negative one. Banter is an offensive way of being friendly (mock impoliteness). It expresses a negative sentiment and implies a positive one.
For example:

(10) a. *John is real genius.*
         (after John has done stupid act).
      b. *If only you knew how much I love being woken up at 4 am by fire-alarm.*
         (the meaning is opposite).
      c. *Why don't you leave your dirty clothes on the lounge floor.*
         (the meaning is opposite).
      d. *You are nasty.*
         (means stingy).

The example (10 a and b) are classified as irony because the speakers said the opposite not the real condition. The

example (10c) is categorized as sarcasm because it is aims to hurt the hearers. The example (10d) is an example of banter.

e. <u>Tautology</u> is saying something again in different ways without making one's meaning clearer or more forceful, needless repetition (Hornby, 1974: 886). Tautology usually flouts the maxim of quantity. But uttering a tautology, speaker encourages listener to look for an informative interpretation of the non-informative utterance, it may be an excuse (Goody: 225).

For example:

(11)   *War is war*
        Boys will be boys

The example in (11) as belong to tautology because there are repetition words and non-informative utterance.

f. <u>Understatement</u>; the statement is less informative or too economical so it is not informative (Hornby, 1974: 940). Understatement is one way of generating implicature by saying less than is required.

g. <u>*Rhetorical question*</u>; one asked for the sake of effect, to impress people, no answer being needed or expected (Hornby, 1974: 728).

For example:

(12)   *How many times do I have to tell you?"*

This example is classified as rhetorical question because the speaker does not expect the answer from the hearer

2) Flouts exploting maxim of quantity.

The speaker who flouts the maxim of quantity seems to give too little or too much information, (Cutting, 2002: 37). Furthermore, Thomas (1995: 69) adds that a flout of the maxim of quantity occurs when a speaker blatantly gives more of less information than the situation requires. For example:

(13)　A　:　Well, how do I look?

　　　　B　:　Your *shoes are nice* ...

In the example (13), B does not say that the sweatshirt and jeans do not look nice, but knows that A will understand that implication, because A asks about his whole appearance and only gets told about part of it.

3) Flouts exploting maxim of relation.

Acoording to Thomas (1995: 70), the maxims of relation (Be Relevant) is exploited by making a response or observation which is very obviously irrelevant to the topic in hand (e.g. by abruptly changing the subject, or by overtly failing to address the other person's goal in asking question). Cutting (2002: 39) adds that if speaker flout the maxim of relation, they expect that the hearers will be able to imagine what the utterance did *not* say, and make the connection between their utterances and the preceding one(s).

(14)　Heckler　:　We expected a better play.

　　　　Coward　:　I expected better manners.

B's comment in (14) seems irrelevant to the first: the first is talking about play, and the second is about manner. However, Coward intends the heckler to infer that he expected better manners than boing and shouting about his play. The heckler will have understood that Coward found him as well as the others not just badmannered but rude and offensive.

4) Flouts exploting maxim of manner.

Speakers who flout the maxim of manner, appearing to be obscure, are often trying to exclude a third party.

For example:

(15)　Husband　:　Where are you off to?

　　　　Wife　　　:　I was thinking of going out to get some of that *funny white stuff* for *somebody*.

　　　　Husband　:　OK, but don't be long—dinner's nearly ready.

From the example (15), we know that wife speaks in an ambiguous way, saying '*that funny white stuff*' and '*somebody*', because she is avoiding saying '*ice cream*' and '*Michele*', so that her little daughter does not become excited and ask for ice cream before her meal.

2) Violating Maxims

A speaker can be said to "violate" a maxim when they know that the hearers will not know the truth and will only understand the surface meaning of the words. They intentionally generate a misleading implicature (Thomas, 1995: 73). Maxim violating is unostentatiously, quietly deceiving. The speaker deliberately supplies insufficient information, says something that is insincere, irrelevant or ambiguous and the hearer wrongly assumes that they are cooperating, (Cutting, 2002: 40). Violating maxims can happen in the four types of maxim.

1) Violating the maxim of quality.
   If speakers violate the maxim of quality, they are not being sincere and giving wrong information.
   For example:

   (16) Husband : How much did that new dress cost, Darling?
         Wife   : Less than the last one.

   In the example (16) wife covers up the price of the dress by not saying *how much* less than her last dress.

2) Violating the maxim of quantity.
   If speakers violate the maxim of quantity, they do not give the hearer enough information to know what is being talked about, because do not want the hearers to know the full picture. The speakers not implying anything; they are being economical with the truth.
   For example:

   (17) Man   : Does your dog bite?
         Woman : No.

> Man : (*bends down to stroke it and gets bitten*) Ow! You said your dog doesn't bite!
> Woman : That isn't my dog.

In the example (17) the man knew that he was talking about the dog in front of the woman; not the dog of hers at home, yet she intentionally did not give him enough information.

3) Violating the maxim of relation.
   If speakers violate the maxim of relation, they do not give relevant answer to distract the hearer and change the topic. For example:

   (18) Husband : How much did that new dress cost, darling?
        Wife : Let's go out tonight.

4) Violating the maxim of manner.
   If speakers violate the maxim of manner, they do not give brief answers by using general or non-fixed reference. For example:

   (19) Interviewer : What would the other people say?
        Old lady : Ah, well I don't know. I wouldn't like to repeat it because I don't really believe **half of what they are saying**. They just get **a fixed thing** into their mind.

The example (19) shows us that the old lady use of obscure reference by saying "*half of what they are saying*" to refers to other people's opinion, and "*fixed thing*" contain a general noun containing vague reference. She may be using these expressions to avoid giving a brief and orderly answer, for a moment.

3) Infringing Maxims

Infringing maxims occur because the speakers have imperfect linguistic performance, (Thomas, 1995: 74). This condition happens because of several reasons, namely: (1) the speaker has an imperfect command of the language (a young child or foreign learner); (2) the speaker's performance is impaired in some way

(nervousness, drunkenness, excitement); or (3) the speaker is constitutionally incapable of speaking clearly to the point.

4) Opting Out of a Maxim

Opting out of a maxim can be demonstrated by a speaker's use of hedges in conversation (Huang, 2007: 26). The most function of hedges is as softeners. They are (a) to soften claim, e.g., *The data appear to support the assumptions*; (b) to soften complaint, e.g. *Excuse me I think, I came here before her*; (c) to soften request, e.g. *I was wondering if probably you could bring me another cup*; (d) to soften command, e.g. *open that window, will you?*; (e) To soften performative, e.g. *I can promise you that we will be there on time*; (f) To soften criticism, e.g. *well, personally, I think it would be better if the table was placed here*.

Opting out of the maxim can occurs in the four types of maxims.

1) The Maxims of Quantity

Quantity maxims as the initial phrases (*as you probably know, to cut a long story short, I won't bore you with all the details, I can't say anymore, I probably don't need to say this, but ...*) produced in the course of speaker's account of her or his vacation (Yule, 1996).

For examples:

(20) a. **As you probably know**, I am terrified of bugs.
   b. So, **to cut the long story short**, we grabbed our stuff and ran.
   c. **I won't bore you with all the details**, but it was an exciting trip.

2) The Maxims of Quality

Quality maxims use to indicate that what we're saying may not be totally accurate. It can use various phrases such as, *as far I know, I'm not sure if this is right and I guess, I may be wrong, but.* (Yule, 1996).

For example:

(21) a. **As far as I know**, they're married.

   b. **I'm not sure of this is right**, but I heard it was a secret ceremony in Hawaii.

   c. He couldn't live without her, **I guess.**

3) The Maxims of Relation

Yule (1996: 38) states that relation maxims can be found in the middle of speakers' talk when they say things like, "*oh, by the way*" and go on to mention some potentially unconnected information during a conversation. Huang (2007: 25) states that relation maxims should be relevant. Speaker also seems to use expressions like "*anyway*" or, "*well, anyway*" to indicate that they may have drifted into a discussion of some possibly non-relevant material and want to stop. The example of relation maxim such, this may sound like a dumb question, not to change the subject. They are will be developed in examples below:

(22) a. **I don't know if this important**, but some of the files are missing.

   b. **This may sound like a dumb question**, but whose hand writing is this?

   c. **Not to change the subject**, but is this related to the subject?

4) The Maxims of Manner

Here, according to Yule (1996: 39) and Huang (2007: 27) there are several words or phrases that can show the manner maxims, like *I'm not sure if this clear, but …*; *I don't know if this makes sense, but …*; and *this may be a bit tedious, but...*
For examples:

(23) a. **This may be a bit confused**, but I remember being in a car.

   b. **I'm not sure if this makes sense**, but the car had no lights.

   c. **I don't know if this is clear at all**, but I think the other car was reversing.

5) Suspending a Maxim

Suspending a maxim occurs when ther is no need to opt out of observing maxims because there are certain events in which there is no expectation on the part of any participant that they will ful-filled, (Thomas, 1995: 78).

CONCLUSION

There are some principles based on Grice's theory used by a speaker in order to have a cooperative conversation. Grice's theory elaborates it into quantity maxim, quality maxim, relation maxim and manner maxim. In this case there are several relationships that a speaker regards with the maxims. *First,* the speaker can observe the maxims. *Second,* he/she can violate a maxim. *Third,* he/she can opt out the maxims and the last one the speaker can flout or ex-ploit the maxim. All of the guiding principles for talk that speakers orient to these principles (the maxims suggested by Grice's theory) as they communicate will lead the speaker to what called as hedg-ing maxim or opting out of a maxim.

STUDENTS' TASK/EXERCISE

1. Complete the following table with the definition of maxims from three experts.

No	Experts	Concepts/Definitions of Maxims
1	Yule (1996)	
2	Huang (2007)	
3	Grundy (1995)	
(Using your own words) maximsrefers to … ……… …………………… …………………………………………………………………………………………………… ………………………………………… ………………………………………………………………………………		

2. Complete the following table with definition, indicators and examples of each type of maxims.

No	Types of maxims	Definition	Indicators	Examples
1	Observing maxims			
2	Non-observance maxims			
3	Flouting maxims			
4	Violating maxims			
5	Infriging maxim			
6	Opting out of a maxim			
7	Suspending maxim			

3. Analyze transcript of classroom interaction in Appendix, then find out types of maxims used in the transcript.

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UNIT
6 Implicatures

Students have to be able precisely to:
- Write the concept/definition of implicatures from three experts elaborate some properties of conversational implicatures;
- Elaborate types of conversational implicature and its indicators and examples;
- Elaborate types of conventional implicatures with its indicators and examples;
- Find out the application of types of implicature in data sources.

INTRODUCTION

This unit will elaborate some topics, namely: (1) conversational implicatures; (2) properties of conversational implicatures; (3) types of conversational implicatures; (4) conventional implicature; and (5) properties of conventional implicature.

1. What is Implicature?

The word "implicature" derived from the verb "to imply," as is its cognate "implication." Etymologically, "to imply" means "to fold something into something else" (from the Latin verb *plicare* "to fold"); hence, that which is implied, is "folded in"; and has to be "unfolded" in order to be understood, (Mey, 1993: 98).

Implicature is divided into two: conversational implicature and conventional implicature. The notion of implicature (both conversational and conventional) was originated by the H.P. Grice.

2. Conversational Implicatures

Mey (1993: 99) states that conversational implicatures refers to something which is implied from a conversation, that is, which is left implicit in actual language use. Cruse (2000: 349) defines conversational implicatures as characterized by propositions or assumptions not encoded, completely or incompletely in what actually said. Meanwhile Huang (2007: 27) explains that based on Grice's theory, conversational implicature is a set of non-logical inferences, which contains conveyed messages that are meant without being part of what is said in the strict sense.

For example:

(1) Charlene : I hope you brought the bread and the cheese.
     Dexter   : Ah, I brought the bread.

After hearing Dexter's response in (1), Charlene has to assume that Dexter is cooperating and not totally unaware of the quantity maxims. But he didn't mention the cheese. If he had brought, the cheese, he would say so, because he would be adhering to the quantity maxim. He must intend that she infer that what is not mentioned was not brought. In this case, Dexter has conveyed more than he said via a **conversational implicatures**.

The example (1) represent the structure of what was said, with b ($=$ bread) and c ($=$ cheese). Using the symbol $+>$ for an implicature, it is also represeted the additional conveyed meaning.

(2) Charlene : b & c
    Dexter : b (+> NOT c)

3. Properties of Conversational Implicatures

In order to distinguish conversational implicatures from other semantic/pragmatic phenomena there are some criteria of conversational implicatures which are not entirely logically independent from one another.

1. Context Dependence

    Cruse (2000: 349) explains that expression with a single meaning (in example expressing the same proposition) can give rise to different conversational implicatures in different context. For example, in this sentence:

    (3) A : Have you cleared the table and washed the dishes?
          : I've cleared the table.

    (4) A : Am I in time for supper?
          : I've cleared the table.

    The meaning of the utterance from the first conversation will be different from the second one since they used in different context.

2. Defeasibility/Cancellability

    Cruse (2000: 350) states that conversational implicatures can be cancelled by additional material without contradiction or anomaly. For example:

    (5) A : Did the minister attend the meeting and sign the agreement?
        B1 : The minister attended the meeting.
        B2 : The minister attended the meeting; a statement will be issued later with regard to the agreement.

    In this case, the first answer stands a quite strong presumption that the minister did not sign the agreement. However, the

additional material in the second answer suppresses the implicature, that is, the agreement was not signed.

In addition, Huang (2007: 32) states that conversational implicatures can simply disappear in certain linguistic or non-linguistic context, which is called as defeasibility/cancellability. They are cancelled if they are inconsistence with (i) semantic entailments; (ii) background assumptions; (iii) context; and (iv) priority conversational implicatures.

3. Non-Detachability
   Cruse (2000: 350) states that the same propositional contents in same context will always give rise to the same conversational implicature, in whatever form it is expressed (that is to say, the implicature is tied to meaning, and not to form. For example:

   (6) a. : John did not manage to walk as far as the crossroads.
       b. : John attempted to walk as far as the crossroads.
       c. : John didn't walk as far as the crossroads.

   Example (4a) implicate (4b) but (4c) does not implicate (4b). It other words, the implicature (b.) is tied to the lexical item *manage*.

   Moreover, Huang (2007: 34) explains that in conversational implicatures, any linguistics expression with the same semantic content tends to carry the same conversational implicature. This is because conversational implicatures are attached to the semantic content, rather than the linguistic form. Therefore, they cannot be detached from an utterance simply by replacing the relevant linguistics expressions with their synonyms. Huang gives the example as below:

   (7) *The film almost/nearly won/came closer to winning an Oscar.*
       (The film did not quite win an Oscar).

4. Calculability
   Cruse (2000: 351) states that a conversational implicatures must be calculable, using statable general principle, on the

basis of conventional meaning together with contextual information. According to Huang (2007: 34), calculability means that conversational implicatures can transparently be derived via the cooperative principle and its components maxims.

4. Generalized Conversational Implicatures

Huang (2007: 32) argues that generalized conversational implicature has a very general currency. Moreover, the utterance will have default interpretation. In addition, Yule (1996: 40) explains that in **the case of generalized implicatures, special knowledge of the context of utterance is not required in order to make the necessary inferences**. The example of generalized implicatures can be taken from this sentence suggested by Huang (2007: 31):

(8) *Most of John's friends believe in marriage.*

From the example (8), it simply can be interpreted that *not all* of John's friends believe in marriage.

(9) Doobie : Did you invite Bella and Kathy? (b & c?)
    Mary : I invited Bella (b+>NOT c).

When no special knowledge is required in the context to calculate the additional conveyed meaning as called **generalized conversational implicatures**.

One type of generalized conversational implicature is called **scalar implicature**. Scalar implicature, according to Yule (1996: 41), refers to certain information which is communicated by choosing a word which expressess one value from scale of values. This is particularly obvious in terms for expressing quantity such as:

(10) *all, most, many, some, few always, often, sometimes.*

Moreover, he argues that when producing an utterance, a speaker selects the word from the scale which is the most informative and truthful in the circumstances as in this utterance.

(11)   *I am studying Linguistics and I've completed* **some** *of the re-quired courses*

By choosing **some** in this utterance, the speaker creates a scalar implicature.

There are many scalar implicatures produce by the use of expression that may not immediately considered to be part of any scale, like *possible* or *should.*

For example:

(12)   A : It is possible that they were delayed.
       B : This should be stored in a cool place.

The utterance (12-a) will be interpreted as implicating ' + >*not certain*' as a higher value on the scale of '*likelihood*' and (12-b) ' + >*not must*' on scale of '*obligation*' and ' + >*not frozen*' on a scale of '*coldness*'.

One noticeable feature of scalar implicature is that when speakers correct themselves on some detail they typically cancel one of the scalar implicature. Such in this sentence:

(13)   *I got some of this jewelry in Hongkong – mm actually I think I got most of it there.*

5.   Particularized Conversational Implicatures

Yule (1996: 42) states that particularized conversational implicatures deals with the inferences which are required special knowledge of any particular context to work out the conveyed meaning.

For example:

(14)   Rick : Hey, coming to the party tonight?
       Tom : My parents are visiting.

In order to make Tom's response relevant, Rick has to draw on the assumed knowledge that he cannot go to the party, because he would rather see his parents.

(15) Bert : Do vegetarians eat hamburgers?
     Ernie : Do chicken have lips?

Example (15) provides the answer "*Of course not!*" In this case, the answer is already known; the question does not need to be asked.

6. Conventional Implicatures

Cruse (2000: 350) explains that conventional implicature is the name given by some to non-truth conventional aspect of meaning which are conventionally attached to particular linguistic forms. Meanwhile, according to Huang (2007: 54), a conventional implicature is a non-truth-conditional inference, which is not deductive in any general, natural way from the saying of what is said, but arises solely because the conventional features attached to particular lexical item and/or linguistic constructions. Yule (1996: 45) adds that conventional implicatures are not based on the cooperative principle or the maxims. They do not have to occur in a conversation, and they don't depend on special context for their interpretation. Conventional implicatures are associated with specific word and result in additional conveyed meaning when those words are used, like conjunction *but, and, yet,* and *even*.

For example:

(16) a. Mary suggested black, **but** I choose white.
     b. p & q (+> p is in contrast to q).

The conjuction *but* gives meaning 'contrast' between the information in *p* and the information in *q*. In the example (16), the fact that "*Mary suggested black*' (= p) is contrasted, via the conventional implicature of '*but*' with my choosing white (= q).

There are other representative lexical items that are considered to engender conventional implicatures in English include *actually, also, anyway, barely, besides, however, manage to, on the other hand, only, still, though, too,* and *yet*.

(17) *He is a Chinese; he therefore knows how to use chopstick.*

In the example (17), the conventional implicature can be triggered by the use of *therefore* is that being Chinese provides some good reason for knowing how to use chopstick.

CONCLUSION

Implicatures is needed in interpreting what is someone saying. There are two common implicatures known, they are conversational implicatures and conventional implicatures. Conversational implicatures deals with set of non-logical inferences, which contains conveyed messages. There are some properties of conversational implicature such as context dependence, defeasibility or cancellability, non-detachablility and calculability. Meanwhile conventional implicatures refers to non-truth conventional aspect of meaning which are conventionally attached to particular linguistic forms.

STUDENTS' TASK/EXERCISE

1. Complete the following table with the definition of implicature from experts.

No	Experts	Concepts/Definitions of Maxims
1	Yule (1996)	
2	Huang (2007)	
3	Grundy (1995)	
(Using your own words) implicature refers to …		

2. Complete the following table with definition, indicators, and examples of each type of implicatures.

No	Types of implicatures	Definition	Indicators	Examples
1	Conversational implicatures.			
2	Generalized conversational implicature.			
3	Scalar implicature.			
4	Particularized conversational implicature.			
5	Conventional implicature.			

3. Study the classroom interaction in Appendix, then find the application of implicatures used by the participants in the interaction.

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UNIT
7   Speech Acts

Students have to be able precisely to:
- Write the concept/definition of speech acts from three experts;
- Elaborate conditions of successful performance of speech acts;
- Elaborate types of speech acts and its indicators and examples;
- Differentiate between direct and indirect speech acts to find out the application of types of speech acts used by the participants in corpus of classroom interaction.

LEARNING MATERIALS

INTRODUCTION

Traditionally linguistic theory is grouped into three subdivisions: syntax, semantics and pragmatics, sometimes just referred to as semiotic. Syntax is concerned with the structures of the visible forms of language. Syntactic rules determines the way in which linguistic elements (as letters, words, etc.) are put together to form constituents (as phrases or clauses). Semantics deals with the

meaning of languages, both of the individual language elements, e.g. words, and the meaning of composite language structures, e.g. sentences. Semantics is usually given by mapping the syntactic constructs into some semantic domain, e.g. the meaning of propositional logics given by values of true and false.

Pragmatics is about the issues of language use. Pragmatics is perhaps the most difficult aspect of linguistics to dene precisely. Pragmatic aspects are also often difficult to give a formal, i.e. mathematical/logical based, definition and pragmatics is sometimes called the "waste-basket" of linguistics, i.e. all language phenomenons that cannot be classified as syntax or semantics are pragmatics. The reason why pragmatics is hard to understand and formalize is that it deals with language and its users in a social context.

On our view the meaning of the speech act is best understood if we understand how the speech act is meant to influence the cognitive states of the conversant in the context of a social activity. The force of a speech act lies in its unique distribution of effect on the cognitive sub states of the social agents.

This unit describes several points about speech acts. (a) the definition of speech acts; (b) locutionary, perlocutionary and illocutionary; (c) condition for successful performance of speech acts; (d) speech acts classification; (e) and direct and indirect speech act.

1. What is Speech Acts?

Speech act is the usage of language to accomplish something. Actions performed via utterances are called speech acts (*e.g., apology, complaint, compliment, invitation, promise, and request*). The speaker normally expects that his or her communicative intention will be recognized by the hearer—both speaker and hearer are helped by the circumstances surrounding the utterance. These circumstances (including other utterances) are called the speech event. Example:

The tea is really cold!

2. Locutionary, Perlocutionary, and Illocutionary Acts

Austin in Huang (2007:102) classifies that there are three facts of speech act, namely: locutionary, perlocutionary and illocutionary acts.

a. Locutionary Acts

Locutionary acts is the basic act of speaking, which itself consist of three related subacts. They are (i) **a phonic** act of producing an utterance inscription; (ii) **a phatic** act of composing a particular linguistic expression in a particular language; and (iii) **a rhetoric** act of contextualizing the utterance inscription. They are concerned with the physical act of making a certain sequence of vocal sound (in the case of spoken language) or a set of written symbol (in the case of written language), the act of constructing a well-formed string of sounds/symbols, be it word, phrase or sentence, in a particular language and the sub-act is responsible for tasks such as assigning reference, resolving deixis and disambiguating the utterance-inscription lexically and/or grammatically.

b. Perlocutionary Acts

A perlocutionary acts concerns the effect an utterance may have on the addressee. Then, it's the acts by which the illocutionary produces a certain effect in or exerts a certain influence on the addressee. So, the effect of the act performed by a speaking is also generally known as the perlocutionary effects. Moreover, Cruse (2000: 332) argues that pperlocutionary acts are acts performed by means of language, using language as a tool. The elements which define the act are external to the locutionary act.

c. Illocutionary Acts

When we say something, we usually say it with some purpose in mind. This is the illocutionary acts. In other word illocutionary acts refers to the type of function the speaker intends to fulfill or the type of action the speaker intends to accomplish in the course of producing an utterance. Example of illocutionary acts *includ-*

ing accusing, apologizing, blaming, congratulating, giving permission, joking, nagging, naming, promising, ordering, refusing, swearing, and thanking. Then, Cruse (2000: 332) adds that illocutionary acts are acts which are internal to the locutionary act, in the sense that.

So, the explanation about three facts of speech act, it can be drawn by using table.

TABLE 6.1 THREE FACTS OF SPEECH ACT

Locutionary Acts	Illocutionary Acts	Perlocutionary Acts
The production of a meaningful linguistic expression	The action intended to be performed by a speaker in uttering a linguistic expression, by virtue of the conventional force associated with it, either explicitly or implicitly.	The bringing about sequences of effects on the audience through the uttering of a linguistic expression, such consequences or effects being special to the circumstances of the utterance.

3. Condition for Successful Performance of Speech Acts

Cruse (2000: 343) states that there are normally contextual conditions which must be fulfilled before a speech act can be said to have been properly performed. These are usually called happiness condition or felicity conditions. Some of these are of course condition on any short of linguistic communication, such as the fact that speaker and hearer understand one another (usually speak the same language), can hear one another and so on. There are several conditions should be considered.

a. Preparatory conditions

Preparatory conditions do not define the speech act, but are necessary in the sense that if they do not hold, the act has not been carried out (it is said have misfired). In the case of declarative speech acts, the person performing the act must have authority to do it, and must do it in appropriate circumstances and with appropriate actions. For instance, it is not enough to someone to break a

bottle of champagne on the bows of a ship and say *I name this ship Venus,* for the ship either to acquire an official name, or to change its name. A proper ceremony must be enacted, with officially re-cognized participants. The same is true or christening a baby. Even in the case of resigning from a job or position, just saying the words *I resign,* at breakfast, say, does not constitute a resignation: there are proper ways f resigning and channels for communicating such a decision. In the case of a promise, the hearer must prefer the promised action's accomplishment to its non-accomplishment, and the speaker must have reason to believe that eventuality promised will not happen in the formal course of events. For a command, the speaker must be in authority over the hearer, must believe that the desired action has not already been carried out, and that it is possible for the hearer to carry it out.

b. Sincerity Condition

The sincerity condition must be fulfilled the person perform-ing the act must have appropriate beliefs or feelings. For instance, in performing an act or asserting, the speaker must believe the proposition they are expressing; when thanking someone, one ought to feelings of gratitude; when making a promise, and one should sincerely intend to carry it out, and so on. If the sincerity conditions are not met, the act is actually performed, but there is said to be an abuse (Cruse, 2000: 344).

c. Essential Condition

Essential conditions basically define the acts being carried out. Thus for a promise, the speaker must intend his utterance to put him under an obligation to carried out the act which corresponds to its propositional content. For a request, the speaker must intend that the utterance count as an attempt to get the hearer to do what is requested; for a statement, the hearer must intend that the utterance count as a guarantee of the truth of the statement; for a question, the hearer must intend that the utterance count as at-tempt to elicit the appropriate answer from the hearer, and so on.

If the essential conditions are not met, the act has not really been carried out.

d. Content Condition

Cruse (2000: 344-345) said that prototypically, the hearer should recognize the speaker's intention to perform the illocutionary act in question in uttering the words in question. This is called uptake. Uptake must be distinguishing form acceptance: the fact that one refuse to accept, say, an apology or a resignation does not mean that the speaker's intention has not been recognized. Generally, uptake does not seem to be a necessary condition for speech acts, but there are doubtful cases. Take the case of boasting.

There are indications that it is still a boast. *First*, it is anomalous to say: *john tried to boast, but everyone thought he was just stating the facts*. *Second*, one can hear a statement and subsequently find out that someone was boasting. *He told me he had just lost £10,000- I didn't realize at the time that he was boasting.*

Then, content condition is depending on the type illocutionary point, IP, used in an utterance; there may be different conditions on the illocutionary content. For example, one cannot make a promise (commissive regarding the past (unless, of cause, the speaking agent has a time machine available): *I promise to start working at 9 AM in last week.*

4. Speech Acts Classification

a. Assertive/Representative

Cruse (2000:342) states that assertive commit the speaker to the truth of the expressed proposition: *state, suggest, boast, complain, claim, report, and warn (*that). Both *boast* and *complain* also express an attitude to the proposition expressed other than a belief in its truth. While the purpose of assertive is to inform what the speaker belief such Kreidler (2001: 183-185) argues that the speaker or writer use assertive language to tell what they know or believe, (Yule, 1996: 53). This language concerned with know-

ledge, cognition, data, what exists or existed and what is happening or has happened or not. So, assertive utterances are either true or false, generally they can be verified or falsified or they are subject to empirical investigation.

Reported assertive divides into three:

1) Indirect assertive:
   a. I voted for Aaronson in the last election.
   b. Most plastic are made from soy beans.
   c. Cape Ann Lighthouse is a mile from the beach.
2) Direct assertive:
   a. I voted for Aaronson in the last election.
   b. Most plastic are made from soy beans.
   c. Cape Ann Lighthouse is a mile from the beach.
3) Assertive verbs

   Assertive verbs followed by a full clause. They include allege, announce, report, remind, predict, protest. They are independent of time or aspect, neutral with respect to who is involved in what reported, and comment on a state of affairs. Example: Jarvis announced that he is voting for Aaronson in the last election.

   Assertive (the illocutionary point) has a direction of fit of word-to-world the psychological state B for the sincerity condition to hold must be that the speaker believes B the propositional content expressed p. Example: The speaker states: *The door is open* and believes that the door is open.

b. Directives

Yule (1996: 54) describes that directives are kind of speech act that speaker use to get someone else to do something. They express what the speaker wants. They are *commands*, *orders*, *requests*, *advice*, and *suggestions*. It can be positive or negative. In using a directive, the speaker intends to elicit some future course of action on the part of the addressee, thus making the world match the words via the addressee (Huang, 2007: 107).

Kreidler (2001: 189) states that a directive utterance is pros-

pective; one cannot tell other people to do something in the past. A directive utterance presupposes certain condition in the addressee and in the context and situation. When the utterance can be carried out, the utterance is felicitous, and if not, it is infelicitous. Three kinds of directive utterances can be recognized: commands, request, and suggestions.

The directive has a direction of fit of world-to-word; the psychological state must be that the speaker wants that the hearer H do the action. For example, the speaker gives the command *Open the door*! And wants the door to be opened.

1) Command

It is effective only if the speaker has some degree of control over the action of the addressee. It can be produced with various degrees of explicitness. They have the form *you must* … or they are imperative sentences.

Examples:
1) I (hereby) order you to appear in court next Monday at 10 a.m.
2) I'm telling you not to waste your time on that.

2) Request

It is an expression of what the speaker wants the addressee to do or refrain from doing.

Examples:
1) I appeal to you to help as much as you can.
2) We beg you to stay out of the way.

3) Suggestions

They are the utterances that we make other persons to give our opinions as what they should or should not do. Examples:
1) I advise you to be prompt; I warn you not to be late.
2) We suggest you (should) pay more attention to what you're doing.

c. Verdictive

Kreidler (2001: 187-188) state that verdictives are speech acts in which the speaker makes an assessment or judgement about the acts of another, usually the addressee. These include ranking, assessing, appraising, condoning. Verdictive verbs includes *accuse, charge, excuse, thank* in the utterance frame *I …… you of/for ….-ing.* Since these utterances present the speaker's assessment of the addressee's previous action(s) or of what has befallen the addressee, they are retrospective.

The action is viewed positively:

Commend …. for
Compliment …. on
Congratulate …. for
Honor … for praise … for

The action is viewed negatively:

Accuse …. of
Blame … for
Admonish …. for

A verdictive utterance has this structure:
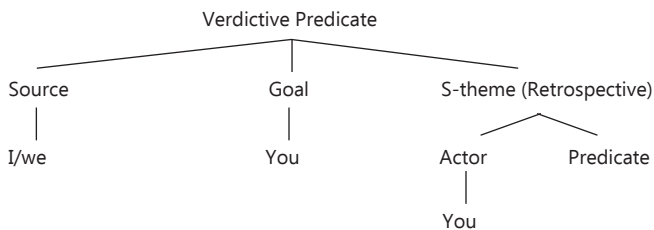
Examples:
a. I accuse you of putting on airs.
b. I congratulate you for performing so well.
c. The major blamed the media for not accurately reporting his accomplishments.

d. Commissive

Cruse (2000: 342) states that commissives commit the speaker to some future action: promise, vow, offer, undertake, contract, and threaten. Kreidler (2001: 192) defines that commissive utterance as speech act that commit a speaker to a course of action. Where commissive verbs are illustrated by agree, ask, offer, refuse, and swear, all with following infinitives. Further, the verb must be in the present tense and there are some addressee, whether the utterance show it or not, since the speaker must be making a commitment to somebody. A commissive predicate is one that can be used to commit oneself to some future action. Commissive predicates can be classified this way:

a) Response to directive
    Positive response: agree consent
    [Agree is more common]
    Negative response refuse decline
    [Refuse is stronger, decline more formal, more polite]
b) Self-motivated (not response to directive)
    Benefactive: offer volunteer
    [Volunteer suggest a more formal commitment]
    Malefactive: threaten
c) Focus on speech act
    Pledge promise swear
    [Promise is unmarked; a pledge is a solemn promise made in public; to swear is to take a semi-religious oath]

The structure of a sentence with a commisive predicate is this:
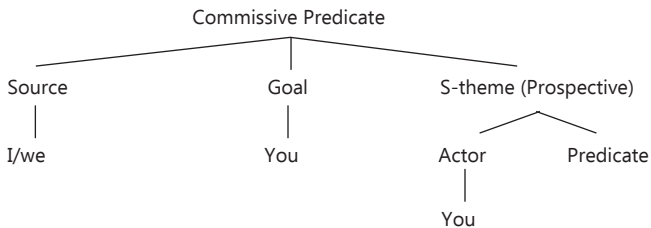
In a commissive utterance the subject is *I* or *we.* Felicity conditions: the capable of the act and intends to perform it; the addressee has faith in the speaker's ability and intention.

e. Expressive

Kreidler (2001: 188) argues that expressive utterances are retrospective and speaker-involved. The most common expressive verbs are acknowledge, admit, confess; deny; apologize.
Examples:
a. I acknowledge that I did not do what I should have done.
b. We admit that we were mistaken.
c. I apologize for having disturbed you.

f. Declarative/Perfomative

Kreidler (2001: 185-186) defines perfomative is kinds of speech act that bring about the state of affair: bids, blessing, firings, baptisms, arrests, marrying, declaring a mistrial. While Yule (1996: 53) argues that declarations are kinds of speech act that change the word via the utterance. And Searle in Mey (1993: 131) states that the point of this case is to bring something about in the world; which have both a word-to-world and world-to-word direction of fit; in which no psychological state is expressed; in which any proposition can occur, e.g. an excommunication. Performatives take place in formal setting and are concerned with official acts. Its purpose is to make a part of the world conform to what is said. Performative utterances are valid if spoken by someone whose right to make them is accepted and in circumstances which are accepted as appropriate.

There are strong limitations on what can be a performative utterance:
a. The subject of the sentence must be *I* or *we* e.g. I declare this meeting is adjourned.
b. The verb must be in present tense.

Moreover, declaratives are used in assertions. They serve to convey information. They are characterized by having truth conditions.

a. The dog ate the bone.
b. John slept until 11 and missed his first two classes.
c. If I don't get this paper in by 5:00 I'll lose a letter grade.

Examples of Declarative Such as Follows:

1. Priest: I now pronounce you husband and wife.
2. Referee: You're out.
3. Jury Foreman: We find the defendant guilty.
4. I sentence you to 90 days in prison.

Huang (2007: 98) classifies performatives into two types: explicit and implicit. Explicit performatives are performative utterances which contain a performative verb that makes explicit what kind of act is being performed. By contrast, implicit performatives are performative utterances in which there is no such a verb. In order to account for implicit performatives, an analysis is known as the performative hypothesis. The basic idea of the hypothesis is that underlying every sentence there is a 'hidden' matrix performative clause.

Example: I (hereby) Vp you (that) S.

Where Vp is a performance verb, and S is a complement clause.

Phatic Utterance

Yule (1996: 194) states that the purpose of phatic utterance is to establish rapport between members of the same society. Phatic language has a less obvious function than other classifications of speech act. Phatic utterances include greetings, farewell, polite formulas such as "thank you", "you are welcome", "excuse me" when these are not really verdictive or expressive. They also include all sorts of comments on the weather, asking about one's health, and whatever is usual, and therefore expected, in a particular society. Stereotyped phrases are common for conveying good wishes to

someone starting to eat meal, beginning voyage, undertaking a new venture, or celebrating a personal or social holiday.

Felicity conditions are met when speaker and addressee share the same social customs and recognize phatic utterance for what they are. The examples of phatic utterance are *"I'm glad to see you", "So nice to see you again".*

g. Direct and Indirect Speech Acts

In general, there are two kinds of speech acts—direct and indirect speech acts.

1) Direct Speech

How can we recognize direct speech acts when we see them? Sometimes the form of the sentence gives us a clue and while sometimes performative verbs will be present to help us identify the speech acts being performed, we must be careful not to be duped by them.

a. I advised you well, didn't I?
b. He warns me not to drive drunk.

Direct Speech Act is whenever there is a direct relationship between a structure and a function:

a. You wear a seat belt (declarative).
b. Do you wear a seat belt? (interrogative).
c. Wear a seat belt! (imperative).

2. Indirect Speech

Indirect speech acts are characterized by the use of language to perform a speech act without actually using a form appropriate for that speech act. Then, indirect speech is if the relationship between structure and function. While that might sound fairly mysterious, indirect speech acts are actually extremely common we all use those dozens of times a day.

a. *Could you close the door?* Please close the door.
b. There are wolves on the prowl tonight?

I'm warning you to watch out for wolves.
c. *I think it would be good if you sold that heap you call a car.*
[I advise you to sell your car.]

Example: A declarative used to make a statement is a direct speech act, a declarative used to make a request is an indirect speech act.
a. *Its cold outside.*
b. *I hereby tell you about the weather* (direct speech act).
c. *I hereby request that you close the door* (indirect speech act.

It can be concluded that indirect speech acts are generally associated with greater politeness than direct speech acts.

CONCLUSION

Speech acts refers to actions performed via utterances. There are three components of speech acts namely: locutionary acts, perlocutionary acts, and illocutionary acts. Successful performance of speech acts should fulfill four conditions, namely preparatory, sincerity condition, essential and content condition. There are six types of speech acts, namely assertive, declarative, directive, verdictive, commisive, and expressive.

STUDENTS' TASK/EXERCISE

1. Complete the following table with the definition of speech acts from experts

No	Experts	Concepts/Definitions of Maxims
1	Yule (1996)	

2	Huang (2007)	
3	Kreidler (2001)	

(Using your own words) speech acts refers to …

…… …………………………

………………………………………………………………………………………………… …………………………………………

………………………………………………………………………………

2. Complete the following table with definition, indicators and examples of each type of implicatures

No	Types of Speech Acts	Definition	Indicators	Examples
1	direct speech acts			
2	indirect speech			
3	assertive speech acts			
4	directive speech acts			
5	verdictives speech acts			
6	commissive speech acts			
7	expressive speech acts			
8	performative speech acts			

3. Study the classroom interaction in Appendix, then find the application of types of speech acts used in the interaction.

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UNIT
8   Politeness Maxims

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

Students have to be able precisely to:
- Write the concept/definition of politeness from three experts;
- Elaborate types of politeness maxims and its indicators and examples;
- Find out the application of types of politeness maxims used by the participants in corpus of classroom interaction.

LEARNING MATERIALS

INTRODUCTION

There is no doubt that the cooperative principle can go way some towards explaining the generation of implicatures. But one class of implicatures which receives no account under this heading concerns implicatres of politeness. Leech has proposed an independent pragmatic principle, to function alongside the cooperative principle, which calls the politeness principle.

In this unit, we will describe about politeness principle and Maxim. Here, there are several points that will be elaborated, such as: (1) Politeness and Interaction (negative and positive face and positive and negative politeness); (2) The Politeness Maxims which includes: (a) the tact maxim; (b) the generosity maxim; (c) the praise maxim; (d) the modesty maxim; (e) the agreement maxim; (f) the sympathy maxim; (g) and the consideration maxim.

1. Politeness and Interaction

Politeness has proposed an independent pragmatic principle, to function alongside the co-operative principle (Cruse, 2000: 361). In other words, politeness is a matter of what is said, and not a matter of what is thought or believed.

Much of what we say and communicate is determined by our social relationships. A linguistic interaction is necessarily a social interaction. External factors relating to social distance/closeness are established prior to an interaction: relative status of the participants as determined by factors like age and power. Speakers who see themselves as lower status tend to mark social distance between themselves and status speakers by using address forms that include a title and a last name, but not the first name (Mrs. Jones, Mr. Adams, and Dr. Miller).

Then, internal factors (amount of imposition, degree of friendliness) are negotiated during an interaction can result in the initial social distance changing and being marked as less or more during the course of the interaction (e.g., moving to first name basis). These factors are more relevant to participants whose social relationships are actually in the process of being worked out within the interaction.

Both types of factors (external/internal) have an influence on what we say and how we are interpreted: interpretation includes also evaluations such as "rude", "considerate" or "thoughtful" which represent an additional aspect of communication perceived in terms of **politeness.**

Furthermore, Cruse (2000: 361) describes the politeness through this principle:

1. Minimize the expression of impolite beliefs.
    A politeness does not essentially concern belief. It does have the merit of throwing the weight on to expression.
2. Choose expressions which minimally belittle the hearer's status. The sorts of thing which may be thought to be little the hearer's status are:
    a. Treating the hearer as subservient to one's will, by desiring the hearer to do something which will cost effort, or restrict freedom;
    b. Saying bad things about the hearer or people or things related to the hearer;
    c. Expressing pleasure at the hearer's misfortunes;
    d. Praising oneself or dwelling on one's good fortune, or superiority;
    e. Disagreeing with the hearer, thus denigrating the hearer's thoughts.
    The purpose of politeness is the maintenance of harmonious and smooth social relations in the face of the necessity to convey belittling messages.

2. Negative and Positive Face

A person's negative face is the need to be independent, to have a freedom of action, and not to be imposed on by others. The word negative here doesn't mean bad just the opposite. It includes an apology, imposition and interruption. On the other hand, a person's positive face is the needed to accepted, even like others, to be treated as a member of the same group, his or her wants are shared by others. It includes showing solidarity. In simple terms negative face is the need to be independent and positive face is the need to be connected (Yule, 1996: 62).

Comparative table about negative and positive face

Negative Face	Positive Face
Need to be independent, to have freedom of action, not be imposed on by others.	Need to be accepted/liked, to be treated as a member of the same group, to know that wants are shared by others.

3. Positive and Negative Politeness

Yule (1996: 64) describes that a positives politeness strategy leads the requester to appeal to a common goal, even friendship, via expression such as:

(1) a. How about letting me use your pen?
  b. Hey, buddy, I'd appreciate it if you'd let me use your pen.

However, in most English-speaking contexts, a face saving act is more commonly performed via a negative politeness strategy. The most typical form used is a question containing a modal verb such as:

(2) a. Could you lend me a pen?
  b. I'm sorry to brother you, but can I ask you for a pen or something.

Face	Politeness
The public self-image of a person (emotional and social sense of self one has and expects everyone else to recognize).	The means employed to show awareness of another person's face, showing awareness for a socially distant person's face respect, deference showing awareness for a socially close person's face friendliness, solidarity.

4. The Politeness Maxims

Cruse (2000: 363) divides several kinds of politeness maxims. They are:

a. The Tact Maxim

The tact maxim is oriented towards the hearer and has posi-

tive and negative sub-maxims:

> - Minimize cost to the hearer.
> - Maximize benefit to the hearer.

The operation of this maxim can be clearly seen in the context of impositives. The term of impositives includes command, request, etc.

(3) a. *Lend me your pen.*
   b. *Say Ah!*
   c. *Wash the dishes.*
   d. *Have another sandwich.*
   e. *Past the salt.*
   f. *Have a nice weekend.*

It is obvious that the linguistic form of the impositive is not going to affect the real cost or benefit to hearer. What the maxims means is that in order to get a hearer to do something which involve a cost, a polite speaker will cast his utterance in a form which softens the effect of impositive. To get the hearer to do something to his or her benefits, a polite speaker will strengthen the impositive. What is meant by softening, or weakening an impositive is essentially making it easier for the hearer to refuse.

Example:

(4) a. Could you wash the dishes?
   b. Wash the dishes!
   c. I was wondering if you could possibly wash the dishes.

Utterance (a) is more polite than (b) and (c) is even more polite.

b. The Generosity Maxim

The generosity maxim is a sister to the tact maxim, and is oriented toward costs and benefits to the speaker:

- ▪ Minimize benefits to self.
- ▪ Maximize cost to self.

This maxim works in a way parallel to that of the tact maxim. Except that the effects are reversed. So, for instance offers to do something which involves benefits to her or his hearer, but cost to the speaker must be made as directly as possible, for politeness (a) is more polite than (b).

(5)   a.   Let me wash the dishes.
      b.   I was wondering if I could possibly wash the dishes.

On the other hand, politeness demands that request for benefits to the speaker be weakened:

(6)   a.   I want to borrow your car.
      b.   Could I possibly borrow your car?

c.   The Praise Maxim

The maxims of praise from another natural duo concerned with the expression of positive or negative opinions about speaker or hearer. The maxim of praise is oriented towards the hearer and goes as follows:

- ▪ Minimize dispraise of the hearer.
- ▪ Maximize praise of the hearer.

As usual, negative politeness is the moral crucial. The effect is to tone down any critic of unfavorable comment:

(7)   A   :   *Do you like my new dress?*
      B   :   **No.*
              Well, yes, but it's not my favorite

(8)   A   :   *Oh, I've been so thoughtless.*

> B : *Yes, haven't you?*
> *Not at all-think anything of it.*

The effect of the second sub-maxim is to exaggerate praise:

Thank you so much for inviting us. We had absolutely wonderful time.

d. The Modesty Maxim

The modesty maxim is the natural partner of the previous one, being oriented towards the speaker, with the relevant 'values' reversed:

- Minimize praise of self.
- Maximize dispraise of self.

Praising oneself is inherently impolite, so negative politeness here is matter of toning down self-congratulation:

(9) A : *You did it brilliantly!*
     B : **Yes, did not I?*
            Well, I thought I did not do too badly.

Positive politeness under this heading, that is, exaggerating protestations of worthlessness, tends in the direction of groveling:*Your majesty, I am a mere worm, a distinguish toad, a dog's turd, and I deserve no forgiveness! I throw myself at Your Majesty's feet!*

e. The Agreement Maxim

Agreement is a relation between the opinions of the speaker and those of the hearer. One cannot contrast an orientation towards self with an orientation towards hearer, as with praise, and benefit/cost: it does not matter whether agreement forms a bipolar scale or not.

- Minimize disagreement with the hearer.
- Maximize agreement with the hearer.

The sub-maxims are not clearly distinct. A typical strategy is to begin with partial agreement before expressing disagreement:

(10) A : *She should be sacked immediately.*
We cannot tolerate unpunctuality.

B : *I disagree.*
I agree with the general principle,
but in this case there are mitigating circumstances.

f. The Sympathy Maxim

Sympathy is again a matter of a relation between speaker and hearer, and cannot, therefore, be differentially speaker-or hearer-oriented. Maximize sympathy (expression of positive feelings) towards the hearer. Minimize sympathy (expression of negative feelings) towards the hearer.

This maxim renders congratulation and commiserations or condolences inherently polite acts. It seems when someone can speak of implicatures of politeness only if a discrepancy can be intuited between what the speaker says and what he or she feels. It minimize antipathy/maximize sympathy between self and other.

(11) *I was very sorry to hear about your father's death.*

g. The Consideration Maxim

Leech present the consideration maxim as a separate principle (the Pollyanna Principle), it is very justification as it works just like the other maxim:

- Minimize the hearer's discomfort/displeasure.
- Maximize the hearer's comfort/pleasure.

Negative politeness under this maxim involves the softening, by various devices of references to painful, distressing, embarrassing or shocking events, facts, or things, etc. For instance, if someone's husband has recently died, it is more polite to *say I was sorry to hear about your husband* than *I was sorry to hear about your husband's death,* as the latter highlights the distressing event to a greater degree. Another typical manifestation of this sub-maxim is euphemism, where indirectness of various kinds is employed to avoid mention of words likely to cause offence.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, politeness principle is utterances that related to speaker's or listener's behavior, etiquette, and culture. Politeness is very useful in conversation to smoothen utterances in different contexts. Politeness includes several principles such as tactful, generous, modest and sympathetic toward others. Politeness can be defined as the means employed to show awareness of another person's face. First is negative and positive face. it is expectations that concern public self-image, or their face wants will be respected. And the second one is positive and negative politeness. Positive-politeness leads the requester to appeal to a common goal, and even friendship. Meanwhile, the negative politeness is typically expressed by questions.

STUDENTS' TASK/EXERCISE

1. Complete the following table with the definition of speech acts from experts.

No	Experts	Concepts/Definitions of Politeness
1	Cruse (2000)	
2	Yule (1996)	
(Using your own words) politenessmaxims refers to		

2. Complete the following table with definition, indicators and examples of each type of politeness maxims.

No	Types of politeness maxims	Definition	Indicators	Examples
1	Positive face			
2	Negative face			
3	Negative politeness			
4	Positive politeness			
5	Tact maxim			
6	Generosity maxims			
7	Praise maxims			
8	Modesty maxims			
9	Agreement maxims			
10	Sympathy maxims			
11	Consideration maxims			

3. Analyze the classroom interaction in Appendix, then find the application of politeness maxims used in the interaction.

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UNIT
9
Politeness Strategy

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

Students have to be able precisely to:
- Write the concept/definition of politeness strategy from at least two experts;
- Elaborate types of politeness strategy and its indicators and examples to find out the application of types of politeness strategies used by the participants in corpus of classroom interaction.

LEARNING MATERIALS

INTRODUCTION

In personal communication people have to consider politeness principle, that is a set or system in conversation when utter the speech. The principle is to maintain or consider the feeling of the hearer. In this case the politeness are needed to reduce the risk of conflict or Face Threat (Brown & Levinson, 1987). Polite utterances are often used in asking (requesting), offering, complaining, apologizing because those request tend to threat to other's face.

Politeness in pragmatics is proposed by some experts, namely: Leech (1983), Lakoff (1967) and Brown and Levinson (1987). According to Brown and Levinson (1987), politeness can be defined as a desire to protect self image. A speaker must show awareness of the hearer's face and self image through various strategies. To be successful in interaction, one has to follow some important strategies to be polite. People usually expect their face is respected in social interaction. If a speaker says something that threatens another individual's face, it is described as a face threatening act (FTA). In this unit we will discuss about "*Politeness Strategy: Brown and Levinson Theory*".

1. Concept of Face and Politeness

Following Goffman, Brown and Levinson (1987: 61) maintain that face is "the public self-image that every member (of society) wants to claim for himself". For Brown and Levinson, face consists of two related aspects: positive face and negative face. For both of these aspects of face, our essential needs are the same—we want people to like us—and this impacts on our linguistic behaviour. From the point of view of positive face, we want to receive acknowledgement from others that we are liked, accepted as part of a group and that our wants are understood by them. In the case of negative face, we want to be independent and not have our actions imposed on by others. According to Brown and Levinson, these two basic face needs are satisfied by politeness strategies. In their everyday interaction, people behave as if these face needs will be respected by others, however, despite this assumption, people sometimes engage in actions that threaten these two face needs, what Brown and Levinson refer to as face threatening acts. (O'Keeffe, 2011).

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 (Yule, 1996).

Brown and Levinson analysed politeness, and said that in or-

der to enter into social relationship, we have to acknowledge and show an awareness of the face, the public self-image, the sense of self, of the people that we address. They said that it is a universal characteristic across cultures that speakers should respect each others' expectations regarding self-image, take account of their feelings, and avoid face threatening acts (FTAs). When FTAs are unavoidable, speakers can redress the treath with negative politeness (*which does not mean being impolite!*) that respects the hearer's negative face, the need to be independent, have freedom of action, and not be imposed on by others. Or they can redress the FTAs with positive politeness, that attends the positive face, the need to be accepted and liked by others, treated as a member of the group, and to know one's wants are shared by others (Cutting, 2002).

Brown and Levinson view politeness as a complex system for softening FTAs. If an FTA has to be performed, then the speaker has five communicative choices, bald on record, positive politeness, negative politeness, off record and don't perform the FTA (these choices form the so-called 'superstrategies'), in order to accomplish this, as illustrated in Figure bellow.
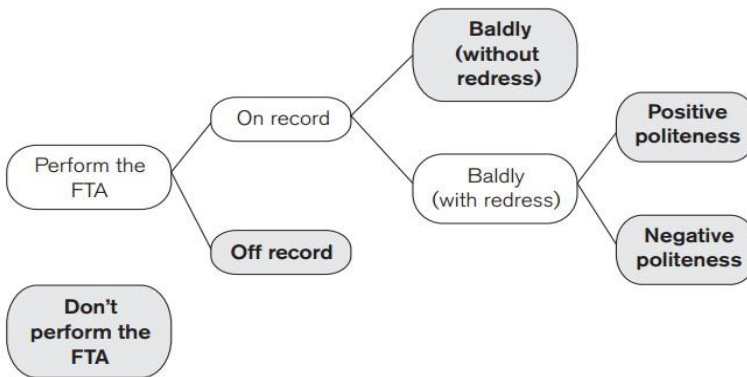
Examples of Face-Threatening Acts from Brown and Levinson (1987) on (Redmond, 2015) is like in the table:

Aspect	Actions by others that threaten our face	Actions we take that threaten our own face
Threatens Positive Face	• Complaintsand insults; • Criticisms or Disapproval; • Disagreeing; • Asking for clarification. • Evaluations.	• Apologiesand confessions; • Accepting a compliment; • Misunderstanding/ requesting clarification; • Unintended emotional; action (laugh); • Unintended physical action (burp).
Threatens Negative Face	• Orders and requests; • Advice and suggestions; • Threats and warnings; • Reminders; • Calling in a debt.	• Accepting an offer; • Accepting thanks; • Making a promise or offer; • Behavior that threatens a relationship; • Do an unrequested favor.

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 (Yule, 1996).

2. Positive Face vs. Negative Face

When we attempt to save another's face, we can pay attention to their negative face wants or their positive face wants.

Positive Face

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, positive face is the need to be connected (Yule, 1996). Positive face is the positive and consistent image people have of themselves, and their desire for approval. In other words, positive face is a need to any connection (Redmond, 2015).

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Negative Face

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 doesn't mean "bad", it's just the opposite pole from "positive". In simple terms, negative face is the need to be independent (Yule, 1996).

According to Brown and Levinson, negative face is the basic claim to territories, personal preserves, and rights to non-distraction. In other words, negative face is a need to be independent (Redmond, 2015).

3. Positive Politeness Strategy

The tendency to use **positive politeness** forms, emphasizing closeness between speaker and hearer , can be seen as a **Solidarity strategy**. This may be the principal operating strategy among a whole group or it may be an option used by an individual speaker on a particular occasion (Yule, 1996).

Positive politeness is intended to save something by applying closeness and solidarity, usually in friendship, and this makes others feel safe and stresses that the two parties have the same objective. For example, we are in the student center and we need some help, now we need some favors from our friend, Achmad. "*Achmad, you have good and admirable memory, it will be better if you gives me the addressof a site intended by Anton this morning*" (Redmond, 2015).

Brown and Levinson on (O'Keeffe, 2011) states there are fifteen strategies to avoid threatening in positive face:
1. Pay attention to a hearer's interests, wants, needs or goods.
   This strategy suggests that the speaker should pay attention or notice to aspect of hearer's condition. It can be in the form of sympathy, care or even compliment.

   For example: "We ate too many beans tonight, didn't we?"

   The example above shows that the speaker is paid attention to the hearer. It indicates that the speaker notices the hearer's condition.

2. Exaggerate interest in, approval of or sympathy with a hearer. This strategy can be done by saying something in a way that is higher than its actual status using exaggerating adjective.

   For example: "What a fantastic house you have!"

   The example above shows that the speaker exaggerated her or his compliment about the hearer's house. The word "fantastic" implied that the hearer have a great house.

3. Employ exaggeration and dramatic effect in your speech in order to interest and involve the hearer.
   This strategy is used for the speaker to the hearer that she or he wants intensify the interest of speaker's by making a good story.

   For example:
   "I come down the stairs, and what do you think I see?

   A huge mess all over the place, thephone's off the hook and clothes are scattered all over."

4. Use in-group identity markers.
   This strategy is done by using in-group identity markers are address form, language dialect, jargon, and slang to indicate that speaker and hearer belong to some of persons who share specific wants.

   For example: "Come here, guys!"

   The example above shows that the speaker used in-group identity markers by saying "guys" intended to the hearer.

5. Seek agreement/make small talk.
   This strategy is to seek for hearer"s agreement by raising „safe topic" that the hearer will agree with.

   For example: "Isn't your new car has a beautiful color?"

   The example above showed that the speaker says a comment to a neighbor's new car. The speaker raises the topic which is safer instead of stating the unsafe topic.

6. Avoid disagreement.
    This strategy showed that avoiding disagreement by stating false agreement, indirect agreement, white lies, and hedging.

    For example: A : That's where you live, California?
    B : That's where I wasborn.

    The speaker asked for information to the hearer whether she lived there or not. Instead of claiming what the speaker says as a mistake, the speaker states that she was born there. The hearer answered by avoiding disagreement.

7. Find common ground.
    This strategy explains that presupposing is the act of believing something is true before it isproven. For example:

    "I had a really hard time learning to drive, didn't I?

8. Joke.
    This strategy is a basic positive politeness technique used to minimize the face threatening acts (FTA). Therefore, it is the form of claiming common ground.

    For example: "How about lending me this heap of junk?"

9. Assert or imply knowledge of and concern for a hearer's wants.
    This strategy aims to presuppose what the hearer's desire according to the speaker"s knowledge toward what hearer's want.

    For example:
    "I know you love roses but the florist didn't have anymore, so I brought you geranium instead."

10. Offer, promise.
    This strategy means that when the speaker makes a promise to the hearer, the speaker has the intention to fulfill the hearer's want.

    For example: "I will treat you next week."

The speaker promises to the hearer that she or he would treat next week.

11. Be optimistic.

   In this strategy, the speaker becomes optimistic regarding the willingness of the hearer to fulfill or wants to do something for the speaker.

   For example: "You'll lend me your car, right?"

   The example above shows that the speaker was optimistic that hearer would lend her or him a car

12. Use inclusive "we" forms.

   This strategy aims to make the speaker and hearer involve both of them in the activity and eventually become cooperators. This strategy uses an inclusive "we" form, when the speaker reallymeans "you" or "me".

   For example: "Let"s have a coffee, then."

   The example above shows that actually the speaker wants the hearer to have a coffee. The speaker"s request used inclusive "we" form "let's". The request will be more polite because it indicates the cooperation between the speaker and the hearer.

13. Give (or ask for) reasons.

   This strategy shows that the speaker and hearer are cooperators through the act of asking and giving reason.

   For example: "Why don't we go to the market?"

14. Assume or assert reciprocity.

   This strategy can be done by creating mutual advantages among the speaker and the hearer.

   For example:
   "I'll lend you dictionary if you lend me your book."

   A reciprocity is a behavior in which two people give each other help or advantages. In the example above, the speaker wants to lend the hearer her or his dictionary if the hearer lends the speaker a book.

15. Give gifts.
    This strategy shows that the speaker can satisfy hearer's positive face by actually satisfying some of the hearer"s wants.

    For example:
    "I just know that your dog died yesterday. I'm sorry to hear that."

    The speaker gave a gift to the hearer by giving sympathy and understanding.

4. Negative Politeness Strategy

The tendency to use **negative politeness** forms, emphasizing hearer's right to freedom, can be seen as a **deference strategy**. It can be the typical of a whole group or just an option used on a particular ocassion. It is impersonal, as if nothing is shared, and can include expressions that refer too neither the speaker nor the hearer (for example, 'customers may not smoke here, sir') (Yule, 1996).

Negative politeness pays attention to negative face, by determining the distance between a speaker and hearer and will not bother other"s area. The speaker uses it to avoid an coercion, and gives some choices to the hearer. Speaker may avoid an image of coercing other's by giving any stresses to others, interest by using apology or by asking question that may arise "no" answer. For instance, in a student center, we want some help to mention an address of a site we need to Achmad: *"Excuse me, I don't mean to bother you, would you mind letting me know the address of thesite of the lecturer we talked about this morning?"* Another example: *"Excuse me, may I borrow five hundred rupiah, ehmm, if you don't need it now?"* There is a choice that may influence the levels of politeness. The higher the possibility of "no" answer, the better the politeness of the utterance (Redmond, 2015).

Brown and Levinson on (O'Keeffe, 2011) states there are ten strategies to avoid threatening in negative face:

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1. Be conventionally indirect.
    This strategy includes indirect speech acts that contain of indirect request. When a speaker produces an utterance in accordance with the negative politeness, it means that speaker wants to achieve what they want through the FTA but also wants to redress it.

    For example, "Can you please pass the salt?"

2. Do not presume/assume hearer
    This strategy is done by not presuming and assuming that the FTA is desired or accepted by the hearer. This strategy namely question and hedge. Hedge may be functioned to soften command and turn it into a politesuggestion.

    For example, "Won't you open the door?"

3. Be pessimistic.
    Do not coerce hearer means that the speaker does not persuade hearer to do something forcefully. This can be done by stating an option for the hearer that may not do the act. This also can be done by assuming that hearer does not want to do theact.

    For example, "Could you jump over that five-foot fence?"

4. Minimize the imposition.
    This strategy is used to minimize the imposition or the threat toward the negative face of the hearer. The minimization can be done by choosing some words which shows the minimum state of a matter.

    For example, "Could I borrow your pen just for a minute".

5. Give deference.
    This strategy explained that giving difference is the act of humbling oneself and fulfill hearer's want of respect. This can be done by using particular addressing form for someone that isuperior.

For example,
"Excuse me Sir, would you mind if I close the window?"

6. Apologize.
By apologizing the speaker can show the unwillingness to threat the face of the hearer or to impinge onhearer.

   For example,
   "I am sorry to bother you, but please tell him to call me tonight."

7. Impersonalize.
This strategy deals with avoiding the pronouns "I" and "You".

   For example, "Do this for me."

8. Stating the FTA as an istance of general rules.
This strategy shows that the speaker does not want to impinge the hearer. The speaker omits the fact that impinge the hearer by emphasizes a notion that the act is a general rule.

   For example,
   "I am sorry, but late-comers cannot be seated till next interval."

9. Nominalize.
Nominalizing is the act of changing a verb into a noun in a sentence. By doing this strategy, the speaker can add more distance and formality. The more formal utterance is, the more visible that the speaker does not want to impinge the hearer.

   For example, "It is our regret that we cannot..."

10. Claim or disclaim indebtedness to the hearer.
This strategy is done by claiming speaker's indebtedness to hearer or by disclaiming any indebtedness of hearer. Hence, the speaker can redress the FTA.

    For example, "I'd be eternally grateful if you would."

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, based Brown and Levinson theory, there are five types of politeness superstrategies—baldly on record politeness, positive politeness strategy, negative politeness strategy, off-record politeness strategy and don't do FTA. Positive politeness strategy refers to how a speaker shows solidarity to the hearer's face. Negative politeness strategy means showing deference to listener's face. These politeness strategy functions to maintain faces of hearer—to avoid be littling others.

STUDENTS' TASK/EXERCISE

1. Complete the following table with the definition of speech acts from experts.

No	Experts	Concepts/Definitions of Politeness
1		
2		
(Using your own words) politeness politeness refers to …		

2. Complete the following table with definition, indicators and examples of each type of politeness maxims.

No	Types of Politeness Maxims	Definition	Types of Strategy	Examples
1	Positive politeness strategy.			
2	Negative politeness strategy.			

3. Analyze the classroom interaction in Appendix 1, then find the application of politeness maxims used in the interaction.

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Appendix
Transcript of Classroom Interaction

Speaker	No. Data	Utterances
Teacher		(The teacher lead his students to pray and read Asmaul Husna. Then, the teacher greets his students.)
Teacher	1	Assalamualaikum Wr wb
Students	2	Waalaikumsalam
Teacher	3	Ok, good morning students. Ok today is training day but Mr. Jo mungkin with you mister Jo will given your aim. Anita where is auu good. Ada Adilla, Alexander devantri, Azura putri fernanda ok, ok Zikra Artika, Farid alwa. Farid ini semakin ganteng saja nampak nya seperti model.
Student	4	(Laughing) model,,, asyiik..
Teacher	5	(one of his students came late) Take chair for you ya. Ok Iis Dwi Susanti kurnia hasanah excellent, Hanum Dwi kurnia, excellent. Hanum ini kok mana senyum nya? Senyum yaa. Iga dwi teman mister Jo ya. Nadia Mahendra ok. Nurmalinda, Rahmad Aditio ok, ok sini aja. Thank you mister Jo, thank you mister Jo, Your are welcome. Rahmad aditio udah ya, ok. Shinta Ramadhani Fitri,tesa novia, widia astuti, Yola hasanah, ooo dia di istano ya, Yolanda putri, ok ya. Aditio, Aditio di balimbiang gimana? Kelok sambilan? Dimana tu daerah nya? Where is kelok sembilan?
Students	6	Lima puluh kota,

Teacher	7	Lima puluh kota,Ok ananda, today Mr. SBY came. Coba kasih opini ya, opinion. (Write in the whiteboard). Ok, hari ini kan datang pak SBY. Coba kasih opini ke mister Jo. What is your opinion tentang kedatangan pak SBY itu ya. Ya tentu anda punya opini ya, opini tentang kunjungan pak SBY. eehh Daula bagaimana sich opini daula dengan kedatangan pak SBY ke Sumatera Barat?. Maksudnya apa sich dampak nya bagi Sumatera Barat dengan datang nya pak SBY itu? (His students keep silent) uuhh anak unggul ternyata kurang percaya diri. Alwa, Alwa give opinion. Kedatangan SBY ke Sumatera Barat sangat penting. Itu opini ya, kemudian setelah itu apa rasanya?, Karena SBY itu kan tokoh nya Nasional, tokoh nya dunia. Dengan datang nya SBY ke Sumatera Barat para wartawan ikut dan wartawan meliput setelah itu wartawan melaporkan ke Indonesia, ke dunia sehingga orang tau tentang Sumatera Barat. Kemudian aa tentu nya yang lain kasih opini aa Yola bagaimana opini Yola katanya SBY tidak jadi meresmikan istana Pagaruyuang itu disini, tapi di Padang. Bagaimana opininya?. SBY batal meresmikan eksperior di Pagaruyung tapi hanya meresmikan itu di Padang dengan alasan SBY punya urusan yang lebih penting.
Students		
Teacher	8	Excellent, sedikit itu juga sangat sedih karena pak SBY tidak bisa meresmikan tekan tombol untuk kita di istana Pagaruyung ya, tapi hanya sekedar datang setelah say halo dan pergi lagi dan ini alasan nya penting karena mungkin pak SBY punya satu atau tiga urusan penting dan dia tidak bisa menyebutkan berapa penting nya urusan itu. Namun disisi yang lain.... excellent lagi. Ananda, kalau ananda memberi opini give opinion dan di ikuti oleh alasan, ya ada lagi alasan nya give opinion. Habis itu adapula reason atau argumen, setelah itu ada lagi namanya itu reiteration ya. Heeem ananda, nah ternyata nantik ini ada lagi namanya bahasa atau bentuk teks analytical exposition ananda ya. Kita analisa kemudian kita explore analytical exposition. eeh barusan tadi Mr. Jo di kirimin SMS oleh siapa namanya? Erna. Mr.Jo saya boleh punya opini, bagaimana kalau kelas ini, kelas apa ini?.
Students	9	Kelas IS.
Teacher	10	IS ini kita cat hitam semuanya, biar saya yang nyumbang catnya. Alasan nya agar kelas ini menjadi kelas yang

		seperti ceritanya Harry Potter, kelas sihir, Mr. Jo jadi penyihirnya dan ananda semuanya jadi anak-anak sihirnya. Itu alasan nya setuju ndak?
Students	11	Setuju mister
Teacher	12	Setuju ya.
Students	13	Gak mister
Teacher	14	Nah ananda dalam analytical itu sendiri bisa jadi pro bisa jadi kontra, kenapa sich gak setuju?.
Students	15	Kita mau lebih nyaman, lebih berwarna.
Teacher	16	Nah, itu argument nya bella batal ya, simpan lagi uang nya, Jadi Mr. Jo gak jadi beli cat. Tapi ada lagi usul dari miss. Putri. miss putri mengatakan ini agar bisa kita menemukan tokoh bagaimana pak SBY batal meresmikan, bagaimana kalau itu diresmikan saja oleh putra...
Students	17	(Laughing)...........kurang khidmat, kurang menarik mister.
Teacher	18	Alasannya kan findo ini kan sama tubuh nya dengan SBY. Nah ini saat nya kita membuat findo ini ngetop sama dengan Justin Bieber.
Students	19	Huuu..(laughing)
Teacher	20	Ya ini bertengkar. Saya gak setuju, saya gak setuju, apa itu?
Students	21	Debate
Teacher	22	Aah ya debat dinamakan dengan debate. Nah, Mr. Jo percaya ananda orang-orang hebat, coba buat ananda beberapa hal yang bagus kita perdebatkan ada yang pro, ada yang kontra. Contoh nya topi ini juga harus dipakai oleh wanita ya, setuju?
Students	23	Gak mister
Teacher	24	Berarti bisa ya. Kayaknya point itu bagaimana? (Ask one of student to write in the whiteboard). Ok stand up fandi, fandi ya. Apa sich maksudnya kita gak tau, ceritakan ke publik. Apa maksudnya excellent class dan reguler class apa maksud nya?. Aa ok, ternyata kelas unggul dan kelas biasa ini harus di bedain, tos excellent. Jadi maksud nya excellent class and reguler class must be separate ya. Aah ya jadi begitu juga nantik, anak-anak excellent class harus

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		nantik jajan nya di kedai mama, anak-anak biasa dibedain. Kalau parkir sepeda, parkir motornya juga beda, WC nya harus beda, pacarnya harus beda tapi tidak boleh pake....seperti anak SMP 4 ya. Alwa membuat video.......ok. Oh ya itu bagus siswa juga harus bawa tablet HP ke sekolah, tulis kedepan
Students	25	Apa yang di bikin mister?
Teacher	26	Yang tadi siswa juga, boleh boleh, ini paling cantik dan tercantik di dunia. Eeh di situ, coba lagi yang lain judul yang bisa pro dan kontra. Ini tadi sudah, ini tadi sudah. Ini kok blank saja?
Students	27	Kebijakan PBB menjaga kestabilan...
Teacher	28	Bisa jadi kontra ya, bagus ini ide nya anak nya Abu Darda. Halimah idenya, PBB policy to let Israel attack Palestine ya. Ternyata ini punya otak tapi yang lain punya brain.
Students	29	Sama aja mister
Teacher	30	(Ask student to write the topic in the white board,) sini juga boleh
Teacher	31	Nah seperti ini, siswa dilarang membawa barang elektronik ke sekolah, sedangkan guru diperbolehkan bawa barang. Nah, seperti ini judul yang bisa untuk kontra ya. Students must be allow to take phone cell to school. Ini lagi Firdo, PBB policy to let (membiarkan) Israel ke palestine ya. Kemarin si genes hampir di timpuk oleh ojek. Karena itu saking ramai nya dan ojek itu lebih parah lagi macet semuanya. Sehingga ada...di tepi jalan. Nah ojek harus dihapuskan dari Batusangkar.
Students	32	Setuju.
Teacher	33	Tidak setuju, kami akan terlambat, apa lagi kata si Iga setuju. Kata yang lain dengan ada nya ojek itu sawahsawah dibiarkan. Mereka sudah ngais sawah lagi. Sehingga banyak swah yang terbengkalai. Ingin mencari uang cepat ada pro kontra ya. Nah, ada nantik yang pro dan kontra yang kita lihat nantik logika nya ya. Eeh apa ini how many person in this class.
Student	34	Twenty one
Teacher	35	Twenty one, ok one, two, three, four, five, six (2x). Ok berarti ada yang empat ya. Ya ananda susun menjadi satu group, stand up ya. Nah ini satu group itu ada tujuh, seven stand up. Oke ananda one two three four (2x) ini kontra ya. One two three four, one two three four pro.

Students	36	Students work in their group
Teacher	37	Ok selesai group ini present your debate, ok give applause!. Where is contra?.(The students raise their hand), where is pro?
Students	38	Second point
Teacher	39	Ok, Iga belong to pro, pro mana?. Ok Mr. Jo will throw this to the sky and fall down. Kalau...up pro ke bawah, kalau up........kebawah. Ok (the teacher throw the coin) its means.................applause introduce.
Students	40	Introduce...
Teacher	41	Introduce your group to the public
Students	42	Assalamualaikum wr wb
Teacher	43	Waalaikumsalam wr wb
Students	44	We are from pro team my name is Iga, Yola, Hanum, and second is contra team Firdo, Alexandra, Fahri Anwar and Diana.
Teacher	45	Ok happy watching and begin
Students	46	Ok in our discussion we take the theme is students must be allow take phone cell to the school. Eeh we are not agree because eee because phone cell is very although phone cell is very important for us but many students use the phone cell to negatif, eee negatif thing, the example like eee to listen music when he study and eee porn video for men and much the negatif thing if we, if the students take the phone cell to the school.
Teacher	47	She is not agree with you please listen to the ladies.
Students	48	Ok in positif side if the students take phone cell to the school that will help students to search important information for study for example is in one lesson like English, we need to get new information and eee did not found in the book we should search in the google, so phone is important for our study.
Teacher	49	This group said that why should you did not agree because phone has many interest use for example support the study but and how this group the boy disagree with your opinion and alexandra will tell you about it.
Students	50	Ok I dont agree with your opinion because bring phone cell to the school can disturb study............................

Teacher	51	Eeh Alexandra say to take phone cell if only for listen the music in our school will be………………. and how the ladies disagree with you, listen.
Students	52	And that not disturb our lesson ooh and we need we use the phone cell in lesson time when we need that for ooh new information.
Teacher	53	Yes, she know very much take phone cell can be negatif but listen we use phone call for good thing only try to understand that but any how they disagree with you and listen to anwar
Students	54	Ooh I think to take phone cell to the school eee is wrong because not all the students have phone cell and breaktime is the moment to change music, video, eeh Wifi an and many others
Teacher	55	Yes based on Anwars' experience what site is really………… for example in your time students not only study but also change music, change video, Anwar this group is disagree with you listen to your friend opinion.
Students	56	And we use the phone cell when break or free time
Teacher	57	The that group phone cell should take to the school. Diana disagree with you please listen to her.
Students	58	Eeeeh you, you, you can, you may bring the phone cell to the school if you have the aaa permittion from the teacher for example Mr. Jo eeh and eeeh in our school have school telephone. If we can use it for important thing
Teacher	59	…………ok applause
Students	60	I think in this era globalization we need phone cell to not for give information for our material but also we need phone cell to search information for our study
Teacher	61	And what is your reason tell them
Students	62	Phone is very important for study but much the negatif thing from the positif thing because not all of the students save it, we are is different in physic and pemikiran. So, to use phone cell sure different. Stupid student will use phone cell for negatif thing and smar students will use the phone for the positive thing. We can use phone cell school if you want to study with google you can borrow your friends' laptop eee something although phone cell
Teacher	63	Ok applause, who is best the speaker from this group?

Students	64	Iga
Teacher	65	Iga applause, and who is the best speaker from this group?
Students	66	Firdo
Teacher	67	Iga and Firdo is the best speaker applause. Ok welcome back to your sit. Ok that all our lesson today about analytical exposition. Take..........assalamualaikum wr.wb

TABLE II: DATA WAS TAKEN ON 13 NOVEMBER 2013

Speaker	No. Data	Utterances
Teacher	68	Assalamualaikum wr.wb
Student	69	Waalaikumsalam wr.wb
Teacher	70	Of course of course your language.... Beside Mr. Jo. Mr. Jo also has two beautiful gentle ladies, your nick name?
Students		
Teacher	71	Miss. Erna applause! Farid miss Erna udah dua depan nya lho, berarti anggap miss Erna sebagai kakak ya farid, ya. Ok
		ananda our topic this week is analytical exposition masih ingat?. Mr. Jo lupa seperti apa untuk menghadapi analytical exposition ini, menganalisa dan juga mengeksplore apa? eeh seperti apa value nya?, kalau ada situation ini lalu kita bisa untuk debate apa itu?.
Students	72	Read the book
Teacher	73	Ok read the book, why do you forget it. Present voice kemudian support, positive issue, present, present voice, support, positive contra. But now we not focus on this topic but what to do and what not to do ok. Eeh eeh kenapa ini pucat sekali. I think apa sich saran Iga kepada teman nya? pucat lemas pagi-pagi baru ya. Aa harus nya breakfast yach. Ok we advise you to have breakfast ya. (look at to other students) Coba lihat ini kenapa pakai tangkelek and we advice you not to wear tangkelek, tangkelek apa itu?.
Students	74	Sandal kayu
Teacher	75	Sandal,sandal, wooden sandal ya. (Write in the white board). Anda ada berkali-kali dengar akhir "en" ya, wooden sandal,sandal kayu, golden table,

		golden card, golden daughter yach. Usually in interview at least must be two person one question one answer, and of course in interview there is something to discuss. Ok..............misalnya concern tentang drug yach, nah ananda drug bikin close smoke. Aditio siang malam use some, addicted pecandu rokok ya ananda ya. Aditio what make someone begin to smoke, kenapa sich ada orang yang merokok?
Teacher	76	Now........this morning we would to have you interview your friend about drug ya. Nah ananda, drug itu apa sich? definisi drug itu. Ok who know definition of drug. What is drug?
Students	77	Narkoba
Teacher	78	Narkoba .... contoh nya narkoba ya. Narkoba itu kan zat adiktif. Narkoba itu sudah di apa ya di Indonesia kan. Ok what else? Mariguana, apalagi putaw. (ask one students) apa yang di pakai? Cpm.
Teacher	79	Ok what ananda, what is definition of drug. Ananda sometime we also found toko obat dengan drugstore, Apa toko obat itu bahasa Inggrisnya adalah..
Students	80	Drugstore
Teacher	81	Drugstore jadi toko menjual drug, obat-obatan ya. Sekarang yang kita anggap pegawai itu adalah miss use drug. sebetulnya itu seperti bius, ketika fadli disunat, ketika dipotong yach dipotong. Ok what is another word for vaksin positif effect of...... Ananda drug itu juga punya jenis ya, ada drug yang berakibat dianggap sebagai drug yang kecilnya seperti............ada drug yang berbahaya. What is the more danger drug?. Ooh ndak tau semuanya....... Tau nya I-pad, tablet justin bieber yach, kenapa gak tau? Ya karena gak pernah makai
Teacher	82	Ok the next is what is the name of the most danger drug, sehingga nya selalu membuat kecanduan? ada what?.
Students	83	Mariguana
Teacher	84	Apa lagi?
Students	85	Shabu-shabu, kokain
Teacher	86	Shabu-shabu, kokain.eehh Mr.Jo juga gak tau Cuma ingetinget saja ya. Nah .....bisa gak kira-kira bagaimana sich seseorang tu kok bisa bersentuhan dengan drug?
Students	87	Depresi

Teacher	88	Ok. Mr. Jo punya anak namanya ini firdo, anak baik-baik tapi Mr. Jo lengah, lalu yang terjadi? drug user. Anak dibawah nya si Rahmad aditio, dia punya blender dia dan buat drug. Ok, Jadi lah proses pembuatan narkoba. Nah anak-anak sekarang, what happen in ok what will happen if one of your friend in SMA ini ee get drug acting. Apa sich yang terjadi? kalau teman ananda tiba-tiba menjadi pengguna narkoba drug user. Apa kah disupport?. Ok..ok atau bagaimana? ya, what are your suggestion ya?
Students	89	Di rehabilitasi
Teacher	90	Aaa ya give your opinion, what your opinion?. Ok ananda, what is your opinion if one of your friend be drug user. Bagaimana sich opini nya? kalau teman nya tiba-tiba ada yang pengguna narkoba and the last how to make this school and this country free of drug berarti yach. Ananda bagaimana membuat lingkungan nya bebas dari drug. Drug itu gak apaapa tapi yang berbahaya itu adalah salah gunanya.
T eacher	91	Ok we have five question first what definition of drug? Two, what drug...... Three, proccess someone to get free succeed drug Four, what is your opinion if one of your friend indicate drug user Five.......................... Ok ananda, it is to be a one group ya, nantik ini membuat to get small place,ee apa small place....ok Its group two, its group three, this group four and the last group five. Ok silahkan. Ok now buat lingkaran. You will explain about drug, karena drug itu harus dimatikan ya. Yang bagian ini drug harus dikembangkan.
Students		(Students discuss in their group)
Teacher	92	Turn your table..halo, stand up......table ok. (Teacher collect students homework) Yach your work aa ini ada good
Students	93	Ini uncle, uncle, uncle, uncle buat namanya uncle?
Teacher	94	Ya...
Students	95	Uncle (students collect their homework)
Teacher	96	Excellent thank you
Students	97	Ini gimana uncle?
Teacher	98	Coba liat
Students	99	Ok. Finish?

Teacher	100	Belum. Ok not yet (Teacher walk along students discuss to control his students, teacher ask students to turn her chair) stand up aa ok like this ya. ok say thank you Mr. Jo
Students	101	Thank you Mr. Jo
Teacher	102	You are welcome. ok who finish to perform your...ok finish welcome group one
Students	103	Assalamualaikum
Teacher	104	Waalaikum salam (Students perform their discussion result)

TABLE III: DATA WAS TAKEN ON 19 NOVEMBER 2013

Speaker	No. Data	Utterances
Teacher	105	Mister lupa baca salam, assalamualaikum wr.wb
Students	106	Waalaikumsalam wr.wb
Teacher	107	Did you love your conversation at that time?
Students	108	Drug.
Teacher	109	Drug, ok ya analytical exposition kemaren ya? but this week again we came back to talk narrative. Mister apa sich target narrative? Because ya along English lesson ada description, discussion. Narrative itu banyak ya, kenapa? What is use of narrative? Setelah baca narrative we feel very happy ya.. So, narrative is very important to entertain and also develop your imagination and ok ananda at this time, our next topic to analyze narrative, ananda in narrative nya ada apa?. Biasa nya ada long, long time ago ya. Ada when nya, ada tempatnya where and ada tokoh nya. Di abad ke 18 ada seorang gadis paling cantik di lintau, gadis itu tidak mau makan, tidak mau minum except kalau ada teman. Dan di desa itu tidak ada teman. Dia berrdoa dalam bahasa Inggris "God give me a friend.. today dan aaa putus asa And she came to her grandma" grandma why my pray not received by the God?". And pray again " God". Habis berdoa itu ada guncangan ya eartquake, there was we call tornado, came tangkap, jatuh di pohon seri dan datang seorang teman namanya amerta. What is your name? My name is amerta, saya yulia dan itu lah makanya amerta dan yulia be a friend.
Students	110	(Some students come late)

Teacher	111	Hhmm bau shampo, ok ya. Mungkin mereka sengaja gak mandi kesekolah dan pagi ini ada jam olahraga. Mandi di sekolah.
Students	112	Gak ada mandi mister,
Teacher	113	Ok, gentle boy, gentle boy, gentle boy Farham, Adi, Randi, Firdo today our topic is narrative. Ok, ananda ingat gak apa itu narrative? Apa sich yang di ingat tentang narrative, ganteng?
Students	114	Orientation
Teacher	115	Ada apa dengan orientasi itu? Coba ceritakan sedikit, di awal nya, proses nya ok applause.
		(invite one of student to come in front of the class). Give applause. This boy has already read a narrative dan now he will to retell but still in process. Dia akan coba mengatakan seberapa dia mampu.
Students	116	Kancil adalah
Teacher	117	Can you speak in English?
Students	118	Kancil is a kind of animal and he always steal the mentimun, eeh petani farmer, then farmer what will found him by make the perangkap after that kancil " terkena perangkap"
Teacher	119	Applause,eeh kenapa ceritanya selalu kancil kancil kan bisa cerita masa di TK tapi itu no problem and Mr. Jo now would like to give another narrative.This narrative for seventeen, eighteen, nineteen, and twenty. Ok ananda what you are going to see in this text the first when, when was the story happen, and then where, where the story happen and then who are the character of this story and what problem with a kancil, apa sich problem nya kancil tadi?
Students	120	Mencuri ketimun
Teacher	121	Ya steal the cucumber ya. Kemudian pak tani, what solution?. Apa ini solusi yang di kasih pak tani?
Students	122	Pak tani menangkap nya
Teacher	123	And how the story end? Ok ya. Nah ananda you have to sit in your group can be two person, three person, four person, ada yang three person. Ok ya. Ini couple, or eee apa?
Students	124	(students laughing) best couple

Teacher	125	ok this one group, this one group, this one group, this is one group, this is one group ini two group or one group? Ini pilih vina atau…susah untuk milih nya ya, belah lah dada ku. Ok mister di bantu oleh sicantik, one person give one, stand up please, give paper to your friend.
Students	126	(one of student give paper to her friend)
Teacher	127	Katakan thank you miss syofni, thank miss syofni. So, the group ada yang two person, three person, four person ya. Eeh langsung aja, ini three lah ya. Ini pindah just turn. Ok thank you, Aishiteru. Ok ananda find those five criteria for story seventeen, story eighteen, story nineteen, story twenty ya
Students	128	Tulis semua
Teacher	129	Semuanya
Students	130	Semuanya mister.
Teacher	131	Who is finish? Can you understand? Excuse me, is it a drama, kapan?. (The teacher ask the student to read the Japan drama script)
Students	132	Besok. (One of the students read the Japan drama). (Students perform their discussion result in front of the class).
		Assalamaualaikum wr.wb. Ok my friend we will tell you about our story, vita time is your. Where the story happen?
Teacher	133	(Close the lesson by give some motivation) Then we are going to collect your book but Mr.Jo would like to give you some motto: Bahwa kalau dalam, succes in your life, ok listen, semua nya listen to Mr. Jo ya. Close it ya. You have, anda harus berperan untuk itu, peran di sekolah ini, peran di kelas ya. Mr.Jo lihat di kelas ini tidak banyak yang berperan, ada yang itu aja yang di lakukan nya. Duduk, datang, diem, dengar, apakah orang begitu ini success nantik?. I don't think so. Mr. Jo masih ingat ketika dulu ada masuk SMA anak ini nama nya Farham dia culun sekali, gak laku akhirnya dia berproses, dia move on, dia masuk PBB, dia berlatih, sekarang dia cakap applause to Farham. Ada lagi ini dulu orang nya gak laku, tapi dia cari di mana kelebihan nya, dia punya peran. Randi dulu nya juga gak laku and then he is search and he is now, the president of SMA 3 excellent. Bagaimana yang lain jangan cuma datang, duduk kemudian diem, diem, diem apakah

		ini nantik nya succes?. Meskipun nantik anda kuliah nya di UI tapi tidak ada move on, nothing ya. Mister I want to go to UGM, habis itu kalau tidak ada contribution, nothing and life is struggle. Ari siapa sich tokoh yang menginspirasi ari?
Students	134	.....................mister
Teacher	135	Ada apa dengan dia?
Students	136	Jenius
Teacher	137	Alisia tantri who is your bigger to change your idea?
Students	138	Bj. Habibie
Teacher	139	Habibie ya, what. Siapa lagi selain habibie. Kebanyakan habibie, habibie huu udah banyak kali, selain itu lagi. Kayak nya banyak fans nya habibie ya. Habibie itu udah kuno ya, Find another person. Ananda Randi who is inspire you?
Students	140	My father
Teacher	141	Ananda life is struggle. Ini untuk PR lagi ya. Ananda cari lah kisah orang- orang yang struggle in the life. Dan hari ini anda press selembar kertas aja timbal balik dan di kumpulkan minggu ini ya. Ok sudah collect your exercise. And thank you very much assalamualaikum wr.wb

TABLE IV: DATA WAS TAKEN ON 20 NOVEMBER 2013

Speaker	No. Data	Utterances
Teacher	142	Like this mountain, blue mountain and what a mountain is higher is high?
Students	143	Merapi, singgalang, larva, magma
Teacher	144	Ya, Special, special biology ya. Like this put fullside in
		horizon ya, aa a sun with eeh seperti itu, mountain with sains side. Ok I have a black, my eeh sorry, eeh my pen can't ee apa because I forget to close and what we call this material?.
Students	145	Cover, Cup
Teacher	146	Yes, what we call this what" pen", pen cup aa
Students	147	Close, close
Teacher	148	Pen cup,tutup pena, pen cup. Ok ya. Ok ee modern technology like airplane, it has a viewer, helikopter. Ok in

		hotel or in the hot room we need AC teknisi. But what we call instrument or material about helikopter, what is very important to make it move.
Students	149	
Teacher	150	What we call it in English? What it is in English, Mr.Jo would like to check your language, your vocabulary, ya material or instrument about helikopter to make it ee move ok ya. Yes,so ananda you have to mastery at least five thousand words, paling kurang lima ribu kata, kalau Mr.Jo sudah one hundred thousand for English, three thousand for arabic and one thousand for estavino.
Students	151	
Teacher	152	Ok, ananda I think you also so understand about active sentence, passive sentence ya. Ok ee we would like to, because now we have at the end of semester and going to change our semester. Mr.Jo ingin guide you, to review your ability in writing. Because last week we have drama tapi banyak translate dengan google ya. Ananda google itu tidak peduli dengan aaa gremmer ya, aktif, pasif aa. In writing gremmer is important. (the teacher write in whiteboard) Active and passive ya, ok it is writing ya. Mr. Jo ingin ngasih contoh.........contoh dalam bahasa Indonesia Mr. Jo berdiri. Nabila ingin mencintai apa maksud nya?, aa gini aku ingin mencintai dan dicintai.
Teacher	153	I want to love and to be love ya ananda ya. Love and to be loved. Ananda ini tu part of passive yach. Love, to be love, like, to be like ee gitu ya. Nantik kan ada come, came. Let us forgive and forgiven memaafkan dan di maafkan. Its also really important. Ok, can, can not to the past. Ok ananda at least you should understand three part of speech ada simple, ada future, ada perfect. Apa sich ciriciri kalimat simple past itu memakai kata verb berapa?.
Students	154	Dua
Teacher	155	Kalau continous
Students	156	Bentuk positif
Teacher	157	Itu pake ing, dan pake to be. Perfect ada kata have aa itu dia ya. Anda kalau ini apakah pakai was atau were dan ini very easy ya. Check references very easy ya. Mr. Jo liat nich anwar, tiap sore dia selalu menemui ernes di Belimbing. Ok anwar visited...bagaimana itu ananda passive nya. Anwar

		visited ernes, ernes visited by anwar. nah kalau si anwar punya dua kegiatan. Ok, Jadi ada 2 berarti anda understand simple nech. Ok, nah. ok tadi sudah kita pakai anwar sekarang siapa lagi nech, si iga ya. Iga last week or Sunday kata apa ini pakai continue
Students	158	Pake was
Teacher	159	Ada waktu nya jelas, mungkin ini pukul sepuluh lah dia sudah mandi, nah..................iga ya. Iga biasanya setelah mandi dia udah harum, apa kegiatan nya kira-kira tu.
Students	160	Iga was
Teacher	161	Apa kira-kira, iga tu senang nya?
Students	162	Main basket,aaa ya uncle
Teacher	163	Iga was playing basket ball last Sunday, apa sich pasif nya. Basket was play by Iga. Nah ternyata tu dua- dua main bola kecil dan bola besar. Iga was play basket sekaligus, satu lagi apa lagi? Volly
Students	164	Takraw, kasti uncle
Teacher	165	Nah coba, Iga sedang bermain kasti....Iga...... Hanung ya, Hanung kemaren ee apa Mr. Jo jalan nya susah gini-gini, apa dia tu?
Students	166	Sakit
Teacher	167	Itu lutut nya
Students	168	Terjatuh
Teacher	169	Berarti yach hanung telah menabrak batu misalnya ya. Ok ya Hanung kick this stone. This stone, this stone. This stone apa ananda by hanung. Batu telah di tabrak apa itu?
Students	170	Kick by
Teacher	171	Sepeti itu juga boleh tapi cuman itu kan....................atau bagaimana kelas ini kemaren masih kotor berarti belum di sapu.gitu ya (the teacher write in the whiteboard). Hanung had wash class. What is passive voice for this, has not ya.
Teacher	172	And ananda Mr. Jo now want you work in pairs mungkin anda minggu lalu lupa.... So, you are going to review with Mr. Jo passive sentence ya minggu lalu I was.............. by someone ya. Last week my house was visit by my uncle, apalagi last Saturday, my motorbike was fixed by mechanic.
Students	173	Yang passive aja uncle

Teacher	174	Apa? Just passive. Ananda sekarang silahkan kasih Mr. Jo kalimat pasif biar pakai by, by semuanya. Give mister Jo only three passive sentences
Students	175	(Students discuss with their pairs)
Teacher	176	Ok came please, three, three base ya........give passive sentence to your friend. Applause. Ok ya, every body, every body write passive, and come in front tell your friend your passive sentences. At least paling kurang three, boleh sampai five. Ananda didalam bahasa Indonesia orang cenderung memakai pasif " ambo di liek nyo, ambo di tolong nyo, ambo di bantu nyo, ambo di cinto nyo begitu but at least...................
		Halo mister, mister ok si rahmad tanya mister ada waktu itu di mana letak nya, ada rumus nya bahasa Inggris itu kan ini kalimat habis tu manner place, tempat dalam kalimat tempat baru waktu ya. I study english seriously at home in the morning, jadi tempat baru waktu ya. In the class everyday. Yang pasif itu benda nya duluan ya. what happen with gentle lady? Mister kasih duit lima ribu.... hehe. Ok mister Jo............ok group anwar you ready?, group annida, no one? Ok
Students	177	Mister, mister the jungle apa arti nya mister?
Teacher	178	Kapan di potong ini, ini every month, every week or every two week? Every month. (the teacher ask to one of students.) Halo, apa?
Students	179	Trying, try. Apa..........mister? "ed"
Teacher	180	Ya " ed" putri clear? Oke ya Hani ya ok stand up!
Students	181	Yola, berdua lah uncle, eee disini aja uncle
Teacher	182	Applause
Students	183	Passive sentence, simple past: Oki was helped by Yola
Teacher	184	See your friend, Oki was helped gitu. Passive sentence Alexander was helped by Yola(The teacher demonstrate to the students)
Students	185	Passive sentence ooo, Alexander helped by Iga.
Teacher	186	Ok, number two
Students	187	Someone was try to remember by Iga
Teacher	188	Yes, someone was remember by Iga
Students	189	Swiss city had been visited by Hani

Teacher	190	Swiss city in Europe had been visit by Hani. Ok, udah paham gak? Jadi kalimat pasif itu, kalimat nya harus jelas misal nya gini, si Iga kan bengkak ini nya (Touch his cheek). Iga di pukul by Findo ya, excellent. Aaa itu dia ya. Kemudian aa Yola ya. Yola
Students	191	Ok my friend I want to read passive sentence
Teacher	192	Yes
Students	193	Ooo, simple past, past simple, simple past. Ooh Adit was loved by Tesa. Past continous " something was..........by Yola
Teacher	194	Ok, kalau Yola tadi topic nya love ok excellent
Students	195	Made apa uncle?
Teacher	196	Made, make, made, give, given. ya, ok ayok group pasif
Students	197	Eeh Alex, salah pak..............group performance had been...... by Alex Stevano. Eeh actor an action............,..........got an accident.
Teacher	198	Ok bagaimana maksud nya ananda?
Students	199	Java strong world was made by Tesa and Diana when Iam company alex to their village.
Teacher	200	Thank you, complete, very complete, excellent
Students	201	Very excellent
Teacher	202	Ok now Alex yang ditunjuk.
Students	203	Findo was.......by motorcycle last week
Teacher	204	Siapa?
Students	205	Findo
Teacher	206	Findo ya
Students	207	Motorcycle was being riding by Findo
Teacher	208	Riding, ridden ya, motorcycle ridden by Findo
Students	209	Hani's phone cell had been broken broke by Findo
Teacher	210	Ok. Excellent. Anwar, Anwar come front
Students	211	Findo was invited by Yogi. Findo and Adit was being late discuss with......in the class on last Monday. The tablet had been broken by sila.
Teacher	212	Excellent Anwar. Rahmad Aditio,ok ya.
Students	213	Story was write by Adit
Teacher	214	Write,wrote, written ya

Students	214	Read, uncle?
Teacher	215	Read, read, read
Students	216	.......read by Inggit
Teacher	217	Ok, thank you
Students	218	Yes
Teacher	219	And now,..ok Iga
Student	220	Yang pertama simple past, eeh Didi was look for by Azura. The film had been watch by Andrianto. Eeh continous past eeh the door was being close by Harris.
Teacher	221	Excellent Iga, and we are now.
Students	222	Novel was buy by Linda. Yola's cat had been add by Yaya. The school yard was clean by Iga
Teacher	223	Excellent, gadis fenomena wait aaa...
Students	224	My home was visited by my grandma. My table was broke by Iga.
Teacher	225	Ya
Students	226	Yola's birthday was celebrate by Iga.
Tecaher	227	Udah ya
Students	228	......was write by Yogi. Motorcycle had been ride by Laura.
Teacher	229	Ketahuan Anwar Yang Passive, Active Itu Normal Ya. Ok Thank You and Nora si gadis yang cantik bibir nya dengar, silahkan
Students	230	Passive sentence, simple past. Inez was loved by Asma.
Teacher	231	Ini Fakta kan ya?
Students	232	
Teacher	233	Dengar pakai perasaan ya.
Students	234	.......was going watch by Hanung.
Teacher	235	Ok
Students	236	Yola had been invite by Hani
Teacher	237	Ok tos, ya gadis paling cantik di balimbiang, wajah nya berseri.
Students	238	Tesa was treat at restoran yesterday by Ibnu. Fried rice was being made and eaten by kartika. Paris had been visited last night by,,,,,I
Teacher	239	Excellent, ok. Next come on Rani, ee masih ada pin dari Jogja nya ya,ya benar dari jogja ya.

Students	240	
Teacher	241	Yang belum, ok yang punya wawasan tinggi yang sangat nyata
Students	242	Simple passive, the birthday cake's was eat by Yola.
Teacher	243	Keliatan nya sebelah sini belum ya?
Students	244	Kita liat dulu mister
Teacher	245	Ok, she has good voice, Ata
Students	246	Vita was help by syafni
Teacher	247	Nah, ok cukup, it is so beauty.
Students	248	Hanung mister
Teacher	249	Hanung gentle boy applause.
Students	250	Laura was..........by Yogi
Teacher	251	Ok, vita
Students	252	.....
Teacher	253	Excellent, applause
Students	254	Iga was help by Syafni. Continous, baseball was play by Findo
Teacher	255	Ok..thank you gadis yang cantik, Tesa
Students	256	Ciee,,cieee
Teacher	257	And,, and
Students	258	Nurhasanah uncle
Teacher	259	Ee ya applause, my special boy ya. Teman special ku,ok ya, usia nya 16. Ok ananda kalau part of speech, Ananda kalau passive in present ya, ini dia contoh nya ya. Gitu ya, jadi gampang saja. And I believe you have understood about passive. So, use passive in your life, use passive in your some communication.
Students	260	Ok
Teacher	261	And we hope you will be perfect in English
Students	262	Amiin, Kapan keluarnya hasil nya uncle?
Teacher	263	Ya, hasil apa?
Students	264	Score nya uncle
Teacher	265	Eeh dia banyak ya, masih di periksa, mungkin butuh waktu satu minggu lagi. Kan nantik selesai begitu banyak, nantik di bilang ini bagian greeting nya, ini bagian.......nya..........

		trus di masukin berapa. and we hope your score increase, increase, increase. Ananda kan ada di perpustakaan and try to be otodidak. Ananda for your homework, write your paragraph tapi in the past, use a lot passive aaa ya tulislah beberapa paragraph in the past dan gunakan passive. When I was young my mother, when I was young.....to visit by grandma gitu ya ok (the teacher write in the whiteboard)
Teacher	266	Ketika Anwar sekolah di SMP, dia kost di rumah mister Jo, Anwar sering di suruh mengepel lantai, habis tu Anwar di suruh mengecat rumah, habis tu Anwar diusir dan tinggal dengan cinderella gitu ya. Setelah sebulan Anwar dihargai
		karena anwar sudah lolos masa training and Anwar di kasih paket money one month. So, write short paragraph about your experience.
Teacher	267	Anwar life in the house, where does the bird life?
Students	268	Sangkar
Teacher	269	In jungle of Europe it has four season summer, winter, spring, usually in snow, animal life. It's secret......what we call it? During a winter more than stay in their place what we call, pas hujan
Teacher	270	Ok, that enough for today for learning a beuatiful English and I think its really important to improve your listening to recall your knowledge. Thank you. Home work is just write short paragraph about your life in the past form and use passive, passive sentence ok.

Biodata Penulis

Dr. Rita Erlinda, M.Pd. lahir 21 Januari 1973 di desa Talang Anau Kabupaten 50 Kota. Dia seorang Lektor Kepala dalam bidang ilmu *Linguistics.* Dia merupakan dosen tetap di Program Studi Pendidikan Bahasa Inggris, Fakultas Tarbiyah dan Ilmu Keguruan IAIN Batusangkar semenjak tahun 2000. Pada tahun 2006, dia mendapatkan gelar Doktor dari Universitas Padjadjaran Bandung dalam bidang Ilmu Linguistik. Beliau sudah menulis beberapa buku antara lain: *Linguistics for ELT: Sounds, Words, and Sentences*; *Linguistics for ELT: The Systematic Study of Meaning;* dan *Curriculum and Material Development.* Buku-buku hasil karyanya dapat dipahami dengan mudah oleh para mahasiswa. Penyajian buku *Introduction to English Pragmatics: Applying Research-based Model* ini dilengkapi dengan pertanyaan dan latihan-latihan agar para mahasiswa dapat dengan mudah menguasai dan mengaplikasikan materi perkuliahan.