UMSIDA PRESS
Universitas Muhammadiyah Sidoarjo
Jl. Mojopahit No. 666B
Sidoarjo, Jawa Timur

ISBN 978-623-464-037-3 (PDF)

BUKU AJAR : English Pragmatics

Vidya Mandarani, S.S., M.Hum
Niko Fediyanto, S.S., M.A.

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978-623-464-037-3

Editor(s):

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Cover and Layout Designer:

Irham Salsabila Alfarisi, S.Pd.

Published by UMSIDA Press

Anggota IKAPI No. 218/Anggota Luar Biasa/JTI/2019

Anggota APPTI No. 002 018 1 09 2017

Redaksi:
Universitas Muhammadiyah Sidoarjo
Jl. Mojopahit No. 666B
Sidoarjo, Jawa Timur

Cetakan Pertama, November 2022

FOREWORD

All praises are to Allah SWT, the Most Merciful and Beneficent, the Universe Creator for all humankind. He has been giving us abundant blessings until we can finish this **English Pragmatics** course book without significant obstacles. Peace and greetings upon our prophet Muhammad SAW, the last messenger of Allah SAW, who guides us to a prosperous life in this world and hereafter.

The authors want to express their gratitude to the following people:

1. Dr. Akhtim Wahyuni, M.Ag., the Dean of Psychology and Education Science Faculty, encouraged us to accomplish this book.
2. Dr. Fika Megawati, M.Pd., the English Education Study Program Chairwoman, supported us in drafting this book.
3. Fellow supporting lecturers of English Pragmatics, who shared their experiences in delivering the course.

On top of that, this book proposes a new concept in linguistics. The new concept is pragmatics, which studies how language is employed in various settings and contexts. Students must understand that language studies not only break down language forms or structures but also study the relationship between language form and community usage. Thus, language analysis is meant to cover not just the study of linguistic forms but also the study of community language usage. Because the form of the study is more dynamic than a study that focuses on intralingual characteristics, considering language usage will be extremely promising and will always change.

Language, as we know, is an evolutionary phenomenon constantly altered for human populations' communication needs. Currently, over 278 million Indonesians can speak verbally. If each individual generates 100 utterances daily, the total number of utterances produced each day is 278 billion. Context is essential in spoken communication, and vague intents will become obvious with context. Context-sensitive behavior is vital in pragmatics learning. Hence this textbook provides situational and social settings to help students develop strong pragmatic competence.

Concerning the significance of pragmatic competence, the realization in the following speech does not meet the acceptance conditions for the context of the speech. Because a student who has learned grammar and vocabulary information but cannot communicate successfully in the language he is studying, pragmatic competence is essential in language acquisition. One proposed theory is that pragmatic aspects of language development are disregarded. Herein lies the problem: language teachers frequently disregard pragmatic failure. Indeed, educational intervention may stimulate the learner's pragmatic knowledge.

Foreign language learning incorporates a pragmatic component into the content and curriculum or employs a pragmatic approach. Pragmatic learning is essential for gaining communicative competence, one of the most important characteristics in the workplace since it allows for successful communication. Foreign language students must learn grammar and vocabulary and how to communicate with the social norms of the language being studied.

The purpose of communication is to convey ideas and sentiments. The speaker wishes to convey a message to the other person during the discussion. Because communication is not always easy, the speaker's message is not always well received by the interlocutor, which can lead to misunderstandings between the two parties. Because the role of meaning interpretation between speaker and interlocutor is not absolute, comprehension of the produced meaning must be contextual. A lack of understanding of This environment may result in communication failure and inaccurate message delivery. Therefore, a language learner must not only grasp and develop grammatically correct language but also be able to apply the form of language with the communication goal.

This book discusses some important subjects related to pragmatics, such as pragmatics as a branch of macro-linguistics, the context of pragmatics' origin, pragmatics as a research approach, and the importance of pragmatics in the study of linguistics. This book includes six chapters, they are:

1. Reference, Deixis, Speech act;
2. Presupposition and Implicature;
3. Culture and Discourse;
4. Politeness, Power, and Ideology;
5. Contrastive Pragmatics, and
6. Pragmatics Competence in Normal and Disordered Context.

To better understand pragmatics, you should be aware that language transmits the meaning of speech depending on the context, which includes when, where, and under what conditions the speech was made, why it was provided, how it was presented, and to whom it was intended.

You must read this book carefully and extensively in order to obtain a good understanding of the term pragmatics. Also, you should be able to synchronize the material provided to acquire a more comprehensive understanding.

One effort you may make to understand the information is to develop the concept offered by bringing up particular examples from daily linguistic life. Even if there are several examples of the ideas presented in this book, your willingness to be more creative in finding additional examples is quite beneficial. If particular concepts are difficult to comprehend, do not be afraid to re-read them until you find a solution to your problems. You must also complete the exercises in each chapter to strengthen your grasp of the information you are learning. Further, this book provided a glossary of pragmatics terms to help you understand the contents more easily.

For the enhancement and refining of this course book, constructive feedback from educators, students, parents, and the community is highly expected.

Last but not least, the authors would like to thank everyone who contributed to the production of this book but who cannot be named individually. This book will hopefully be effective in enhancing the quality of education.

Sidoarjo, November 2022
Authors

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Introduction:

What is Pragmatics?

Pragmatics Relocation

It is challenging to describe many communicative phenomena in daily conversation linguistically. Linguists investigate why we have language, how it functions, the limitations of linguistic variety, and how language evolves (Willemsen & Bøegh, 2019). Since the human language has various roles, functions, and qualities, humans can use language correctly—several forms of language, such as sound symbols that are arbitrary but have meaning. Now we are all encouraged to seek meaning and are fascinated by the definition of a new term. We are occasionally unclear about what message we should take from what we read or hear, and we are concerned about communicating our thoughts to others. We like jokes that use many interpretations of words or ambiguities in sentences to be hilarious. Commercial businesses invest significant time and money in naming items, developing slogans, and developing essential messages to the buying public.

Linguistics is concerned with identifying the meaningful elements of specific languages, for instance, English words like [sell] and [happy] and affixes like [-er] of painter and the [un-] of unhappy. It is concerned with describing how such elements go together to express more complex meanings—the phrase (e.g., the unhappy seller) and sentence (e.g., the seller is unhappy)—telling how these are interrelated. Linguistics also deals with the meanings expressed by modulations of a speaker's voice and the process by which hearers relate new information to the information they already have (Kreidler, 1998).

Further, linguistics has two domains that are known as micro-linguistics and macro-linguistics. Micro-linguistics is a field of linguistics that narrowly studies language, the internal structure of language itself. For example, we perceive the presence of sounds, phonemes, morphemes, words, phrases, clauses, sentences, and even utterances in a language. Elements of these languages are interconnected to form a language system hierarchy, which subsequently led directly to a broader idea of language; phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics, and others (Yuniseffendri & Suhartono, 2014).

According to the field of study, phonology (a discipline that focuses on sounds' aspects), morphology (a discipline that focuses on morpheme and word formation), and syntax (a discipline that focuses on phrases, clauses, and sentences). Meanwhile, discourse is a discipline that focuses on discourse, including paragraphs and text, and semantics is a discipline that focuses on the meaning of language.

This subject focuses on studying language use in a specific context. On the other hand, macro-linguistics deals with the use of language in society. In other words, it is an interdisciplinary study that connects language to its non-linguistic factors (e.g., sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, anthropolinguistics).

Sociolinguistics is the study of language and society. Psycholinguistics is the study of language and psychology. Anthropolinguistics is the study of language and anthropology. These interdisciplinary studies lead to the subject of pragmatics. These interdisciplinary studies lead to the subject of pragmatics.

The purpose of learning linguistics is divided into two sub-sections: 1) Theoretical linguistics—a linguistic learning process that is limited only to the study of theories, and 2) Applied linguistics—more about the process of applying linguistics directly in human life, such as in language teaching, translation, dictionary preparation, and others. Those domains are connected to the learning process and its application. These practical activities are applied linguistics seeks to investigate language (Amori, 2021).

The term pragmatics as a study of language from the speaker's point of view (the choices they make, the limitations they face in using language in interactions, and the effects their use of language has on others involved in communicative acts) is helpful when considering applied linguistics. It may be stated that pragmatics analyzes what is unsaid. When dealing with various contexts, it depends on the speaker's perception of what a speaker wants to express to the hearer. Below is a list of linguistic analysis levels. We can observe the position of pragmatics through its primary unit of study.

Table 1 Linguistics Levels

#	Linguistics Analysis Level	Micro / Macro	Unit of Study
1	Phonetics	Micro-linguistics	Phone
2	Phonology	Micro-linguistics	Phoneme
3	Morphology	Micro-linguistics	Morpheme
4	Syntax	Micro-linguistics	Sentence
5	Semantics	Micro-linguistics	Lexicon and Sentence
6	Pragmatics	?	Context
7	Sociolinguistics	Macro-linguistics	Culture
8	Psycholinguistics	Macro-linguistics	Mind
9	Neurolinguistics	Macro-linguistics	Brain
10	Text Linguistics	Macro-linguistics	Text and Discourse
11	Stylistics	Macro-linguistics	Literary text
12	Anthropological Linguistics	Macro-linguistics	Unwritten languages

We can see in **Table 1** that context, as the primary unit of study in pragmatics, works better with culture, mind, brain, and so on rather than phonemes, morphemes, and phrases. Louie (2013) stated that the linguistic unit of pragmatics is larger than sentences or clauses. Mahmood emphasized that Pragmatics is not a waste of paper for semantics but rather a necessary level of study. Pragmatics might be a significant subject of macro-linguistic analysis. It contributes to the current interdisciplinary concept of linking language studies to other humanities and specialized natural disciplines (Mahmood, 2016; Yuniseffendri & Suhartono, 2014). As a result, it can be stated that pragmatics is a new discipline that is emerged from macro-linguistics. It focuses on interlinguistic domains, most notably context. Context is an active component of interlinguistics rather than an intralinguistic component.

Context is the essential factor that helps understand how people communicate and interpret intentions. It may be used to get a fuller, more profound, and more likely account of human language behavior (human interaction). However, the meaning displayed in context is not the exact definition of the semantic features of the words expressed (Siddiqui, 2018). Thus, one objective of pragmatics is to explain how participants in debate progress from decontextualized (i.e., out-of-context) interpretations of words and phrases to comprehension of their meaning in context (Al-Heeh, 2021).

Meaning and Context

"A good man in the worst sense of the word," stated Mark Twain, an American novelist, to describe a specific person. The surprising use of the word [good] with something near to the reverse of its literal meaning adds to the hilarity of this remark: Twain appears to be implying that this man is puritanical,

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self-righteous, judgmental, or possibly hypocritical. The semantic content of [good] is its essential meaning. Twain's ability to express a negative meaning results from pragmatical conclusions prompted by the odd way he uses the term. Semantics is frequently characterized as the study of meaning. Perhaps a more precise definition would be studying the link between language form and meaning. Like other parts of language structure, this connection is explicitly defined by rules. No one thinks speakers memorize every possible sentence of a language; this cannot be true because new and unique sentences are made every day and comprehended by those hearing them for the first time. Language learners gain a vocabulary (lexicon) and a set of rules for integrating vocabulary items into well-formed sentences (syntax). The same logic requires us to acknowledge that language learners must acquire the meanings of vocabulary items and a set of rules for understanding the expression created when vocabulary items are combined. The speaking community must share these components for linguistic communication to be possible. When we study semantics, we attempt to comprehend this shared set of principles that enables hearers to perceive what speakers intend to communicate (Kroeger, 2019).

Meaning and context influence one another; since people communicate principally to convey meaning, the meaning might differ by considering the context. (Johnson, 1974) argued that information provided by context and linguistic utterance are interchangeable in communication; the more information provided by context, the less necessary information. Hence, information from both context and the words themselves generates meaning at the same time. Successful communication is assured when the hearer correctly understands two contexts: the discourse context (e.g., the information included in the words) and the physical-social context (e.g., the hearer's knowledge of the speaker, the surroundings, and the circumstances). The circumstances are called the environment, persons, experience, relationship, and what they know about one another (Kreidler, 1998).

Research conducted by (Nouraldeen, 2015) examined meaning and context via three lenses: communication, teaching, and translation. The findings revealed that context is crucial in addressing meaning, while meaning plays a crucial role in constructing context. Meaning and context go hand in hand for communicators to build effective relationships with those they address. Teaching vocabulary, reading, and grammar needs teachers to pay close attention to meaning and context. For translators and interpreters, meaning and context are critical components of translation.

Pragmatics and semantics have been tightly linked to create an efficient picture of meaning in communication. Pragmatics is concerned with the meaning-making of a specific phrase and the inferred meaning of a speaker. The usual interpretation of a statement like [Are you happy now?] might relate to health. However, the hearer may perceive it as an unpleasant reaction to the hearer's misconduct (Mahmood, 2016). That is why pragmatics is recognized as a discipline that studies unsaid. It depends on the speaker's intention of what he wants to express to the hearer when dealing with various situations (Siddiqui, 2018).

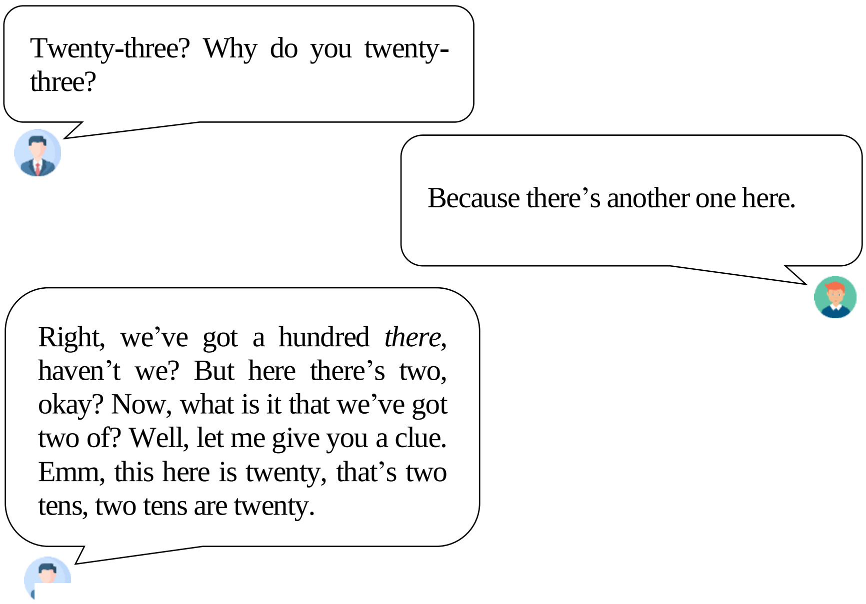
Pragmatics is the study of meaning in communication contexts. In verbal communication, speech containing conversational implicatures slides together with other speech, such as direct speech, in the flow of discussion. Speakers must process data in the form of (1) the conventional meaning of the words used and their references, if any; (2) the cooperative principle and its maxims; (3) the linguistic context; (4) background knowledge issues; and (5) the fact that there are similarities between the four participants, both the speaker and the hearer, and both can understand each other. Therefore, a speech situation that supports a speech in the conversation is required for a pragmatic analysis of speech, including conversational implicature-loaded speech (Zong & Zhen, 2021).

Moreover, "speaker meaning" refers to a speaker's means when she /he uses that word. This term emphasizes the message's sender while concealing the reality that interpreting what we hear entails switching between several levels of meaning. Assume a speaker says [I smell smoke] and uses the pronoun [I] to refer to himself, the verb "smell" in the present tense for sensory detection, and the noun "smoke" to refer to smoke, probably some nearby. Given what these words mean and how they interact to form the (linguistic) meaning of the entire sentence, the semantic content of the sentence in that context is that he (the speaker) smells smoke. It might be what he means when he says that sentence, but it could also be something else. He spoke figuratively, but he would have understood something else. He may have meant, about anything his interlocutor had just stated, that he was trying to deflect his attention away from the matter. On the other hand, he may have been speaking perfectly literally. Even yet, it is one thing for a sentence to imply something and quite another for a speaker to intend something when they say it (Bach, 2012).

In addition, the definition of utterance interpretation, which is preferred by those who adopt a broadly cognitive approach, avoids this flaw at the expense of focusing too much on the message's receiver, which in reality means neglecting the social limitations on utterance production. When we explore what is meant by levels of meaning, we can see the contrasts between the two methods. The first level is abstract meaning; from abstract meaning to contextual meaning (also known as utterance meaning), we ascribe sense or reference to a word, phrase, or sentence (Thomas, 1995).

By considering the context, vague intentions will become clear. The context is closely related to culture, which differs from one society. There are five kinds of context: The physical context, where the conversation occurs, what objects are present, and what actions are occurring. In other words, it is called situational context, the immediate physical co-presence, the setting where the encounter occurs at the time of speaking. Imagine the following situation:

An Indonesian math teacher is explaining a mathematical problem to a student named Tom:



Picture 1 Analyzing Context

The situational setting is the classroom. The lecturer and student are likely pointing to the whiteboard or a worksheet. [Here] and [there] are demonstrative adverbs expressing an equation figure. Meanwhile, [this here] is a demonstrative pronoun and adverb forcefully stating what is being concerned. Without the context, the discussion makes little sense.

Another example is two people who come into a library talking loudly. After that, someone comes to them and says: *"Excuse me, could you please speak up a bit more? I missed what you said."*

In that example, the physical context is the conversation in a library. The linguistic context is the tone of voice. Meanwhile, the social context is asking someone to be quiet in a place where people are supposed to be quiet. We can analyze it from pragmatics and semantics perspectives from that example. Semantics studies tend to study meaning independent of the context of speech. In contrast, pragmatics discusses meaning by considering the context of the utterance.

Second, the **background knowledge context**, what they know about each other and the world. This context is divided into two: **general cultural knowledge** and **interpersonal knowledge**. First, most people have broad cultural information about many aspects of life in their heads. Interlocutors can presume mutual knowledge of everything generally known by group members, provided they

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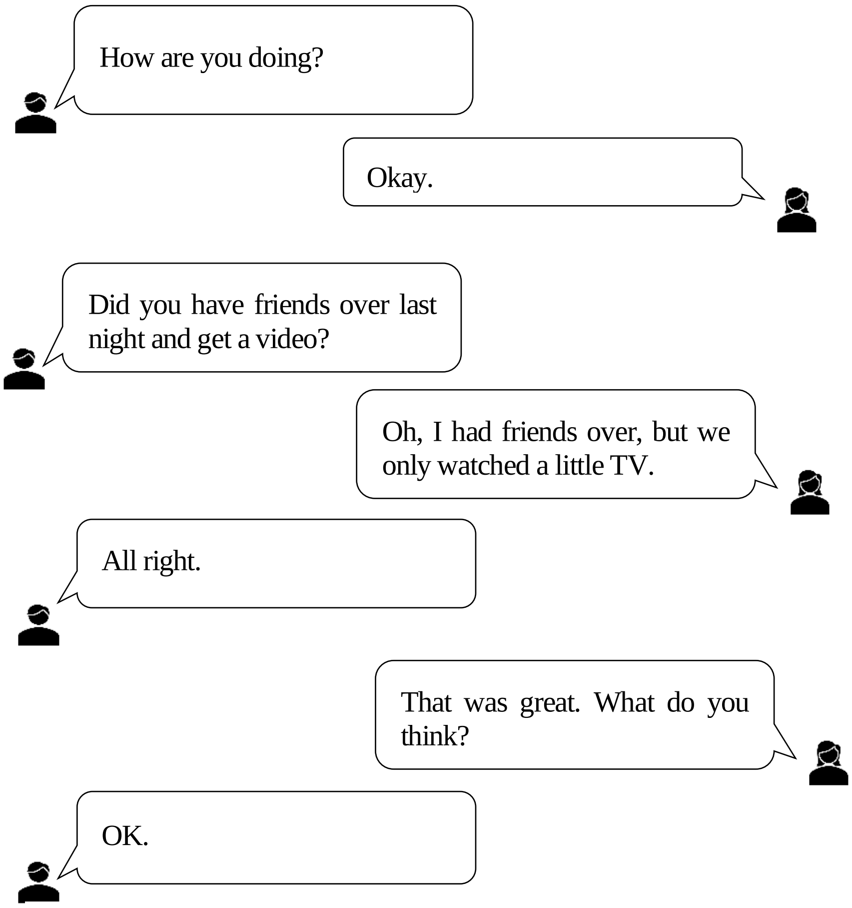
demonstrate that they are part of the same group (van der Henst & Sperber, 2004). For example, most people worldwide would comprehend a dialogue assuming they knew the stars shine at night, the sun rises at noon, and the world is round.

Additionally, the community may be limited. Besides that, interpersonal knowledge is specific and possibly personal knowledge about the speakers' history. In other words, it is knowledge acquired through previous verbal interactions or joint activities and experiences and includes personal knowledge about the interlocutor. For example, there was a US TV commercial that used the following telephone exchange—this example is adopted from (Cutting, 2002)—like this:



Picture 2 Interpersonal Knowledge

When he responds 'OK' at the end, we see a flashback in which he won a gold medal in an Olympics event. We realize that [Oh, I had friends over, but we only watched a little TV] means 'I invited friends over to watch you play on TV, and I know you will win.' The interpersonal information shared by a wife and husband is vast, so any reference to it may be vague, implicit, and limited.

Moreover, **linguistic context** (what has already been stated in the phrase). The **social context** (the social relation between speakers and hearers). The **co-textual context** (what they know about what they have been saying).

By understanding the contexts, we can interpret the implied meaning in utterance. Adopted from (Siddiqui, 2018), the **utterance** is defined as a physical and clear unit of meaning that provides information in the contribution through:

a. Words used,
b. Sentence structure,
c. The setting of the conversation within the location where it is used,

d. Senses of the start in a specific context, and
e. Use of gesture to convey meaning.

One of the essential items gathered from these sources is the context utterance, which is given background knowledge to communicate a message of information to the other sections of the dialogue, similar to any written text. Therefore, in understanding the abovementioned utterance, semantics only considers the internal factors of the language in the utterance. For instance, vocabularies relationship. In contrast, pragmatics must consider the speaker and its context (Abdurrahman, 2006).

For semantics, the above utterance only means asking the person to continue what he is saying. However, that utterance can have two meanings for pragmatics: asking the person to continue his speech and warning the person to speak quietly in that place.

From the explanation, both studies (semantics and pragmatics) have different views on understanding an utterance's meaning, but they work together complementarily. That is, the meaning of an utterance cannot only be approached from one side but must be seen semantically and pragmatically.

Pragmatics, the study of language concerning context, has the potential to negate our semantic understanding of every phrase we generate in a given situation. The study hypothesis does not restrict pragmatics' involvement in attributing meaning to utterances. However, as some linguists incorrectly assert, it frees pragmatics from the shackles of semantics. Consider the following sort of situation:

Fadlan	:	Hello, sir. I am sorry. Can I have a moment, please?
Principal	:	Hello. Yes, please come in. Luckily, you are not busy. What is the matter?
Fadlan	:	Well, sir. My name is Fadlan. My teacher asked me to interview you about cleanliness in this school environment.
Principal	:	I see. All right, what do you want to ask about cleanliness in our school environment?
Fadlan	:	First, according to you, how is our school's cleanliness condition?
Principal	:	From the outside, our school environment can be said to be relatively clean. However, if you look deeper, our school's cleanliness is lacking. You can see this from the still dirty student toilets and the large amount of trash used for student snacks scattered in almost every corner of the school.
Fadlan	:	In your opinion, what is the cause of our dirty school environment? So, what will you do to reduce the dirtiness in our school?
Principal	:	In my opinion, our school environment is dirty because there are still many students who are not disciplined in terms of cleanliness, so almost every corner of the school must be dirty. It, of course, overwhelmed the school staff in cleaning the dirty corners of the school. The number of cleaning services in our school is still limited.
Fadlan	:	Ok, sir. I will finish this interview here. Thank you for agreeing to be interviewed.
Principal	:	You are welcome, Fadlan.

The example showed that the principal expresses semantically in the exchange that those responsible for school cleanliness are not simply school cleaning services. However, the critical point is that students maintain school cleanliness. Thus, the meaning pragmatically is conveyed that the principal advises children to live cleanly at school. Meaning and context are intrinsically linked, meaning cannot be transmitted without context, and context cannot be formed without meaning.

Importance of Pragmatics

Pragmatics is necessary for achieving communicative competence. People cannot comprehend the nature of a language until they comprehend its use in communication (Sudaryanto, 1988). It is also difficult to

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conceive of many human activities that do not require some form of communication. We converse with friends and strangers, at work and play, in public and private. We express our knowledge, ignorance, anger, joy, needs, and desires. Language use in communication must be tailored to the target language's culture. For instance, how to show gratitude in English (Sanulita, 2019).

What kind of language or what level of language does pragmatics imply? The answer concerns expression at the utterance level, which can vary from a single word (e.g., Oh!) as a reaction to dismay or happy surprise to a long lecture (e.g., a heated political debate). What matters is the communicative function of the speech in contact with others, hence pragmatics functions at the meaning level (and how others understand those meanings) (Koike, 2010).

There are four domains of pragmatics. According to Yule (1996), pragmatics focuses on the utterances' meaning delivered by a speaker and perceived by a hearer. The utterance refers to the language unit beyond the sentence that represents specific speech acts, such as hedging, hybrids, or oratio obliqua, which represents the directive action (Suhartono, 2020). The speaker's utterance adds to how the hearer is directed in recovering what is conveyed, not what is conveyed. Pragmatics explores how hearers derive meaning from what is said, which is relevant to the next point. It examines how much of what is implied (or unsaid) is accepted as part of the message.

Pragmatics studies how more information is transferred than is explicitly expressed (Glanzberg, 2005). It concerns understanding what people mean in a given scenario and how the environment influences what they say. In other words, pragmatics attempts to see the link between language forms and their use in natural settings. It demands thinking about how speakers arrange what they plan to say when it occurs, where it takes place, and under what circumstances. Furthermore, the role of pragmatics is to promote cooperative principles and politeness in the communication process, allowing the communication goal to be achieved efficiently.

Order to understand how pragmatics work is a message that the speaker wishes to transmit to the hearers. Imagine the following situations:

Situation 1	:	On a spring day, you invite your friend to brunch at your home. She is one of your best friends who has often visited your home before. However, suddenly, your friend says, "It is hot here."
The interpretation	:	Turn on the air conditioning.
Situation 2	:	After brunch, you must go to campus and visit the library. When you are in the library, your friend says, "It is hot here. Do you have the same readings?"
The interpretation	:	If we have the same readings, it is better to go somewhere that is not hot.

We can see the difference between both situations. In situation 1, your friend knows you have air conditioning (AC), but the AC has not been turned on. Pragmatically, you have mutual knowledge like her, and you know that she asks you to turn it on. Meanwhile, in situation 2, those people have similar readings, and the condition is hot there, so it can be called that it is just an expression of solidarity.

From the preceding example, pragmatics emphasizes multidisciplinary studies of language and context (outside of language). It analyzes language from a functional standpoint. Understanding the language's nature must be applied to challenges outside of the language or within a larger data perspective, including how language is utilized in communication. Thus, pragmatics deals with the relationship between language's structure and its principles. With this pragmatic research, meaning supported by language is meaning in the context of its use.

On top of that, a hearer has, in principle, access to an enormous amount of background information. In principle, any of this could be used to interpret an utterance. However, hearers do not interpret utterances in just any context. Indeed, communication can succeed if the members of the same society or cultural group share a common framework of beliefs and assumptions.

However, the differences always lead to the difference in the memorized events and interpretations of the same events. The only way to guarantee successful communication is called mutual knowledge. A speaker and hearers can guarantee that they have mutual knowledge only if they have access to the contents of each other's memory. Successful daily communication suggests that speakers and hearers do not aim to establish mutual knowledge before they proceed but make all sorts of assumptions and guesses.

An understanding of pragmatics requires considering the principles of language use proposed by Lyons (1977) cited in (Levinson, 1983), namely, that language users must have:

1) Knowledge of the role and status, including speaker, hearers, and relative position of each role;
2) Knowledge of the event area, including place and time;
3) Knowledge of speech event's formality;
4) Knowledge of the educational method, which means verbal or written, severely or delicately;
5) Knowledge of the subject matter presented in connecting to language use, and
6) Knowledge of the "province" suitability or registers' determination.

Furthermore, the language used must be connected to the circumstance and context variables that accompany a speech event, in addition to mastering the precision of grammatical use of language (prioritizing the form of language solely). It is because circumstance and context variables are significant in conveying the meaning of a speech. As a result, the same form may have multiple meanings when employed in different situations and settings.

So, how do we know we are working with pragmatics rather than semantics? Because pragmatics investigates meaning concerning speech circumstances, this question is unavoidable. Pragmatics differs from semantics. It concerns the meaning and a speech situation (Leech, 1983). Leech stated various characteristics of the speech situation, including:

1) The addressee and receiver;
2) The context;
3) The aims;
4) The illocutionary act; and
5) The utterance (illocutionary force). It involves all of these elements, including the time and location of the speech.

Hence, learning to pay attention to language use will be driven by pragmatic awareness. We know that communication does not always go well. Sometimes, the speaker's message is not well received by the hearers, which can lead to misunderstandings between the communication participants. Because the function of meaning interpretation between the speaker and the hearers is not absolute, knowledge of the produced meaning must be contextual. A lack of context comprehension can lead to communication failure and incorrect message delivery (Sanulita, 2019).

The form of pragmatic failure seen in the resulting speech does not comply with the acceptance standards applicable to the context of the speech. Pragmatic competence is categorized into illocutionary and sociolinguistic (Santoso, 2013).

Illocutionary competence means knowledge of communication actions and how to do them. The other one is sociolinguistic competence, which means the capacity to use language effectively concerning the existing environment.

In addition, pragmatics is not only a multidiscipline (which may be associated with semantics or syntax) but also an ability to utilize language based on the deciding aspects of a communication act. Speakers must have communicative competence to understand a communicative act. Communicative competence means using language in a specific context and an environment of spontaneous transactions (Rivers, 1973). Unlike Rivers, Hymes (1972) believes that communicative competence comprises not only the choice of linguistic form but also the social rules, meaning knowledge of when, how, and to whom a suitable expression is appropriate. Thus, communicative competence encompasses constructing and selecting language forms and connecting them to social language regulations.

Teaching Pragmatics

Pragmatics is a source of abnormalities that are not susceptible to systematic linguistic description. Studying pragmatics is essential to comprehend human language. Dell Hyme (1971), as cited in (Meyer, 2009), proposed that human communication requires knowledge of how to build language structures and how to employ these structures in specific communicative settings. Its use among speakers in different social contexts requires more than simply (knowing the rules). To understand this viewpoint, consider the experience of studying a foreign language in a classroom, traveling to a country where the language is spoken, and discovering how little he or she truly knows about the language.

Therefore, pragmatics education is also concerned with socially situated language use. In a worldwide society, pragmatic education is required and essential. (Thomas, 1995) stated that pragmatic competence entails two knowledge dimensions:

1. Pragmalinguistics is knowledge of linguistic forms for performing a communicative function.
2. Socio-pragmatics is knowledge of contextual features, interaction norms, and social conventions associated with a communicative situation.

Pragmatic studies emphasized appropriateness in intercultural communications. English speakers' intercultural communication ability should be improved by mastering pragmatics. Their Pragmatic Competence would improve since they would be aware of cultural variations and their relevance in suitable languages. In other words, teaching and studying pragmatics would alleviate the challenges of both native and non-native speakers in international communication (Chin Lin, 2007).

In addition, pragmatic competence progresses to the ability to comprehend and assemble expressions that are right and appropriate to the societal and civilizing state of affairs in which information is exchanged through speaking. Pragmatics competency should be a primary goal for individuals who work as ESL (English as a Second Language) instructors, as this is a challenging assignment (Mugheri et al., 2018).

The interpretation of illocutionary force involves meaning as a way of processing meaning when individuals engage in language. From a pragmalinguistic viewpoint, it contributes to the search for reference and meaning. In addition, research by Al-Heeh (2021), a socio-pragmatic approach can help discover adjacent, converted, inserted, dis-preferred, and solidarity routines in discourse analysis.

Saadatmandi, Khiabani, and Pourdana (2018) investigated the effects of teaching English pragmatic elements on the use of the request speech act by Iranian high school students. The study included female Iranian high school students aged 12 to 18. The pragmatic elements were chosen from high school English textbooks, while the passages were obtained from the TopNotch series (2A, 3A, 2B). The control group got standard instructions, but the experimental group was subjected to the researchers' request for speech act interventions. The research demonstrated that teaching pragmatic elements influences the performance of Iranian high school students on request speech acts considerably. Furthermore, the experimental group's overall replies revealed that indirect request speech acts were more commonly used to symbolize social and cultural courtesy than direct request speech acts.

Pérez-Hernández (2021) also researched "Teaching Directive Speech Acts: Is There Room for Improvement?" She stressed the need to learn to perform accurately directed speech acts in a second or foreign language. Speech acts are rich, and their use entails juggling many social, interactional, and contextual variables at the same time: the relative power of the speakers, their social closeness, the formality of the situation, the cost-benefit of the action being requested, and others. These are only a few aspects that a speaker must consider if she wants to create a contextually and socially appropriate speech act that can succeed.

Furthermore, directed speech acts do not have a distinct grammatical form. In the creation of speech acts, the system of alternatives provided by language is lavishly used, with each instruction exhibiting a vast array of possible linguistic realizations. Some are nearly equivalent (for example, If you do not mind, may you kindly open the window? - Would you mind opening the window if it is not too much trouble?). The richness and diversity of forms and linguistic realizations involved in the formation of each directed speech act are intriguing and a reflection of language's creativity, flexibility, and communication power.

Because of their conceptual complexity and formal richness, studying directed speech acts is difficult, demanding, and frequently exhausting for foreign language students.

Nonetheless, the capacity to appropriately execute and comprehend speech acts is a necessary skill for mastering a second language. As a result, illocution has become an essential part of language teaching. Shortly after the development of speech act theory, textbooks for teaching English as a foreign (or second) language (EFL) began to include sections devoted to the instruction of speech acts.

The Role of Pragmatics in Linguistics Research

Several studies have shown that a pragmatic approach helps analyze specific contextual texts to enhance communicative skills. The pragmatic approach is the study of language based on time, place, and conditioned environment, and the pragmatic notions in communication interaction include meaning, context, and communication (Grice, 1957). In other words, it applies a set of sociolinguistic norms about language in a communication setting. Based on the Longman Dictionary of Applied Linguistics, pragmatics is defined as the study of (a) how the interpretation and use of utterances are affected by knowledge of the actual world; and how the interpretation and use of utterances are affected by knowledge of the natural world, (b) how speakers employ and comprehend speech acts, and (c) how the interaction between the speaker and the hearer influences sentence form (Felemban, 2011). Take a look at the following examples:

Ex.1 "I used it for paying dues, Dad."

In example 1, it can be identified using illocutionary acts, cooperative principles, politeness, conversational implicature, presupposition, and deixis. However, we should note three things to analyze specific data, such as in (1). First, in language practice, there is a fact that data have its characteristics, and it can be studied through several theories. Second, a theory controls the data, which will be collected according to theoretical needs. On the other hand, the data appears to be limited if a theory is raised first. Its characteristics are similar to the needs of the theory. Third, another theory is not needed to analyze the specified data. For instance, to analyze data as in (2) by using an illocutionary act, so the focus is on the speech acts, or using cooperative principle and focused on the maxims‘ use. Both theories cannot be combined because the focus is different. In the form of conversation, the analysis of pragmatics can also be done, as in the following example:

Ex. 2	Buyer	:	Sir, how much is 1 kg of beef?
	Seller	:	It is now Rp. 130,000 per kg, ma'am.
	Buyer	:	Wow, the price has risen, sir.
	Seller	:	Yes, ma'am.
	Buyer	:	Can I get Rp. 60,000 for a half kg? OK, sir?
	Seller	:	No, ma'am, I cannot give you Rp. 60,000.
	Buyer	:	How about Rp. 65,000 for a half kg?
	Seller	:	All right, ma'am. A half kg, right?
	Buyer	:	Yes, sir. The amount is Rp. 65,000. Thank you so much.
	Seller	:	Here you have it, ma'am. Thank you.

From example 2, it can be seen that every transaction dialogue conveys meanings of speech act, cooperative, politeness, conversational implicature, presupposition, and deixis, whose meaning can be analyzed in depth. The agreement between the seller and buyer is one example of the cooperative principle. The analysis of locution from the conversation, the utterance from the buyer, asking the price of the beef [Sir, how much is 1 kg of beef?] is the example of locution with the open interrogative.

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Pragmatics plays a significant role in language training, particularly language teaching, that leads to communication skills. On the other hand, several studies have employed pragmatic approaches to help scholars investigate a text's implicit meaning and how context influences meaning. Different communicative styles and social interaction norms are described here as universal (language and culture-independent), understandable, and accessible for children and second-language learners (e.g., immigrants) with limited English knowledge.

It is expected that the type of simple metalanguage to investigate different modes of human interaction. Different interactive strategies associated with different languages can be used not only as a tool for investigating linguistic interaction in different cultural settings but also as a foundation for teaching it, particularly as a foundation for successful cross-cultural communication (Wierzbicka, 2003).

Sanulita (2019) researched the benefit of a pragmatic approach to enhancing the cross-cultural understanding of language learners. She found that teachers can design an assignment in the form of analytical discussions between teachers and the students by considering the text to support the cultural focus that will be discussed, or they can create their text to achieve learning objectives. It has been emphasized by Sudaryanto (1988), who examined pragmatics in Indonesian language teaching and found that pragmatic instruction should be focused on speech act theory, precisely the perlocutionary act. It will make communication easy and avoid misunderstandings between the two persons participating in the conversation.

On the other hand, utilizing naturally occurring, longer language samples as data is one defining feature of pragmatics study. Language samples are frequently taken from daily circumstances, such as dinner table conversations, business talks, or conflicts between a landlord and a drunken tenant. In other words, the data are not created by the analyst and are made up of many utterances. Furthermore, the researcher does not optimally elicit data; the interactants are not urged or asked questions to discuss a particular issue. Elicited data sets are eschewed in favor of more natural, unmonitored speech samples. Conversational interactions in which no researcher agenda influences or constrains the dialogue are ideal. Researchers update their study ideas and employ various strategies to collect additional types of data (LoCastro, 2012).

You can discover any such examples of pragmatic studies that researchers have conducted. You will understand what data they utilize, how they analyze it, and how the results of their investigations are presented. These are depicted in the table below:

Felemban (2011) examined the dramatic text Lady Windermere's Fan using Leech's Cooperative Principle and associated maxims. The pragmatic approach is suggested for teaching dramatic texts (dialogues) since it assists students in determining the intended meanings of characters' utterances, hence eliminating irrelevant interpretations. It also assists students in gaining a deeper grasp of literary materials in general and theatrical writings in particular.

Meanwhile, (Al-Ghamdi et al., 2019) explored the probability of pragmatic failure in Yemeni EFL university students' L2 output. It focuses on the L1 negative pragmatic transfer in the speech act of responding to praises in particular. The study's participants include thirty Yemeni English learners representing the target group, thirty Yemeni Arabic native speakers, and thirty American English native speakers. The findings demonstrated that pragmatic failure is prevalent in learners' L2 production. The L1 negative pragmatic transfer occurred in the responses [Comment Acceptance], [Comment History], [Praise Upgrade], [Return], [No Acknowledgement], [Offer], [Promise], and [Wish]. They account for roughly half of the learners' answer utterances. In addition, the learners had a good propensity to assimilate their L2 norms in the realization of complement answers in half of their response utterances.

Furthermore, Schauer (2019) investigated teaching politeness in EFL classes. Because politeness is transmitted and processed in culturally particular ways, non-native speakers must learn and practice managing the politeness standards of a particular target community. Teaching pragmatics in general, and politeness in particular, should be introduced at earlier stages of language acquisition, and propose that politeness should be taught via a speech act method. Because they organize utterances according to their function and allow teachers to examine alternative possibilities for the same function, speech acts provide a suitable basis for teaching politeness. EFL young learners must understand which norms and conventions from their first language they can transfer to EnglishMoreover, and what linguistic forms or routines they can use for these language functions. For example, thanking someone for information or a favor or apologizing when causing someone harm.

In brief, learning pragmatics is about more than just grammar; it is also about how well an utterance fits into its sociocultural environment. However, teaching language along with culture, on the other hand, appears to be problematic because it is relatively difficult to choose which aspects of culture to teach, what content to include, and how to represent cultures implicitly under study, which present differences from the norm of students' local culture.

As a result, this study investigates the fundamental concerns of spoken discourse, pragmatics, cross-cultural pragmatics, pragmatic failure, pragmatic awareness, and its implications for pedagogy (Pamungkas & Wulandari, 2020). As a result, pragmatics must be included in language instruction (Santoso, 2013). There are two reasons why studying pragmatics is beneficial: (1) it helps learners notice the social and interpersonal characteristics of a speech event so they can produce an acceptance speech, and (2) it helps learners avoid pragmatic failure during communication.

Summary

Macro-linguistics deals with the use of language in society. Pragmatics refers to language study from the speaker's point of view. Pragmatics is a new discipline that is emerged from macro-linguistics, which focuses on interlinguistic domains, most notably context. Context is the essential factor that helps understand how people communicate. It may be used to get a fuller and more profound human language behavior.

The utterance is defined as a physical and clear unit of meaning that provides information in the contribution through; a) words used, b) sentence structure, c) setting of the conversation within the location where it is used, d) senses of the start in a specific context, and e) use of gesture to convey meaning.

Pragmatics is concerned with expression at the utterance level, which can vary from a single word. It focuses on the utterances delivered by a speaker and perceived by a hearer in terms of the speaker's meaning. What matters is the communicative function of the speech in contact with others, hence pragmatics functions at the meaning level. Limitations of pragmatics study consist of four: utterance, meaning, language forms, and context.

Pragmatics studies how more information is transferred than is explicitly expressed. The speaker's utterance adds to how the hearer is directed in recovering what is conveyed. The utterance refers to the representing unit of particular speech acts, such as hedged hybrids, representing the directive action.

English speakers' intercultural communication ability should be improved by mastering pragmatics. Teaching and studying pragmatic competence would alleviate the challenges of both native and non-native speakers in international communication. Pragmatics competency should be a primary goal for individuals who work as English as a Second Language (ESL) instructors. Illocution has become essential in language teaching in English as a foreign language (EFL). The richness and diversity of forms and linguistic realizations involved in the formation of each directed speech act are intriguing.

Understanding Task

Exercise 1. The list of questions below only needs a short answer. Please answer it correctly.

1. Linguistics, which emphasizes the study of internal language features, is known as the study of
   Answer : ……………………………………………………………………………………….
2. The area of macro-linguistics is concerned with
   Answer : ……………………………………………………………………………………….
3. The aim of the research is interdisciplinary studies that link language with other areas
   Answer : ……………………………………………………………………………………….
4. Pragmatics is one of the …… disciplines
   Answer : ……………………………………………………………………………………….

Exercise 2. Please answer the questions based on your understanding. Put your answers inside the box.

1. Are there any distinguishing features of the new area of linguistics known as pragmatics? These are part of the functional paradigm, but pragmatics differs from semantics, syntax, and sociolinguistics. In your opinion, what are the fundamental differences between these fields? Provide enough explanation and justification!
2. Because they both deal with meaning, pragmatics and semantics have something in common. In semantics, meaning is context-free, but in pragmatics, meaning is context-bound. Can you provide real examples to demonstrate the context-free and context-bound meaning phenomena? Which is more difficult to comprehend? Why?
3. A speaker and hearers can guarantee that they have mutual knowledge only if they have access to the contents of each other's memory. In your opinion, why is mutual knowledge essential in communication?
4. Look for case studies that might help you clarify the link between pragmatics and other language disciplines! (Hint: This question is relevant.) You are looking for scenarios that are similar to these examples based on your everyday experience/knowledge)
5. In your opinion, what is the importance of pragmatics in ELT (English Language Teaching)?

Put your answer here.

1. ………………………………………………………………………………………………
   ………………………………………………………………………………………………
2. ………………………………………………………………………………………………
   ………………………………………………………………………………………………
3. ………………………………………………………………………………………………
4. ………………………………………………………………………………………………
   ………………………………………………………………………………………………
5. ………………………………………………………………………………………………

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Exercise 3. The following utterances potentially have two or more meanings according to the context. Please identify the context of these utterances. There are three contexts: physical, linguistic, and social.

1. *Udah sholat, nak?*
2. *Kayaknya makan pizza enak nih.*
3. *Jika kamu butuh, beli saja.*
4. I think the doctor has forbidden you to eat sweets.
5. The weather is so hot in this room.
6. Read the conversation below:

Receptionist	:	Hello, dr. Wong's office. To whom am I speaking?
Mr Budi	:	Hello. I want to make an appointment with drg. Wong. Can I meet him today, or should I meet another day?
Receptionist	:	Sorry, dr. Wong is very busy today, but I can schedule his meeting for another day.
Mr Budi	:	Thank you.
Receptionist	:	Could you please state your name and contact number? So that I can remind you of the meeting schedule.
Mr Budi	:	Oh yes, my name is B-U-D-I.
Receptionist	:	Okay. What date do you want to see the doctor?
Mr Budi	:	As soon as possible, tomorrow at lunchtime or after 5 pm.
Receptionist	:	Fine. I will keep the schedule to see the doctor at noon.
Mr Budi	:	Fine. Thank you.
Receptionist	:	You are welcome.

Answer:

- Based on the physical context, this utterance means

  ………………………………………………………………………………………………..
- Based on the linguistic context, this utterance means

  ………………………………………………………………………………………………..
- Based on the social context, this utterance means

  ………………………………………………………………………………………………..

Exercise 4. Read the instruction below and answer the following questions.

It has been discovered that pragmatics has synergized with various domains to generate new scientific disciplines that are interdisciplinary, multidisciplinary, and transdisciplinary. Please find the current journal article, either local or global, about pragmatics development, then answer these questions:

1. What is the title?
2. Who is/are the author(s)?
3. What is the scope of the article?
4. How are the findings? Please explain it.

Exercise 5. Consider the following dialogue between two distant buddies, then read the following instruction:

Budi : *Lokasi sesuai ya?* (Is it the right location?)

Fahri : *Meluncur!* (Go!)

Budi : *Di stasiun ya!* (At the railway station!)

Explain the significance of the dialogue based on the context! The core of the dialogue is that Budi is committed to finding a way to approach Fahri. They decided to meet at the train station to travel to their destination together!

a. Budi's utterance "*lokasi sesuai ya*" means that...
b. Fahri's statement "*meluncur*" means that...
c. Budi's remark "*di stasiun ya*" means that...

Exercise 6. Consider each of the following assertions. Determine the word meaning of "go" in each case and the context in which the remark would be made.

- Go ahead and take another cookie.
- Go to a movie tonight.
- Go left on Wall Street.
- Go as slowly as you can.
- Go in peace.
- Go! Go! Go!

Source: adapted from Crowley and Houts-Smith (2010)

Chapter 1

Reference, Deixis, and Speech Acts

1.1. Reference

Reference is defined as using words to refer to items in the context. In other words, reference is used to assist the hearer in identifying something. However, the pragmatic definition of reference attributes the act of referring to speakers. Speakers relate to things through expressions rather than words (LoCastro, 2012). In addition, we must distinguish between the sense and reference of a referring expression, where the sense is the literal semantic meaning of the statement, and the reference is what the speaker means to refer to or select by using that term. Sense is invariant, contextual circumstances influence reference, and sense is semantic, whereas reference is pragmatic (Birner, 2013).

To help the hearer identify the referred entity, using the referent (Cutting, 2002; Yule, 1996). An expression that may refer to something on some occasion of utterance is known as referring expression.

However, there are several ways in which a speaker might be considered to refer, and hence numerous types of referring expressions. A speaker, for example, may refer to a person (singular reference) or a group of individuals (general reference). He may refer to a specific person or group of people (definite reference), or he may not have a specific referent in mind (undefined reference). In this part, we will focus on what may be considered the most fundamental type of reference – singular definite reference. It implies that we will be dealing with the interpretation of specific descriptions. Take a look at the following table:

Table 2: Referring Expression

The referring expressions	**Example**
Proper nouns	• *Hejin* washed dishes. • *Tom* watered your plant.
Noun phrases	• *The dishes* need to be washed. • I watered *your plant*.
Pronouns	• *He* is here. • *She* is the girl.
Those pronouns that function as a deictic expression	• Take *this* • *That* needs watering.

According to Birner (2013), a referring expression is a language construct used by the speaker to help the addressee identify an entity in the world. Although the referring expressions in Table 2 may be adequate for practical reference, precise descriptions are not frequently used referentially. Referring expressions have a broad range of subclasses, and the category's overall limits are unclear.

Most referring expressions are noun phrases of different kinds (including proper nouns and pronouns). In [*Put the lunchmeat over there*], one may argue that the word [there] works as a prepositional phrase yet has a specific place as a referent.

The speaker's intentions and beliefs about language use are then linked to reference. To make a successful reference, we must also acknowledge the function of inference, which refers to decoding a speech's pragmatic meaning. If reference is done by speakers and is dependent on their objective, the inference is the duty of listeners to identify the link between expressed entities and the words (Yule, 1996). The inference is a meaningful conclusion. It is the abstract of speech that is formed without context. The relationship between the conclusion and the abstracted speech is called the causality connection: cause and effect. The connection's nature can be utilized as a test instrument to determine speech inference.

Reference and inference are a notion that describes how meanings are presented by speakers through language phrases and then inferred by hearers. The terms employed to convey meaning do not always directly identify the item to which they relate. The combined knowledge of the speaker and hearer and all members of society heavily impacts these meanings. These terms also have several aspects highlighted in the scope of reference and inference, which are as follows:

1.1.1. Attributive and Referential Uses

Attributive use refers to "what or who with the appropriate description." However, referential use refers to "the use of explicit references or, at least, it is clearly shown in the speaker's mind" (Suhartono, 2020). It is essential to recognize that not all referring expressions have identifiable physical referents. Indefinite noun phrases can identify a physically present entity, as in (3a).

However, they can also describe entities that are assumed to exist but are unknown, as in (3b), or entities that, as far as we know, do not exist (3c).

Ex. 3 a. A man is waiting for you.

b. He wants to marry a woman with lots of money.

c. We would love to find a nine-foot-tall basketball player.

The expression in (3b), [a woman with lots of money], can designate an entity known to the speaker only in terms of its descriptive properties. In this case, the word 'a' could be replaced by [any]. It is sometimes called an attributive use, meaning [who/whatever fits the description]. It would be distinct from a referential use whereby I have a person in mind. Instead of using her name or some other description, I chose the expression in (3b), perhaps because I think you would be more interested in hearing that this woman has much more money than her name.

A similar distinction can be found with definite noun phrases. During a news report on a mysterious death, the reporter may say (4) without knowing for sure if there is a person who could be the referent of the definite expression [the killer]. It would be an attributive use (i.e., whoever made the killing) based on the speaker's assumption that a referent must exist.

Ex. 4 There was no sign of the killer.

However, if a particular individual had been identified as having made the killing and had been chased into a building but escaped, then uttering the sentence in (4) about that individual would be a referential use. It is based on the speaker's knowledge that a referent does exist.

The point of this distinction is that expressions themselves cannot be treated as having reference (as if often assumed in semantic treatments) but are or are not 'invested' with referential function in a context by a speaker. Speakers often invite us to assume, via attributive uses, that we can identify what they are talking about, even when the entity or individual described may not exist, as in (3c).

Ex. 5	Marketing	:	Hello, my name is Daniel, and I work for May Bank. I would like to use this opportunity to offer May Insurance products that will benefit your company.
	Customer	:	Sure, go ahead, but do not take too long since I have a meeting in half an hour.
	Marketing	:	OK, sir. Here, we want to enlighten you about the benefits of our insurance products, which have low premium rates and are ideal for MSME players like you in protecting your business and assets
	Customer	:	Can you tell me more about the product? Allow me to learn more later.
	Marketing	:	OK, sir, we will send you detailed information on insurance by email or WhatsApp. May I?

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Customer	:	Okay, send it to my email address, and I will check it later.
Marketing	:	OK, sir, I will attempt to summarize the benefits. We have acquired AAUI accreditation and provide Guaranteed Delivery of Goods, Risk Protection, and Compensation for your company.
Customer	:	I am intrigued to decide after reading the details. I have to schedule the next meeting.
Marketing	:	Thank you for taking the time to visit us.

From the conversation in (5) spoken by the marketing officer, [I would like to use this opportunity to offer May Insurance products that will benefit your company], the referential meaning that emerges from the conversation is obvious the business being run by the other person. Because the insurance offered is very suitable for the current business, several supporting utterances support it at the end of the conversation.

1.1.2. Names and Referents

There is a convention that specific referring expressions will regularly identify specific entities. Our daily experience of the successful operation of this convention may cause us to assume that referring expressions can only designate particular entities. This assumption may lead us to think that a name (proper noun) can only be used to identify one specific person, and an expression containing a common noun can only be used to identify a specific thing. This belief is mistaken. A genuinely pragmatic view of reference allows us to see how a person can be identified via the expression, and a thing can be identified via the name. For instance, it would not be strange for one student to ask another the question in (6a) and receive the reply in (6b).

Ex. 6 a. Can I borrow your Yule?

b. Yeah, it is over there on the bed.

Given the context created, the intended referent and the inferred referent would not be a person but probably a book (notice the pronoun 'it'). The Yule example suggests a conventional (and potentially culture-specific) set of entities that can be identified using an author's name. Let us call them things the writer produced. This convention does not only apply to writers but also to many other producers of objects.

There appears to be a pragmatic connection between proper names and objects that will be conventionally associated with those names within a socio-culturally defined community. Using a proper name referentially to identify any such object invites the hearer to make the expected inference and thereby show him/herself to be a member of the same community as the speaker. In such cases, it is rather apparent that more is being communicated than is said.

Ex. 7 a. England wins Europe Cup.

b. China wins the first round of trade talks.

The reference interpretation just described allows readers to make sense of newspaper headlines using names of countries, as exemplified in (7a), where the referent is to be understood as a soccer team, not as a government. In example (7b), it should be understood as a government, not a soccer team.

Ex. 8	Mr Robert	:	"Good afternoon."
	Receptionist	:	"Afternoon. Is there anything we can help you with?"
	Mr Robert	:	"I am Robert from 77A room. I want to file a complaint regarding the hotel room. The AC in our room did not work."
	Receptionist	:	"Sorry for the incident, Mr. Robert. Our officers will check it soon."
	Mr Robert	:	"Please follow up immediately because the air here is very hot,"
	Receptionist	:	"Okay, we will check it soon. If the air conditioner in the room takes a long time to repair, we offer another room with better facilities. Don't you mind?"

Mr Robert	:	"If so, of course, you do not mind. Thank you."
Receptionist	:	"You are welcome."

The conversation in (8) shows a dialogue between the receptionist and the hotel's guest. The guest's name is "Mr. Robert" because the guest introduces the name before complaint the room. After he mentioned his name, the receptionist immediately changed the nickname to Mr. Robert.

1.1.3. Co-text

The referring expression provides a range of references, that is, several possible referents. In the preceding examples, our ability to identify intended referents has depended on more than our understanding of the referring expression. It has been aided by the linguistic material (or co-text) accompanying the referring expression.

When (7a) appeared as a headline, 'England' was a referring expression, and 'wins Europe Cup' was part of the co-text. The rest of the newspaper was more co-text because it limits our possible interpretations for a word like 'England.' It is consequently misleading to think of reference being understood solely in terms of our ability to identify referents via the referring expression.

Co-text is concerned with the contextual context of the text itself (Cutting, 2002). In other words, it is a linguistic component of the environment that contains a referring statement. The context (or physical surroundings) may be more immediately recognized as strongly influencing how referring statements are construed.

Reference, then, is not simply a relationship between the meaning of a word or phrase and an object or person in the world. It is a social act in which the speaker assumes that the word or phrase chosen to identify an object or person will be interpreted as the speaker intended.

Ex. 9	Hari	:	"Hey, Deni. Where are you going?"
	Deni	:	"I want to go to the mall with my friends,"
	Hari	:	"Hey, is there not a COVID-19 pandemic right now? Isn't corona over? Aren't you worried about catching the virus?"
	Deni	:	"Yes, I was worried. Only, I was looking for something at the mall for my sister's needs. Indeed, COVID-19 cases are on the rise again, right?"
	Hari	:	"Yes, Deni. Now there is a variant of the Omicron virus. It looks like the COVID-19 pandemic is not over yet."
	Deni	:	"Well, you must be more careful when traveling, okay?"
	Hari	:	"Yeah, keep wearing the mask and wash your hands, OK."
	Deni	:	"Sure! Yes, Thank you!"
	Hari		"You are welcome. I hope you are always healthy, okay?"
	Deni		"Agreed."

Example 9 conveyed shows a broader meaning of the co-text. The words [COVID-19] and [Corona] referred to [there is a variant of the Omicron virus]. Thus, the meaning is getting clearer towards one type of variant.

1.1.4. Anaphoric, Cataphoric, and Exophoric Reference

When we talk or write, we frequently allude to items that have been discussed, have not yet been addressed, or were mentioned in another context or at a different period.

A. **Anaphoric**—Most of our discussions and writing need us to keep track of who or what we are talking about for more than one sentence at a time. The anaphoric reference occurs when a word or phrase alludes to something mentioned before in the conversation (or anaphora). Consider the following example:

In the film, a man and woman try to wash a cat. The man was holding the cat while the woman poured water on it. He said something to her, and they started laughing.

In English, the initial reference is often indefinite (a man, a woman, a cat). The definite noun phrases (e.g., the man, the cat, the woman) and the pronouns (it, he, her, they) are examples of subsequent reference to already introduced referents, generally known as anaphora. In technical terms, the subsequent expression is the anaphor, and the initial expression is the antecedent.

It is tempting to think of anaphora as continuing to identify the same entity as denoted by the antecedent. In many cases, that assumption makes little difference to the interpretation, but in those cases where some change or effect is described, the anaphora must be interpreted differently. Look at the following example:

Wash and cut two broccoli. Please put them in hot, salted water.

From a recipe, the antecedent 'two broccoli identifies something different from the anaphora pronoun 'them,' which must be interpreted as 'the two washed and cut broccoli. There is also a reversal of the antecedent-anaphor pattern sometimes found at the beginning of stories. For example:

I turned the corner and almost stepped on it. There was a giant snake in the middle of the path.

Note that the pronoun 'it' is used first and is difficult to interpret until the entire noun phrase is presented in the following line. This pattern is technically known as cataphora and is much less common than anaphora.

There is a range of expressions that are used for anaphora in English. The most typical forms are pronouns, such as 'it' in (a), but definite noun phrases are also used, as in (b).

a. *Peel a potato and slice it.*
b. *Drop the slices into cold salted water.*
c. *Wash for five minutes.*

When the interpretation requires us to identify an entity, as in (c), and no linguistic expression is present, it is called ellipsis (or zero anaphora). Using ellipsis to maintain reference creates an expectation that the hearer can infer who or what the speaker intends to identify. It is also another clear case of more being communicated than is said.

The hearer is also expected to make more specific inferences when the anaphora does not seem linguistically connected to their antecedents. This point was noted in the following example.

a. *I just rented a house. The kitchen is really big.*
b. *We had Chardonnay with dinner. The caviar was the best part.*
c. *The bus came on time, but he did not stop.*

As pointed out previously, the successful reference does not depend on some strictly literal or grammatically 'correct' relationship between the properties of the referent and referring expression chosen. Making sense of (a) requires an inference to make the anaphoric connection. Such inferences depend on assumed knowledge which, as in (b), may be much more specific (e.g., Chardonnay is a kind of caviar).

In addition, the inference can be considered so automatic for some speakers (e.g., a bus has a driver) that they can go straight to a pronoun for anaphora, as in (c). In (c), the antecedent 'the bus' and the anaphor 'he' are not in grammatical agreement (i.e., normally, a bus would be 'it'). Take a look at the below example:

Sixteen firemen put out the fire that burnt two houses in North Cipete. Two residences in the South Jakarta district caught fire. It had brought traffic in the region to a halt. "That is the village site." Enter Jalan Fatmawati Raya, then Jalan Cipete, and finally Jalan Haji Jian." According to the South Jakarta Fire Department, Dendi. Sixteen fire engines responded to the call. The automobiles dispersed and approached the fire location from *various angles, seeking the quickest route. Therefore, traffic congestion is unavoidable. "Congested. We will deploy it from north to south, west to east, so that whatever comes first can be dealt with swiftly. As a result, traffic is congested in Cipete, Pos Fatmawati, and the neighboring districts." Dendi said. Dendi reported that the two burning buildings had been extinguished and were being refrigerated at the time. Fortunately, no one was killed in this fire. Officials have yet to specify the cause of the fire.*

From the text above, there is an anaphoric example in the sentence, "Two houses in North Cipete, South Jakarta, caught fire. It had brought traffic to a standstill in the area". The word "the fire" is continued by "it" in the following sentence. Collaboration's effect may also be related to the social component of reference. A successful reference suggests that an intention was discovered through inference, exhibiting a sort of common knowledge and, as a result, a social relationship. Even when a simple referring language (such as a pronoun) is used, the instant recognition of an intended referent indicates something shared, something in common, and hence social closeness.

B. **Cataphoric**—The cataphoric reference occurs when a word or phrase refers to something mentioned later in the discourse. Here are some examples:

- Although I phone her daily, my father still complains that I do not keep in touch often enough.
- The book was there in the drawer. I had never read Speak English Fluently in 30 days and did not intend to do so.

As in the above example, the pronoun 'her' refers to 'my mother,' and the definite 'the book' refers to 'Speak English Fluently in 30 days.

Pandemics, crises, and recessions are all like fire. We prevent it whenever possible, but if it continues, there are numerous lessons that Indonesian citizens may learn. Fire not only burns, but it also illuminates. It aches, but it also fortifies. When he is in command, he inspires and motivates. We want this epidemic to inspire us to reflect, improve, and fortify ourselves in future crises.

The pandemic is analogous to a candradimuka crater that simultaneously tests, instructs, and sharpens. All of our life's pillars are tested, and all of the pillars of our strength are refined simultaneously. The epidemic imposes a tremendous load on us, fraught with danger, and requires us to confront and handle it.

Sharpening and testing are inextricably linked. Not only are we given weight, but we are also given a chance to develop ourselves. Sharpening grew as the exam became more difficult, the process of becoming a robust, strong, and capable nation capable of winning in the arena.

the Indonesian version of Jokowi's Speech is available (Purba, 2022)

The speech of the President of Indonesia shows the cataphoric reference to "Crises, recessions, and pandemics are like fire. If we can, we avoid it, but if it keeps happening, there are many things Indonesian citizens can learn". The cataphoric use of the word "we" is explained as "Indonesian citizen" in the following sentence.

C. **Exophoric**—It occurs when a word or phrase refers to something outside the discourse. In other words, the reference is not mentioned previously in the preceding text (Cutting, 2002). Using exophoric reference requires shared knowledge between two speakers or between writer and reader(s). Here are some examples:

"They are late again. Can you believe it?"

"I know! Well, they had better get here soon, or it will get cold."

As in example (24), the pronoun 'they' refers to some people outside the discourse known to both speakers. 'It' also refers to something both speakers know about (perhaps the dinner).

> *We have encountered several hardships together over the last two years that we could never have anticipated. We might never conceive that we can all manage it. My brothers and sisters, today is proof. Proof that we are much more resilient than any difficulty, braver than unspecified, and unafraid of attempting. We are not only able to survive but also on the front lines of rehabilitation and regeneration.*
>
> *We continue to sail a large ship named Merdeka Learn, which is in its third year of sailing islands around Indonesia. The Merdeka Curriculum, which began as an effort to assist teachers and children during the epidemic, effectively reduces the effects of learning loss. The Merdeka Curriculum has already been implemented in over 140,000 school units in Indonesia. Hundreds of thousands of Indonesian youngsters are already studying in a far more enjoyable and liberated environment.*
>
> *Our children also no longer need to be concerned about passing tests. National Assessment that we are currently using is not intended to "punish" the teacher or student but rather to serve as reflective material. Thus, teachers must continuously learn, and school principals must improve the quality of their schools so that education becomes more inclusive and free from the threat of the three major sins.*
>
> *We have also heard the same sentiment from artists and cultural actors, who are starting to rise again and operate more independently. It is all because of our perseverance in establishing the cultural endowment fund and the first cultural channel in Indonesia. Consequently, there is no longer a restriction on space and support for expression, allowing culture to progress.*
>
> *The significant improvements we are bringing about are felt by parents, teachers, and students in Indonesia and other nations due to Indonesia's chairmanship of the G20 high-level summit. This year, we demonstrated that we are no longer mere followers but rather leaders of the global recovery movement*.
>
> Nadim Makarim's Speech was posted in (Makarim, 2022)

In the text of the speech, we can find an exophoric reference to the word "we," as in the utterance, we have faced many challenges together, which we never imagined before. We may never even imagine that we can handle it. "we" means all readers of this speech or all Indonesian citizens.

1.1.5. The Role of Reference in Linguistics Study

Deictic things refer to entities in the context in which the speech is made. As a result, deixis is context-dependent and adjusts its referent accordingly. That is why it is an intriguing issue to investigate. For example, (Panggabean & Khatimah, 2022) is interested in learning about the literary references created in works such as The Kite Runner.

The research examines the novel The Kite Runner's anaphoric and cataphoric references. The research was restricted to words or phrases that appear in the novel The Kite Runner. Here is the excerpt of anaphoric reference; the pronoun "them" refers to the previous information about the character being talked about, that is, children.

> Ahmed Khan laughed loudly. In my opinion, coloring books are not for kids. It is not your choice what colors you put in them. (The Kite Runner, p. 24)

Meanwhile, below is an example of a cataphoric reference:

> "Is the fish almost ready? Soraya said. General Taheri's eyes lingered on her. He patted her knee. "Just be happy you have your health and a good husband." "What do you think, Amir Jan?" Khala Jamila said. (The Kite Runner, p. 203)

The deixis "you" reference is a cataphora reference since it relates to the information mentioned after deixis, Amir Jan. The characters employed anaphora references to the deixis word more frequently than cataphora references. The findings showed that the novel comprised 19 anaphoric and nine cataphoric references.

A conversation must have a meaning or purpose in the form of a message and be interconnected. A study investigated the reference categories and building in the film Midnight in Paris. The results suggest that name and referent are the most common types of references used in movies. For example, the phrase “Beverly Hill” refers to his Beverly Hills home. Beverly Hills is a city in Los Angeles County, California. Mentioning a place’s or person’s name is common, and ‘name’ is the most important word to identify or refer to something or someone successfully. It can relate to or interpret the intended meaning of a person’s remark to the listener. Furthermore, a listener or reader can determine the aim of the speaker or sender of the communication, which must be related to one another.

Scholars found that looking at the nouns or verbs presented in the conversation constructs references in the movie, e.g., the proper names, indefinite nouns, or definite nouns. If those elements have been mentioned in the sentence, it can be said that the said sentence includes references (Satya et al., 2022).

1.2. Deixis

Deixis (plural, deixes) is a technical term (derived from Greek) to describe one of the most fundamental things humans perform with words. Specific words genuinely point to the referred entity. Deixis occurs when the referring term indicates to the referent in the context (whether interlocutors can perceive it or not) (Leech, 1983). The idea of deixis can represent the relationship between language and meaning in the structure of language (Levinson, 1983).

When you see something weird and ask, “What is that?” you are employing a deictic term [that] to convey something in the current context. Indexicals are another name for deictic expressions. Hence, deixis is an indexical appointment or reference with arbitrary reference (Suhartono, 2020); words or phrases that cannot be wholly understood without their complementary information. It is also a transparent approach for establishing the relationship between context and an utterance (or language) inside the structures.

Deictic phrases communicate relative distance and are interpreted based on context and the speaker’s purpose. It always conveys far more than what is spoken. Thus, indexicals are prototypical signals that establish a connection between the speaker and the listener. They are essential for coping with the ambiguity of language forms that have no apparent meaning outside of a particular context of use.

Deixis generally can be divided into two types based on the speaker’s context: proximal and distal. The [near speaker or proximal terms] in English are this, there, and now. Proximal terms are typically read regarding the speaker’s position (or the deictic center). Thus [now] is commonly understood to refer to some moment or at that time. The [distance from the speaker or distal terms] are that, there and then; distal terms may be used to differentiate between [near addressee] and [distance from both the speaker and the addressee]. Most words are deictic by nature, meaning their semantic meaning is stable, while their denotational meaning varies depending on the place or time. This idea is mainly considered a subclass of the semiotic indexicality phenomena.

The choice of deixis depends on the speaker’s psychology; thus, the comprehension of deixis needs to rely on fully understanding the context. Particularly, deixis has five categories according to its referential nature. The four categories are: personal deixis, temporal deixis, spatial deixis and discourse deixis.

1.2.1 Personal Deixis

Deictic reference to a referent’s participating role, such as the speaker, the addressee, and referents who are neither speaker nor addressee, is known as personal deixis. In personal deixis, a linguistic expression is used to pick out a specific individual in the context who may not have already been linguistically evoked. The most common examples of personal deixis are divided into three-part divisions, exemplified by the pronouns for first-person [i], second-person [you], and third-person [he, she, or it] (Birner, 2013).

Honorifics are lexical items or morphological units expressing politeness or formality as one primary aspect of their meaning (McCready, 2019). In many languages, these deictic categories of a speaker,

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addressee, and other(s) are elaborated with markers of relative social status. It is expressions that indicate higher status.

The discussion which leads to these forms rather than another is sometimes described as social deixis. In particular, social deixis represents the individuals' social status and relationships. Social deixis is better at communicating inner sentiments than other deixes. Address phrases and terms expressing self-deprecation or respect for others are examples of social deixis. Addressing a girl as "Miss X," rather than calling her name directly, demonstrates the speaker's respect and regard for the addressee, and vice versa (Chen & Zheng, 2019).

A well-known example of a social contrast encoded within-person deixis in some languages is the distinction between forms used for a familiar vs. a non-familiar addressee. It is known as the T/V distinction, from the French forms Tu (familiar) and Vous (non-familiar). The choice of one form will specifically communicate something (not directly said) about the speaker's view of his/her relationship with the addressee. In those social contexts where individuals typically mark distinctions between the social status of the speaker and addressee, the higher, older, and more robust speaker will tend to use the *Tu* version to a lower, younger, and less powerful addressee and be addressed by the *Vous* form in return.

In deictic terms, the third person is not a direct participant in basic [i-you] interaction and, being an outsider, is necessarily more distant. Third-person pronouns are consequently distal forms in terms of personal deixis. Using a third-person form, where a second-person form would be possible, is one way of communicating distance (and non-familiarity). It can be done in English for an ironic or humorous purpose, as when one person, who is very busy in the kitchen, addresses another, who is very lazy, as in (10).

Ex. 10 "Would his highness like some coffee?"

The distance associated with third-person forms is also used to make a potential accusation (e.g., you did not clean up) less direct, as in (11a), or to make a potentially personal issue seem like an impersonal one based on a general rule, as in (11b).

Ex. 11 a. Somebody *did not clean up* after himself.

b. Each person *has to clean up* after him or herself.

Of course, the speaker can state such general 'rules' as applying to the speaker plus other(s) by using the first-person plural [we], as in (12).

Ex. 12 "We clean up after ourselves around here."

In English, this may have potential ambiguity in such uses, allowing two different interpretations. There is an exclusive [we] (excluding addressee) and an inclusive [we] (speaker and addressee included). The ambiguity presented in ex. 5 provides a subtle opportunity for a hearer to decide what was communicated. Either the hearer decided that s/he 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 decides the kind of 'more' communicated.

Ex. 13 "Let's go" vs. "Let us go."

The inclusive-exclusive distinction may also be noted in the difference between saying utterances such as in example 13 (let's go—to some friends and let us go—to someone who has captured the speaker and friends). Going is inclusive in the first but exclusive in the second.

Ex. 14	Secretary	:	Good afternoon, sir. Is there anything I can help with?
	Boss	:	Please come to my office now.
	Secretary	:	OK, sir. I will go to your office room. What can I do for you, sir?
	Boss	:	Today's schedule slipped my mind. Do I have any plans for today?
	Secretary	:	You now have a meeting with Mr. Robert at "Delight" Restaurant.
	Boss	:	Okay, thank you so much. Please arrange the necessary equipment for me.

Secretary : OK. I will get started. I am sorry.

The conversation in (14) is a direct speech. The boss commands her secretary to visit his office room. After meeting her boss, he calls his boss using the honorific [sir]. It means that she realized the position between them is boss and employee. Thus, she does not call his boss by name.

1.2.2 Temporal Deixis

Temporal deixis relates to the time of utterance, not the time of the most recently stated event; instead, it is deixis relative to the time of the whole context being described (Birner, 2013). We have already noted the use of the proximal form 'now' as indicating both the time coinciding with the speaker's utterance and the time the speaker's voice is heard (the hearer's 'now'). In contrast to [now], the distal expression [then] applies to both past (15a) and future (15b) time relative to the speaker's present time.

Ex. 15 a. June 23rd, 2020? I was in Jakarta then.

b. Dinner at 8:00 on Sunday? Alright, I will see you then.

We also use elaborate systems of non-deictic temporal reference, such as calendar time (dates, as in 15a) and clock time (hours, as in 15b). These expressions depend on their interpretation of the appropriate utterance time. It is relative to the time when they are used. However, these forms of temporal reference are learned much later than the deictic expressions like [yesterday, tomorrow, today, tonight, next week, last week, this week].

If we do not know the utterance (i.e., scribbling) time of a note, as in (16), on an office door, we will not know if we have a short or a long wait ahead.

Ex. 16 "Back in an hour."

The psychological basis of temporal deixis seems similar to that of spatial deixis. We can treat temporal events as objects that move toward us (into view) or away from us (out of view). One metaphor used in English is of events coming toward the speaker from the future [i.e., the upcoming year] and going away from the speaker to the past [i.e., in days gone by, by the past week]. We also seem to treat the near or immediate future as being close to utterance time by using the proximal deictic [this] and [in this 'coming' weekend] or [this 'coming' Tuesday].

One primary (but often unrecognized) type of temporal deixis in English is the choice of verb tense. Whereas other languages have many forms of the verb with different tenses, English has only two primary forms, the present, as in (17a), and the past, as in (17b).

Ex. 17 a. I live here now.

b. I lived there then.

The present tense [17a] is the proximal form, and the past tense [17b] is the distal form. Something that has occurred in the past is typically treated as distant from the speaker's current situation. Perhaps less obviously, something that is treated as extremely unlikely (or impossible) from the speaker's current situation is also marked via the distal (past tense) form, as in (18b).

Ex. 18 a. I could see (when I was a teen)

b. I could be in Spore (if I had much money).

The past tense is always used in English in those if-clauses. It marks events presented by the speaker as not being close to present reality. Additionally, we must recognize the distal form in temporal deixis that can be used to communicate not only distance from current time but also from current reality or facts. To understand many English conditional constructions, such as those of the form 'had I known sooner ...'.

Ex. 19 Dina : Hello, good morning. Is this with the Marketing Division of PT. Mayora?

Ludi : Good morning. That is true. I am Ludi, the head of PT. Mayora's Marketing Division. May I know to whom I am talking?

Dina : Good morning, sir. I am Dina, a representative of PT. Abadi Sejahtera. I would want to confirm the order letter that we have sent to your office. Have you received it, sir?

Ludi	:	I will double-check beforehand (a moment of silence). Yes, we have received a letter of order from your company. Can I help you?
Dina	:	Thank you, sir, if it was accepted. Is it possible for the products we bought from now to be delivered on February 27^{th}, 2018? We seem to require them.
Ludi	:	No problem. Today, we will process your company's order directly. However, because it is already afternoon, we may dispatch the products before 10 a.m. the next day. How?
Dina	:	It is OK, sir. Then we will be waiting for the arrival of the products. Thank you.
Ludi	:	You are welcome, Ma'am.

The conversation above appears that the temporal deictic in utterance is [No problem. Today we will process your company's order directly. However, because it is already afternoon, we may dispatch the products before 10 a.m. the next day. How?], on the word [today], and continued with [the next day].

1.2.3 Spatial Deixis

The concept of distance mentioned is relevant to spatial deixis, where the relative location of people and things is indicated. Spatial deixis appears to cover a somewhat more complex range of situations than does personal deixis, potentially including current, past, and future locations of the speaker or addressee, the movement toward or away from such locations, and even accompaniment with these interlocutors as they change location (Birner, 2013). From the speaker's perspective, it is important to remember that location can be fixed mentally and physically.

Speakers temporarily away from their home location will often use [her] to mean the (physically distant) home location as if they were still in that location. Speakers also seem to be able to project themselves into other locations before actually being in those locations, as when they say [I will come later] (i.e., movement to address' location).

It is sometimes described as a deictic projection, and we use its possibilities more as more technology allows us to manipulate location. If 'here' means the place of the speaker's utterance (and 'now' means the time of the speaker's utterance), then an utterance such as (**20**) should be nonsense.

Ex. 20 I am not here now.

However, I can say (**20**) into the recorder of a telephone answering machine, projecting that the [now] will apply to any time someone tries to call me and not to when I record the words. Indeed, recording (**20**) is a dramatic performance for a future audience in which I project my presence to be in the required location.

Ex. 21	Teller	:	"Good morning, sir. Can I help you?"
	Customer	:	"Good morning, miss. I'd want to save some money here."
	Teller	:	"All right, sir, now the saving procedure may be simpler. You can use an ATM card. Do you have an ATM card?"
	Customer	:	"Of course, here is the ATM card, and this is the money I'd like to save."
	Teller	:	"OK, sir. We will count the money first. Please have a seat for a while."
	Customer	:	"Okay, thanks"
	Teller	:	"We have counted the money, sir, and it comes to four hundred million and fifty thousand rupiahs."
	Customer	:	"Yes, ma'am"
	Teller	:	"All right, sir. I'll attempt to process it, sir. Please wait a moment as I enter your ATM card into the EDC machine. Please input your ATM PIN, sir?"
	Customer	:	"Okay"
	Teller	:	"All right. Wait a minute, sir."

(The EDC machine beeps and prints a receipt, indicating that the transaction was completed successfully)

Teller : "All right, sir, the procedure is over; here is the receipt, and here is the saving slip. Please give your sign on the right and provide your phone number, sir."

Customer : "Okay, ma'am. That is all."

Teller : "Okay, sir, the saving procedure is completed. Is there anything else we can do?"

Customer : "No, thank you."

Teller : "All right, sir. Thank you for coming to our bank."

Customer : "You're really welcome."

This conversation gives an example of spatial deixis, in utterances delivered by a customer, [*Good morning, miss. I would want to save some money here*]. According to the context, the utterance has meaning in the bank. Meanwhile, in the final utterance, the bank teller closes the utterance with [*All right, sir. Thank you for coming to our bank*]. The bank teller does not say "here" even though they are in the same place.

1.2.4 The Difference between the Three Deixes

All of the fundamental distinctions outlined so far for personal, spatial, and temporal deixis may be observed at work in one of the most prevalent structural distinctions established in English grammar—that between direct and reported speech. As previously stated, deictic phrases for a person [you], location [here], and time [this morning] can all be understood in the same context as the speaker who utters them as in (**22a**).

Ex. 22 a. Are you planning to be <u>here</u> this morning?
b. I asked her if she was planning to be <u>there</u> that morning.

The proximal deictic forms of direct speech reporting often communicate a sense of being in the same context as the utterance. When the context shifts—the proximal forms presented in (22a) have shifted to the corresponding distal forms in (22b), to one in which I report the previous utterance, then the previous utterance is marked deictically as relative to the circumstances of asking. The distal deictic forms of reported speech reporting make the actual event seem more remote.

Ex. 23 Lita : Good morning, Toko Kurnia with. Is there anything I can do for you?

Sinta : Good morning. I want to order 5 AKARI TVs. It is Sinta from Manda Shop.

Lita : I'm sorry, ma'am. Please, wait a moment. Let me check the TV inventory.

Sinta : All right, miss. I'll be right here.

Lita : Thank you for your patience, ma'am. TV inventory is still available.

Sinta : How much is 1 TV unit, miss?

Lita : 1 AKARI TV unit for Rp. 2.000.000. So, it's about Rp. 10.000.000 for 5 TV units.

Sinta : Okay. Orders may be delivered to the Manda Shop in Jl. Ternate No. 10 Denpasar.

Lita : All right, ma'am. Let me repeat your order, five units of AKARI TV will be delivered to the Manda Shop, Jl. Ternate No. 10 Denpasar. Is there a phone number I could call?

Sinta : 0815-3456-7897. I request that the products be delivered within two days.

Lita : All right. I'll notify you once the order has been sent.

Sinta : Okay. Thank you for your cooperation.

Lita : You're welcome. Glad to work with you.

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Sinta : Good morning.

Lita : Good morning.

The conversation above contains personal deixis, namely the call "Miss." Then the spatial deixis appears in the word "here," which is shown in the following utterance at [Manda Shop, Jl. Ternate No. 10 Denpasar]. Furthermore, in the text, there is also temporal deixis in the utterance, "I request that the goods be sent in 2 days".

1.2.5 Discourse Deixis

There is no universally accepted definition of discourse deixis. Based on the Glossary of Linguistic Terms (SIL International, 2022), discourse deixis (or text deixis) refers to a section of a discourse that is related to the speaker's present "position" in the discourse. In a restricted sense, discourse deixis refers to words like "this" and "that" that relate to other constituents in a phrase. In a larger sense, those that can connect the text, such as "this," "hence," and "well," are examples of discourse deixis.

Person deixis is concerned with discourse-internal and discourse-external participants; time deixis is concerned with discourse-internal and discourse-external time, such as coding time and receiving time, as well as metalinguistic tense and language tense, and place deixis is concerned with discourse-internal and discourse-external location and the corresponding personal, social, and cultural attitudes (Fetzer, 2012). In short, traditional and context-specific strategies are used to infuse social context into speech. The following is an example of the deixis discourse findings from (Ningsih & Megawati, 2022) research:

> *Of course, there is not just one language in the world. There are about 7,000 languages spoken around the world. Moreover, all languages differ from one another in all kinds of ways. Some languages have different sounds, they have different vocabularies, and they also have different structures—very importantly, different structures. That begs the question: Does the language we speak shape the way we think? Now, this is an old question. People have been speculating about this question forever (01.24-01.50).*

The distal demonstrative "that" refers to the last part of speech. Many languages worldwide have structures, vocabulary, and sounds that prompt the question, "Will language impact how we think?" "This" is like the word "that" relates to prior statements. The speaker had previously stated the referent of "this question" before saying, "this is an ancient inquiry."

1.2.6 Examples of Deixis Analysis

Deixis has received much attention from semantics and pragmatics as we know that deixis is to analyze a conversation, utterance, or sentence since each utterance is associated with individuals, location, or time (Birner, 2013). The meaning of the phrases or utterances will be evident if the listener or reader knows who, where, and when the speech is uttered. Several papers on deixes are provided here to help you understand the role of deixis in linguistics research.

Firstly, (Setiakawanti & Susanti, 2018) researched deixis forms and meanings found in Jakarta Sports articles. They employed Dylgjeri and Kazazi's concept. The findings revealed that the first-person deixis found in articles selected from the Jakarta Sport is "I", "me", "my", "we," and "our," and the third-person deixis are "she", "her", "his", "him" and "they"; the spatial deixis are "school", "class", "hospital", "on the stairs", "world", "here" and "there." The temporal deixis is "now", "then," and "five months ago". According to the results, personal deixis was used 157 times, spatial deixis 54 times, and temporal deixis 25 times.

Secondly, Glover et al. (2018) examined the correlation between form and meaning in literature by examining Jane Austen's use of deixes in Pride and Prejudice. The study focuses on personal, social, and discourse deixis. It uses quantitative and qualitative approaches to examine the prevalence of personal pronouns, proximity pronouns, and titles, as well as how deixis influences the topics of emotional relations, social class, and women's roles. The frequency of personal pronouns and titles in Pride and Prejudice was compared to the British National Corpus and Charles Dickens's Great Expectations. The findings revealed that the use of specific language forms indicates how emotional interactions evolve in the novel, the socioeconomic position of the characters, and the role of women in Pride and Prejudice. The study also discovered how deixis and themes connect to literary approaches such as sarcasm and, to a lesser extent, ambiguity.

On the other hand, a study conducted by (Chen & Zheng, 2019) investigated the pragmatic force of deixes in the dialogues of Pride and Prejudice written by Jane Austen. This study shows that speakers use deixis to indicate their emotions and attitudes toward their listeners or the subject they are discussing. Within this study, personal deixis such as "our" emphasizes the addressee's familiarity. In contrast, deixis such as "my," "your," "well," past tense, and subjunctive mood show the addressee's detachment or unhappiness.

Fourthly, (Abdulameer, 2019) studied deixis pragmatics in a religious text. The information came from a religious lecture about faith in Islam by Imam John Starling at Queens College on October 22, 2014. The data revealed that person deixis happened 202 times, place deixis 11 times, and time deixis six times, indicating that person deixis is the most prevalent variety. Personal deixis is commonly used since religious literature is oriented on the Divine Entity. Hence speakers always referred to God using the third-person pronoun "He." Also, because this type of text is usually about guidance and advice, the pronoun "You" frequently addresses the audience directly and grabs their attention. Furthermore, because the lecturer wants to make his audience feel like he belongs to them and shares the same destiny, he used the pronouns "we" and "us." In contrast, location and time deixis are rare in this book and primarily occur while describing other stories.

Further, (Herdiyanti, 2020) also investigated the use of three forms of deixis in Adele's song lyrics, Someone Like You. The findings revealed that the songs often included two deixis forms: personal deixis and temporal deixis. There is 28 personal deixis, such as "I," "You," "She," "My," and "Me," as well as two temporal deixes, such as "now," "That you found a girl, and you are married now." The word "now" alludes to Adele's newlywed lover. The song's message is about what happened to Adele as a singer or songwriter.

Besides that, Britain's Queen Elizabeth II made a remarkable speech on COVID-19 titled "Better Days Will Return" on April 5th, British local time. (M. Wang, 2020) The Queen's anti-epidemic speech was analyzed to examine personal deixis and explore the pragmatic empathic role in this speech. He discovered that the first-person deixis appeared the most in this speech. The principal objective of the speech was to create national cohesiveness and make the people more unified. The second-person deixis' primary purpose is to strengthen the listener's sense of ownership. Appropriate second-person deixis can also help close the speaker and listener gap. Furthermore, using first and second-person deixis may best fulfill the function of pragmatic empathy, achieving the Queen's speech's goal of encouraging people to fight the disease and unite to combat the epidemic.

In addition, an analysis of deixis in Queen's song "I Want to Break Free" is carried out (Saputra & Apsari, 2021). The results revealed that the song has three deixis forms, but personal deixis has the most significant proportion. Meanwhile, the spatial deixis is only (3%), and the temporal deixis is. Similarly, a study was conducted by (Lugina et al., 2019), who examined the various forms of deixis in the story of The Legend of Lake Toba. The findings showed that personal deixis "I," "You," "They," "he," "she", and "It"; spatial deixis "there," "this", and "that" and temporal deixis "once upon a time," "one day," "tonight" and "now." All of the deixes are employed in the tale of The Legend of Lake Toba, with personal deixes dominating.

Moreover, Budiarta and Gaho (2021) also investigated several sorts of deixes in the Zootopia film screenplay. Unlike the preceding one, temporal deixis appeared the most frequently in the Zootopia movie screenplay, with 29 expressions. They looked at every sort of deixis in the 15 scenarios they chose. Personal deixes account for around 83% of the outcomes, which include "I," "she," "he," "it," "we," "they," "myself," "herself," "our," "her," and "me." The discourse deixis is just 8%; they are "this," "these," "that," and "those." "Now," "then," "next time," "tomorrow," "today," "before noon," "later," "ago," "soon," "once a month," "since," "three hundred days," "sixty-five days," "five years," "six years," and "a thousand years" account for around 7% of time deixis. Meanwhile, spatial deixis is roughly 2% with instances like "here" and "there," while the other forms are just 8%.

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Furthermore, (Kakiay & Maitimu, 2021) used pragmatic analysis to examine the different forms of deixis from Cruse's theory and allusions in When the Party's Over and Bad Guy songs under descriptive qualitative. The findings revealed that personal deictic terms in the first person primarily refer to the singer or songwriter. The second person refers to the addressee, as indicated by "you and you're," whereas the third person, "it or she," refers to something or someone who becomes the primary item or character in songs. Furthermore, spatial deixis is used less in both songs. Both tracks have only one intended phrase. Following that, the temporal deixis in each song is distinct. In "Bad Guy," only one sort of temporal deixis happened: verbs. However, in "When the party has finished", pure deictic and verb tense occurred. The social and discursive deixis with diverse deictic terms was also present in both songs.

Then, Minkhatunnakhriyah et al. (2021) researched deixis and its context as utilized by diplomats and representatives from Indonesia, Silvany Pasaribu of Vanuatu, and Papua human rights issues. The data source was an Indonesian diplomat's remark speech with three sorts of deixis based on Levinson's theory. The findings of this study indicate thirty-five deixis from an Indonesian diplomat's public speech. There were 23 personal deixes (first, second, and third person), seven geographical deixes, and five temporal deixes. Person deixis is often provided by the person's grammatical type, which substitutes personal pronoun encodes such as community, proper names, and the individual pronoun compound. Spatial deixis was predicated on the place expressed by the speaker in their speech. The temporal deixis refers to the pointing of time context discourse.

Based on Levinson's theory, (Sasmita et al., 2018) examined the categories of Personal, Time, Place, Discourse, and Social Deixis and their references to the main character in the movie script "A Thousand Words". Person deixis (515 instances), time deixis (20 occurrences), place deixis (34 occurrences), discourse deixis (104 occurrences), and social deixis were discovered in his investigation (1 occurrence). In addition, the references revealed in this study were personal deixis. They are [I, me, we, us, my] as first-person deixis. [You, your] as second-person deixis. [he, she, it, they, them, him, her] as third-person deixis. Personal deixes are 149 utterances in total.

Time deixis were 19 utterances, such as [now, today, on a Tuesday, three days, two days, then]. Place deixis was 22 utterances found, such as [here, there, in]. Discourse deixis found was [this, that, those, these] with 60 utterances. The last social deixis found was [Mr] (1 utterance).

Although deixis has garnered growing academic attention in linguistic studies, its usage in sermons, particularly in the Islamic setting, has largely gone unstudied. Hence, this article studied deixis in Islamic Friday sermons using pragmatics and discourse analysis. The researcher assembled a corpus of 70 sermons from several internet domains. The findings demonstrated that these three deictic kinds were relatively widespread in the individual corpus language, with the personal type predominating. Deictically referring to diverse referents whose interpretation was context-sensitive. The preachers used deixis as an affectively effective force in the corpus to perform a wide range of functions on the discourse and pragmatic levels. Deictic phrases were used as a discourse tactic in the corpus to persuade listeners by capturing their attention and engaging them in the sermon's message, as well as to signify and arrange the flow of material in the continuing discourse. They also increased the preachers' and their audience's unity, intimacy, and politeness (Alkhawaldeh, 2022).

Recently, (Ningsih & Megawati, 2022) determined the presence of deixis in Lera Boroditsky's speech and deciphered the meaning of each deictic statement using Levinson's and Huang's theories to enrich the deixis theory as well as the practice of verbal communication development. According to the findings, Lera Boroditsky's speech has six types of deixis: person deixis, geographic or place deixis, temporal or time deixis, social deixis, discourse deixis, and emotional deixis. Each deictic phrase has a particular meaning depending on the context or scenario in the speech. In other words, detecting deixis in a formal speech assists in understanding the purpose of speakers with diverse personalities, backgrounds, and cultures in various sorts of communication.

It is emphasized by Susanti et al. (2020) students can utilize appropriate and proper language because of the close link between pragmatics and learning. A pragmatic approach, real-world contexts, and challenging scenarios can strengthen students' language abilities. Students may attain the intended learning goals, particularly in recognizing news text information as a guide in identifying linguistic elements of news texts using person, location, and time deixis as pronouns or pronominals.

Understanding deixis from people described by students may be a valuable practice for students while conducting in-depth research on the topic. They not only comprehend the text's structure but also uncover the pragmatic aspect of the investigation. The careful decision to modify or adapting the contextual approach assists learners in organically strengthening their English skills.

In addition, teachers should educate students on deictic expressions in genuine communicative circumstances since each discussion's meaning depends on these deictic expressions to communicate effectively. Teachers must employ deixis successfully in English classrooms to develop students' listening and speaking abilities since it acts as a coherent device in spoken language (Omer Abaker, 2018).

Furthermore, role play can be the instructional strategy that might encourage students to use a deictic expression. Teachers may recommend that students dress up like prominent public figures and practice making a speech in front of the class. Another advantage is that students acquire ways to attract public attention through meaningful and understandable verbal communication from the chosen facts. It is in line with the observations of previous research by (Félix-Brasdefer, 2018), who stated that role plays have been used to assess several aspects of learners' pragmatic competence and are utilized for training, evaluation, and testing, as well as classroom pragmatics education.

Role-playing may be used to teach language to children with disabilities. (Abdoola et al., 2017) demonstrated that role-playing as a therapeutic technique targeting two pragmatic abilities, stylistic diversity and demanding explanation, was helpful for learners with Language Learning Disabilities. There were recommendations for using role-playing as a treatment strategy.

Students become more interested as they attempt to respond to the subject through the eyes of their character role. The study (Bahriyeva, 2021) demonstrates all available instruments for teaching any language using the role-play approach and methodology. It is essential to be aware of these tools to employ them while teaching any language properly.

1.3. Speech Acts Theory

Speech acts are a person's ability to use language to convey messages or goals from speakers to hearers (Sulistyo, 2013). To understand how it works, the action performed by producing an utterance will consist of three related acts: locution [the actual words that the speaker uses]: "which is roughly equivalent to uttering a specific sentence", illocution [the intention behind the words], "such as informing, ordering, warning utterances that have a particular (conventional) force, and perlocution [the effect the utterance has on the hearer]: "what we bring about or achieve by saying something, such as convincing, persuading, and even surprising or misleading (Schauer, 2019). Here is a further explanation.

1.4.1 Locutionary Act

The locution (or locutionary act) is a speech act that refers to the act of speaking semantically meaningful utterances. It is the fundamental process of making an utterance or creating a meaningful language statement, such as uttering a specific sound, employing a specific morpheme, or referring to a specific person. It can also be conveyed physically as the act of speaking. Thus, the locution is the grammatical structure of the utterance (Sebastian, 2016). Below examples (24) show the different grammatical forms that an utterance can have:

Ex. 24	a. "You are generous."	(declarative)
	b. "Are you generous?"	(a closed interrogative)
	c. "Who is generous?"	(open interrogative "wh-phrase")
	d. "Be generous!"	(imperative)
	e. "How generous you are!"	(exclamative)

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Ex. 25	Andra	:	I apologize, sir. Today I am late.
	Teacher	:	How many times have you been lately? What is the reason you're late today?
	Andra	:	I woke up late this morning.
	Teacher	:	Your habits. If you're late, the reason is like that. What time did you sleep last night?
	Andra	:	11 o'clock, sir.
	Teacher	:	You are a schoolboy. Don't sleep too late, so you don't wake up late in the morning. Understand?
	Andra	:	Understood, sir.
	Teacher	:	If you are still late, I will call your parent to school. You can sit now.

The conversation (25) can be analyzed as follows: Declarative [I apologize, sir. Today I am late], closed-interrogative [How many times have you been late], open-interrogative [What time did you sleep last night?], and imperative [If you are still late, I shall call your parent to school].

Thus, not all aspects of the locutionary act may occur in a single text, depending on the text being studied.

1.4.2 Illocutionary Act

The speaker makes an utterance to make either a statement about the world, apologize, or explain something. This intended meaning behind the utterance is called illocutionary force and is internal to the locutionary act. The same locution can have different possible meanings depending on the context. Primarily we do not just produce well-formed utterances with no purpose. We form an utterance with some function in mind. It is called an illocutionary act. Illocutionary acts are about what makes an utterance an assertion.

Here is a list of paradigmatically illocutionary acts: asserting, telling, reporting, describing, promising, warning, requesting, advising, and ordering. In dealing with ILL, we are concerned with the mode of performance and not with the conditions of the performance of illocutionary acts (Petrus, 2010). In short, illocutionary acts are speech acts that contain the intent and function or power of speech (Sulistyo, 2013). The difference between locution and illocutionary acts is sometimes referred to as "saying" and "doing" (Meyer, 2009). For instance:

Ex. 26 Leave!

If I utter as in (26), I am on one level producing an imperative sentence having a specific form (the base form of the verb with an implied you) and meaning (i.e., depart). Also, we might utter (26) to make a statement, an offer, an explanation, a warning, or another communicative purpose. Uttering (26) may have the effect of actually causing an individual to leave.

Ex. 27 "It is cold in here."

The intended meaning behind an utterance is not always clear in conversation. The declarative in example (27) can be stated to make a statement about the current temperature or to make the hearer do an action such as closing the window. That shows that the same utterance can be ambiguous and only be understood by looking at the context in which it is uttered.

Ex. 28	Secretary	:	Good afternoon, ma'am. I am from PT. Indah Maju wanted to inquire about the PC I purchased ten units of two days ago but never received. Could you please assist me, ma'am?
	Customer	:	Sure, ma'am. I apologize for the delay in delivering our units because we are in a pandemic. The PC you ordered may arrive within the following three days.
	Secretary	:	I understand, ma'am.
	Customer	:	Once again, ma'am, we apologize for the inconvenience to our service.

Secretary : That's OK.

The remark "I understand, ma'am" in the above exchange (28) is an example of an illocution. It demonstrates that in conversation, it is not always evident what the intended meaning of a remark is. That demonstrates that identical speech can only be comprehended by considering the context in which it is delivered. Thus, the word "understand" not only indicates comprehension but also agrees with what customer service has said about the delay in the delivery of products.

Although speech act theorists have proposed these three public speech acts, they are primarily interested in speaker intentions: the illocutionary force of utterances. Below are seven types of illocutionary forces as described in (Meyer, 2009).

Table 1.1 Types of Illocutionary Forces

No	Type (s)	
1	Declarations	Utterances bring about a change in the state of affairs. For examples: 1. I now pronounce you husband and wife. 2. Now you are the leader of this company
2	Representatives /Assertive	Utterances reporting statements of fact verifiable as true/false. Statements of fact, assertions, conclusions, or descriptions. For examples: ✓ I am old enough to vote. ✓ I am sorry for your loss. Please accept my condolences.
3	Expressive	Utterances expressing speaker attitudes. Statements of pleasure, pain, likes, dislikes, joy, or sorrow. For examples: ✓ Thank you for the guidance while writing this article. ✓ Political observers in Indonesia ask for a review of the planned relocation of the capital city.
4	Directives/ Performatives	Utterances are intended to get someone to do something. Statements of commands, orders, requests, or suggestions. For examples: ✓ Clean the board, please. ✓ All governmental institutions must hold a ceremony on Independence Day on August 17th.
5	Commissive	Utterances commit one to do something. Statements of promises, threats, refusals, or pledges. For examples: ✓ I promise to call you later. ✓ After passing the thesis exam, I promise to attend graduation.
6	Verdictive	Utterances refer to past actions, and the statement can be retrospective or even accusing, blaming, appreciating, and condolences. That is why it can be responded to positively or negatively. For examples: ✓ On December 12-24th, 2022, I will hold an exhibition of paintings from the '90s at the Taman Ismail Marzuki Gallery. (retrospective) ✓ Congratulation on your exhibition. (appreciating)
7	Phatic	The utterance is usually spoken daily and conveys good value and ethics, including greetings, farewells, or politeness. For examples: ✓ See you at the next event. ✓ Pleasure is all mine.

Riza's utterance indicates that Riza has committed to playing immediately after finishing his homework. In the following example, it is an assertive utterance, "I am still studying", followed by examples of commissive, "After all, it is now night. I have much work to do". Take a look at the following example:

Ex. 29

Let's play, Rez!

I'm still studying.

You can learn it afterwards. We're now having fun.

After all. It's now night. I have a lot of work to do.

Later, Al. It's also not too late.

Okay, I'm sorry.

1.4.3 Perlocutionary Act

Perlocutionary acts are utterances spoken by a speaker that often have perlocutionary effects or forces. The perlocution (or perlocutionary act) is the intended or unintended effect that the utterance can have on the hearer. It is external to the locutionary act, as the speaker cannot control the utterance's effect on the hearer. Looking at the below example:

Ex. 30 "There is a good movie."

Uttering (**30**) may have the effect of causing someone to depart. Meanwhile, the perlocution might be that the hearer interprets the declarative as information and responds [Thank you], or the utterance is understood as an excuse and responds [Never mind]. This are known as the perlocutionary effect.

Ex. 31

Anton

Our community will have a village head election soon.

Riki

Our community will have a village head election soon.

Anton

Yes, Rik. Hopefully, the subsequent village head will be better than the prior village head.

Riki

Do you know who the candidates are, Anton?

Anton

If I'm not mistaken, Mr. Jarwo and Mr. Mulyono.

Riki

Isn't Mr. Mulyono the best?

Anton

Yes.

In the perlocutionary instance, the initial conversation (**31**) on the lines “Isn’t Mr. Mulyono the best?” not only voices a viewpoint but can lead to a choice on election day to vote for Mr. Mulyono.

The types and categories of speech acts are influenced not only by the stated forms but also by the focus, function, and strategy, according to the conclusions of a recent study (Wijana, 2021). Different forms can communicate a particular goal, and one form can be used to deliver multiple intentions. In other words, intents or speaker meanings are not rooted in language structures, even if structures are employed as a starting point for every interpretation of intentions meant by speakers. Because locution is viewed as unimportant in pragmatics, and perlocution is likewise tricky to comprehend, this research focuses on illocution.

Perlocutionary acts, as opposed to locutionary and illocutionary acts governed by conventions, are natural rather than conventional acts. A perlocutionary act is conducted by saying something rather than doing something. Persuading, motivating, soothing, and inspiring are all examples of perlocutionary acts.

Regarding illocutionary actions, the taxonomy of speech acts in a language may be categorized based on functions and delivery tactics. The former will produce representational, directing, questioning, commissive, expressive, and declaration techniques. In contrast, the latter will produce a variety of strategies, such as explicit and nonexplicit, direct and indirect, literal and nonliteral, and expressed and implied.

1.4. Speech Acts

Speech acts, which are communicative activities that transmit an intended language function, are an essential topic of pragmatics. Requests, apologies, recommendations, instructions, offers, and proper reactions to such acts are all examples of speech acts. Speakers of these actions are not entirely successful until hearers understand the intended messages that they express (Koike, 2010).

Someone can ask for a glass of water by pointing to a pitcher and miming the act of drinking. These descriptive terms for different speech acts apply to the speaker’s communicative intention in producing an utterance. As previously stated, utterances are the elements whose meaning we investigate in pragmatics. The speaker typically expects that the hearer will recognize his communicative intention. Both speaker and hearer are usually helped in this process by the circumstances surrounding the utterance. These circumstances, including other utterances, are called speech events. A **speech event** is an activity in which participants interact via language in some conventional way to arrive at some outcome (Yule, 1996).

In many ways, the nature of the speech event determines the interpretation of an utterance as performing a particular speech act. For instance:

Ex. 32 *This coffee is really cold!*

In the winter, the speaker reaches for a cup of coffee, believing it has been freshly made, takes a sip, and produces the utterances (**32**). It is likely to be interpreted as a complaint. However, changing the circumstances to a really hot summer’s day with the speaker being given a glass of iced coffee by the hearer can be interpreted as praise.

Analyzing speech events is another way of studying how more gets communicated than is said. It also means more to interpreting a speech act than can be found in the utterance. If the same utterance can be interpreted as two different kinds of speech acts, no simple one-utterance-to-one-action correspondence will be possible.

Hence, there are many occasions when we need to describe an event or action, which often includes repeating what someone said. Such occasions can include a social situation and a work email or presentation. There are two types of speech: direct speech act and indirect speech (known as reported speech) act.

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1.4.1 Direct Speech Act

When we talk, we intend the actual meaning of what we say; we do a direct speech act. An utterance is considered direct speech when there is a direct connection between the three components and the utterance's communication functions (Sebastian, 2016), as stated in **Table 1.2** below.

Table 1.2 Three Types of Direct Speech Acts

Speech act	Sentence type	Function	Examples
Assertion	Declarative	Conveys information; is true or false	a. I am uncomfortable with you being here now
Question	Interrogative	Elicits information	b. Will you go away?
Command	Imperative	Causes others to behave in specific ways	c. That is enough. Go away.

An imperative sentence, such as the one in (**c**), is commonly associated with a directive. Meanwhile, (**a-b**) are indirect. The question in (**b**) is a yes/no statement. Such arrangements often elicit a yes/no answer. However, in this situation, the speaker requests an individual to leave more indirectly. In (**c**), it is more indirect since it is in the form of a declarative statement, which is most strongly connected with a representation.

However, given the proper context, this example might be intended to request someone to leave, despite its high ambiguity and potential misunderstanding. Therefore, direct speech acts demonstrate the speaker's deliberate meaning behind delivering that utterance (see **Ex. 33**).

Ex. 33

Aldo
Look! Whose wallet is this?

Amar
Let's look inside the wallet.

Aldo
Wow! That's lot of money.

Amar
Let's divide it in half.

Aldo
I disagree with your opinion.

Amar
Why? We found this wallet

Aldo
Yes. But, it's not ours.

Amar
Let's get the money.

Aldo
In any case, no. It's unacceptable.

Amar
It's all up to you.

We learned from the dialogue (**33**) that there are two kinds of direct speech: interrogative sentences like [Look! Whose wallet is this?] signifies to inquire, and the imperative statement [In any case, no. In brief, direct speech acts so openly demonstrate the speaker's intentional meaning behind making that utterance (Sebastian, 2016). It is not acceptable] is used to command someone for failing to perform something.

1.4.2 Indirect Speech Act

Indirect speech is performed using another. It means that there is an indirect relationship between the form and the function of the utterance. In English, indirectness is very common with directives and is typically associated with yes/no questions, particularly those of the form [Can you?, Could you?] or future likelihood about doing something [Will you? Would you?]. For instances:

Ex. 34 Okay, would you open the front screen door for me, please?

Ex. 35 Could you grab me a box of tea?

In another case, declarative sentences that use the form contain modal verbs of varying degrees of indirectness. By using the modal verb [should] in the example below (**36**), the speaker reasonably suggests that the addressee take an Introductory Composition class.

Ex. 36 You should take Intro Comp next semester.

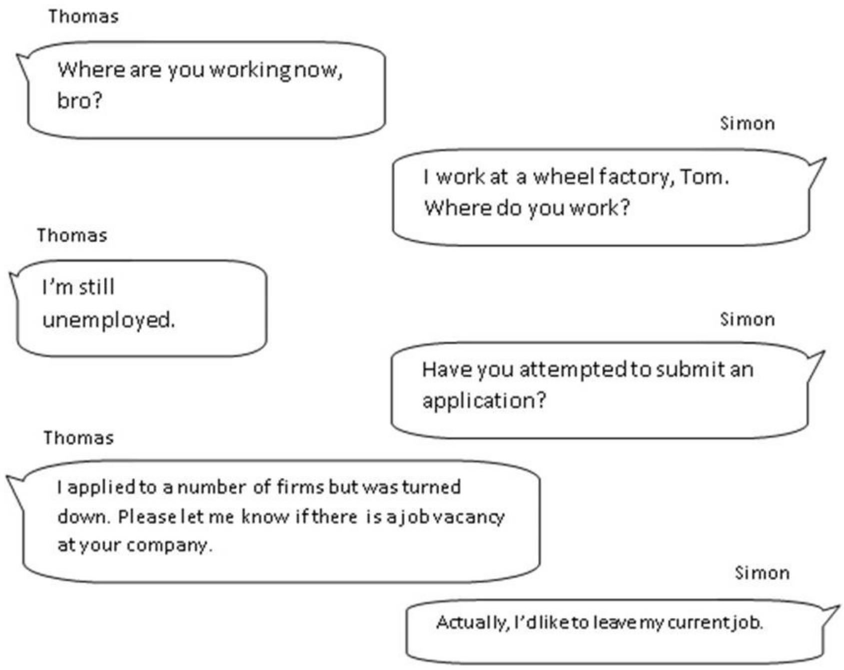
However, if [might want to/wanna] is used instead, the command becomes more of a suggestion:

Ex. 37 Well, you might wanna major in English

Indirectness in English is generally associated with more remarkable politeness since issuing a directive requires various strategies for mitigating the act of trying to get someone to do something, which can be considered impolite if not appropriately stated.

In (**38**), the utterance "Actually, I'd like to leave my current job" is an example of an indirect speech act that is obvious in the dialogue above because the context provided by Simon is when Thomas wants to know if there is a job vacancy in Simon's workplace. However, he expresses his desire to leave indirectly. It is the hearer's responsibility to evaluate the statement to grasp its meaning. Look at the following illustration (see **Ex. 38**).

Ex. 38



Finally, speech acts may be literal or figurative. Many English figures of speech are figurative (or non-literal), meaning that the speaker does not intend what they say. It is relatively frequent in English for people to put off discussing or doing something by saying something like, "I'll explain why in a minute." However, the individual using this example does not guarantee that his or her explanation will be available in precisely sixty seconds. In contrast, it is exceptionally usual to begin a discussion with a phrase like "how is everything?" even if the one saying it does not necessarily wish to know how the addressee feels. The speaker does not indicate the intended meaning of the utterance. To comprehend its meaning, the hearer must evaluate the statement (Sebastian, 2016).

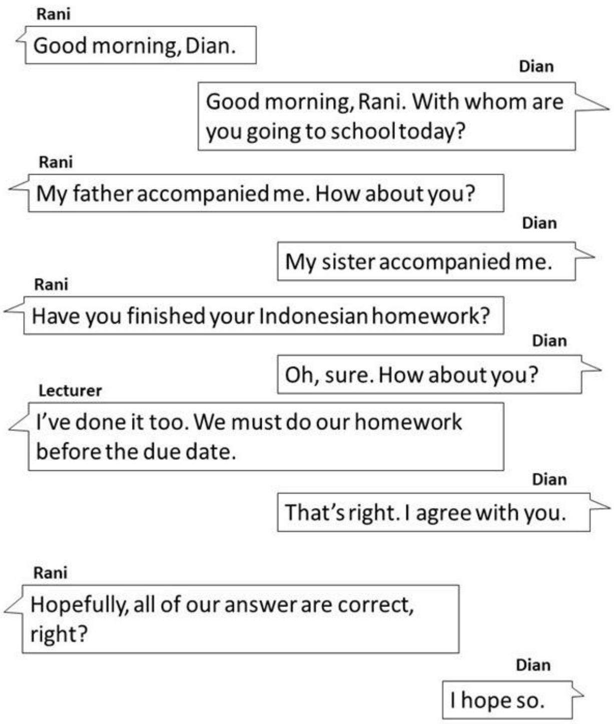
1.4.3 Felicity Conditions

Participants in communication must grasp the language used and ensure they are not acting. The speech act must fulfill the felicity condition; that means general conditions must be met for communication to succeed. These are known as being well-matched for the objective of the speech. In general, the felicity condition may be used in three ways: declarations, requests, and warnings. Aside from these general conditions, (Searle, 1969) splits felicity conditions into four categories:

- **Propositional content** conditions, the locution must display commonly appropriate terms for building the specific speech act. For example, a promise and a warning require that the future occurrence be a future act of the speaker.
- **Preparatory** conditions require particular prerequisites, such as the utterance being made by a person with the power to do the action and the utterance being uttered in proper circumstances with appropriate actions. These requirements are grouped into two categories: the event will not occur on its own and will have a positive effect.
- **Sincerity** conditions are where the speaker genuinely intends to carry out future action.
- **Essential** conditions cover the fact that by uttering a promise, thereby intend to create an obligation to act as promised. This essential condition thus combines with a specification of what must be in the utterance content, the context, and the speaker's intentions, for a specific speech act to be appropriately (felicitously) performed.

In transferring meaning by using spoken and written language, we have a specific goal of uttering an utterance. Take a look at the example below:

Ex. 39



The preceding discussion (**39**) revealed that the talk used four felicity conditions. First and foremost, Reni and Dian comprehend each other's languages and know what is being said. The propositional conditions are the contents of Reni and Dian's talk regarding their desire to get an excellent grade on the Indonesian homework. Furthermore, the initial conditions: in this discourse, it is more probable that the event will be helpful to receive excellent grades on Indonesian homework. The sincerity criteria are nearly identical to the preparation conditions, namely the desire to do well on the homework. There is no example of essential conditions because none of them makes a promise.

1.4.4 IFIDs and Performative Utterance

The most obvious device for indicating the illocutionary force (the Illocutionary Force Indicating Devices, or IFID) is an expression of the type shown in (**40**), where a verb explicitly names the speech act and a specific structure.

Ex. 40 You guys, I'm sorry that I was late.

Ex. 41 a. I promise you that ...

b. I warn you that ...

Speakers do not always 'perform' their speech acts explicitly, but they sometimes describe the speech act being performed. As in (**40**), it is an apology, and it is implicit because the verb am (contracted in I'm) does not fit the structural definition of a performative verb: the naming of the speech act is conveyed by the adjective [sorry], not the verb am. Meanwhile, in example (**41**), 'promise' and 'warn' would be the performative verbs and, if stated, would be clear IFIDs.

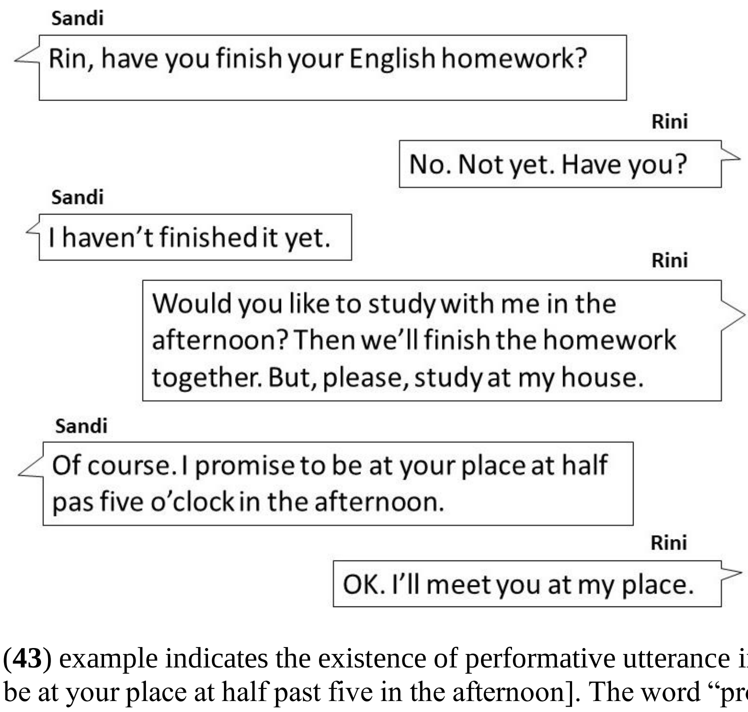
A lowered voice quality for a warning or a threat might indicate illocutionary force, and the utterance must also be produced under specific conventional conditions to count as having the intended illocutionary force. Other IFIDs identified are word order, stress, and intonation, as shown in the different versions of the same essential elements, such as "You're going!" or "Are you going?". Additionally, the following example (**42**) is known as the **performative utterance** and the basic format of the underlying clause:

Ex. 42 a. I hereby order that you clean up this mess.

b. Clean up this mess!

In this clause, the subject must be first person singular [i], followed by the adverb [hereby], indicating that the utterance counts as an action by being uttered. There is also a performative verb [order] in the present tense and an indirect object in the second person singular [you]. In (**42a**), it is used by speakers as an explicit performative of command that has a much more severe impact. Meanwhile, (**42b**) is implicit performative (or primary performative). The advantage of this type of analysis is that it clarifies what elements are involved in the production and interpretation of utterances.

Ex. 43



The dialogue above (**43**) example indicates the existence of performative utterance in Sandi's speech [Of course. I promise to be at your place at half past five in the afternoon]. The word "promise" demonstrates performative by promising to come to Rini's house in the afternoon to finish the homework together. This illocutionary act has the direct force of a question about whether it is appropriate to invite someone to study under particular conditions. On the other hand, the speaker believes that if the addressee wants to learn, an invitation to study together will be appreciated. As a result, the inquiry has the indirect power of a study proposal.

1.4.5 Speech Events

Speech events are any social activity in which language plays a significant role. The occurrence or continuous linguistic interaction in one or more forms of communication that includes two parties, namely speakers and hearers, with one point of speech in a specific time, place, and situation is also referred to as a speech event. Yule (1996) emphasized that a speech event is a series of utterances made in a specific situation to achieve a particular result.

Additionally, speech typically occurs at various events, including political rallies, debates, classroom lectures, religious services (sermon, prayer, welcoming, singing), government hearings, and courtroom trials. All of which involve specific types of speech events appropriate to that setting. It might also be casual: a phone chat, buying a ticket, a newspaper, or ordering a meal. It may also include an apparent central speech act, such as [I do not really like this], as in the speech event of 'complaining.' However, it will include other utterances leading to and reacting to that central action.

An indirect request may be thought of as enquiring whether the requisite circumstances for a request are met. Because a request is considered an imposition by the speaker on the hearer, the speaker should avoid a direct imposition via a direct request. A preliminary condition, for example, is that the speaker assumes the hearer CAN, or is capable of, acting. A content condition concerns future action, implying that the listener WILL take action (see **Table 1.3**).

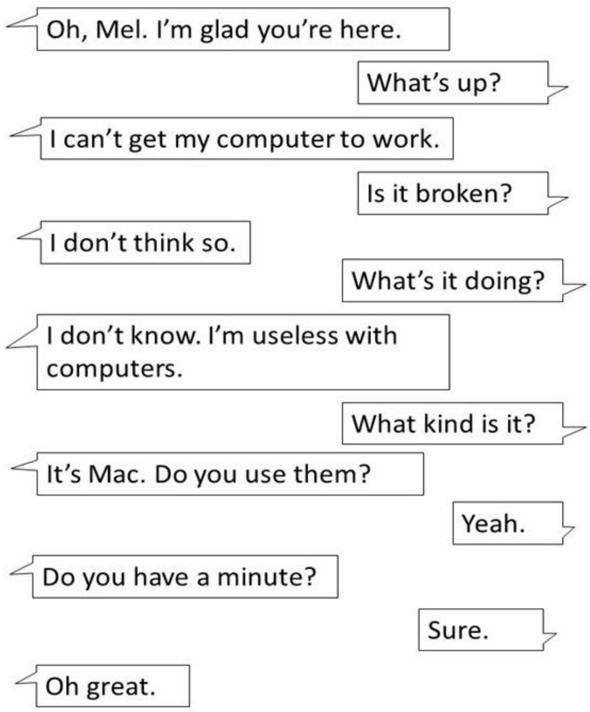
Table 1.3 Indirect Requests

Indirect requests	**Speech event(s)**	
a. Content condition	Future act of hearer	WILL you do X?
b. Preparatory condition	The hearer can perform an act	CAN you do X?
c. Questioning a hearer-based condition for making a request results in an indirect request.		

There is a clear distinction between requesting someone to perform X and asking someone if the precondition for doing X is achieved, as in (**c**). When the speaker asks about preconditions, no direct request is made.

In most cases, a **request** is not made using a single speech act suddenly uttered. Requesting is typically a speech event, as illustrated in [**44**].

Ex. 44



The lengthy conversation in [**44**] might be classified as a 'requesting' speech event since it lacks a main speech act of request. There is no explicit request from 'him' to 'her' to do anything. We may think of the query 'Do you have a minute?' as a pre-request, enabling the recipient to indicate she is busy or has to be somewhere else. In this situation, the statement 'Sure' affirms the availability of time and willingness to carry out the implicit action.

Besides that, the speech event is the fundamental unit for analyzing verbal interaction in speech communities. It is to verbal interaction analysis what the sentence is to grammar. Hymes (1972) introduced the SPEAKING model of speech analysis, which consists of eight elements that are unified into SPEAKING. They are as follows:

- **S**etting and scene (i.e., situation) refer to the location and time of the interaction. According to Hymes, different psychological settings may occur in the same physical surroundings. Within the same context, people can go from formal to casual, joyful to severe, and so on.
- **P**articipants are those who are involved in the conversation. The first difference is between the *addressee* and the *speaker* (or *sender*). The former is in charge of the message, while the latter is physically delivering it. The second difference, similar to the first, is that between the addressee and the hearer (or receiver). These are usually the same, but not always.
- **E**nds refer to the goal and outcome of a conversation. Outcomes refer to what is commonly expected or publicly proclaimed as the event's object from the community's perspective. In contrast, aims acknowledge that the people involved may have connected goals but not equal to this. We must be careful to identify what is traditionally recognized from what is essentially personal or situational for both outcomes and goals.
- **A**ct of sequence refers to things that are related to the form and substance of a conversation. It refers to the series of activities that comprise a speaking event.
- **Critical** refers to the manner or enthusiasm to carry out a conversation.
- **I**nstrumentalities are the modes of communication employed, such as verbal or nonverbal.
- **N**orms refer to the norms of discussion participant behavior. These will contain basic rules, turn-taking, delivery, subject, and others. Interpretation norms are also critical in speech events and cross-cultural contact in general.
- **G**enres refer to the delivery formats, categories, or languages used, such as novels, films, prayer, and proverbs.

By evaluating the components listed in the SPEAKING theory, it is possible to establish the intended meaning of utterances. The intended meaning will be determined by the time, location, purpose, participants, tone, medium, rules, and speech genre. The context can be used to define the perception of the meaning of utterances.

Analyzing speech events is another way of studying how more gets communicated than is said. Using a speech event for this goal is a significant means of interacting without being confrontational or direct to the listener. As we can see, an indirect speaking act is related to politeness in English. For instances:

First, Zand-Vakili et al. (2012) analyzed the presence of speech events and native speakers' cultural norms in the "FRIENDS" comedy series (Season 1, Episode 1) to investigate such occurrences in media discourse. The results revealed that some specific speech events were more frequent due to the language's situational and contextual context. In the selected sample, the most recurring event in a friendly relationship was confiding one's secrets or personal affairs and problems with one's friends and asking for help, consultation, and sympathy. Teachers and lesson planners in ELT might employ the most common speech events in their teaching sessions to familiarise language learners with events suited for various contexts or scenarios. With this information, language learners may increase their communicative ability and speak more appropriately in related circumstances.

Dawson-Ahmoah (2017) also analyses the frequency of speech events in season 1, episode 1 of "Tinsel," an M-Net African drama series. According to the study, language is a vehicle through which individuals express their attitudes, dissatisfaction, reservations, thoughts, and feelings. According to the data, the most reoccurring occurrence in a friendly connection was sharing a colleague's success story (celebrations), friends supporting one another, and friends counseling.

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Sasongko et al. (2019) researched the emergence of speech events and changes in the usage of the lead character in the film The Greatest Showman. According to the findings, the speech component emerges for each variety of language, and there are four language variants from five distinct languages. The consultative style is the most often employed language by essential personalities, whereas the formal and informal styles are rarely used.

1.4.6 Examples of Speech Acts Analysis

Pragmatics studies the significant elements of language use that rely on the speaker, the addressee, and other qualities of the utterance context. People often use language in both verbal and written forms, such as conversation and writing ideas and thoughts in a book. For example, the writer puts his or her emotions into fairy tale stories so that readers might understand them. These ideas are expressed in speech acts, which are five pragmatically proposed classifications: representatives, directives, comissives, expressive, and declarations. Read carefully the following examples of the analysis of speech acts and how they presented the findings:

Basra and Thoyyibah (2017) researched the speech act classification most commonly used by an EFL instructor during teaching, why particular classifications were favored, and the implications of the chosen speech act classification on teaching and learning. The data revealed that the frequency of each classification was as follows: 70% for instructions, 21% for representational, 6% for expressive, and 3% for comissive. Because the instructor follows the Communicative Language Teaching concept, the teacher usually employs directive speech actsThe use of directive speech appears to have implications for improving the students' productive skills. More directed speech acts are advised for English teachers who want to assist students in attaining communicative competence.

Additionally, (Haucsa et al., 2020) analyzed illocutionary speech acts in Tom Cruise's interview while he promoted his film. This study focuses on the interviewer's and interviewee's responses. The findings revealed four illocutionary speech acts: representation, commissive, directive, and expressive. The representative speech acts were identified as the most frequently performed in that interview. Tom Cruise used his speech to make factual assertions or to express what he felt to be authentic.

It is in line with the findings of a study conducted by (Yuliarti et al., 2021), who examined the fulfillment of felicity conditions in Winfrey's speech entitled *Learn from Every* Mistake and discovered the five types of speech acts fulfilled the felicity conditions. The utterances were all in the directive, declarative, expressive, commissive, or representative speech acts. These speech acts fulfilled the preparatory, propositional content, sincerity, and essential conditions. However, the speech made extensive use of the representative speech act. It was acceptable since the speech was a one-way exchange in which the speaker meant to explain the phenomena based on his or her point of view, with the listener having an unlimited reaction.

Furthermore, (Rais & Triyono, 2019) examined speech acts in an Epic Rap Battles of Presidency video Prabowo vs. Jokowi. This research adheres to Searle's theory of illocutionary acts: assertive (speaker's belief in something), directives (something the listener must do), commissives (self-commitment to doing something), expressive (expression of an attitude or feeling), and declarative (speaker's achievement in his or her life). According to the findings, there are 83 illocutionary actions. The most common acts are aggressive, with a total of 41 or 49%, and commissive, with a total of 1 or 1%. The directive, expressive, and declarative have commonly been discovered for 14 or 17%, 17 or 20%, and 11 or 13%, respectively.

Sintamutiani et al. (2019) examined speech acts in the short novel *Beauty and the Beast*. According to the findings of this study, there are ten speech acts in that short novel. Directives (50%) are the most often used speech act, followed by Representatives (30%), Declarations (10%), and Commissive (5%). (10%). Expressive acts, on the other hand, cannot be identified.

Aside from the literature, (Putri et al., 2019) examined the speech acts in the film Harry Potter and the Goblet of Fire. The findings revealed that the utterances had locutionary acts or declarative, interrogative, imperative, and exclamation. These were utilized to express the direct or indirect illocutionary act of declarative, representative, expressive, directive, and commissive.

Furthermore, the application of the forms and their illocutionary actions resulted in the perlocutionary acts of belief, irritation, surprise, illumination, confirmation, rejection, obedience, information, happiness or satisfaction, and action.

Likewise, (Sari, 2020) investigated the sorts of speech acts employed by the main character in the film “SpongeBob SquarePants”. The findings show that instruction speech acts are the most commonly discovered in SpongeBob SquarePants the movie, accounting for 118 or 44.36% out of 266 or 100%. In terms of the directive speech act as the highest utterance in a cartoon movie, this study is identical to the three previous speech acts journals.

Hate speech runs counter to politeness in a language, which is a sign of linguistic refinement. Nasution et al. (2021) investigated the types of hate speech on Instagram and Twitter platforms. According to the findings, 41 remarks were classified as hate speech in the form of insults, four as defamation, six as blasphemy, and two as provocation. The hate speech is intended against various K-Pop idols, and there are illocutionary insults. There are 12 assertive utterances, three directive utterances, three expressive utterances, and three declarative utterances among the illocutionary acts.

Understanding Tasks

Reference

Exercise 1. ***There are three options that you need to choose the correct one.***

1. An anaphoric reference refers to the subject introduced (later/next/before/earlier) in the sentence.
2. A/An (anaphoric/pronoun/cataphoric/singular) reference refers to a subject introduced later in the sentence.
3. Jasleen and her parents visited Japan last year. (We/They/She/He) had such a great time together.
4. Which of the following is not a singular pronoun? (I/You/She/It)
5. While the older woman was washing clothes one day, a giant peach floated down the river. (He/She/They/We) took the peach home.

Exercise 2. ***Please answer these questions based on your understanding.***

1. To identify a speaker's intentions and beliefs, we can know them through?
2. Please explain the function of reference and inference!
3. He wants to marry a woman with lots of money. From this example, why referent is needed?
4. In your opinion, why is co-text aided referring to expression?
5. Read the following adopted story from (Mccluskey, 2018), and please analyze the ellipsis, anaphora, cataphora, or exophoric.

> After 11-year-old Isabella Pieri lost her mother to a rare illness two years ago, she had no one to help her style her hair. But thanks to her bus driver, Isabella now arrives at school each day with a freshly braided 'do.
>
> According to KSL-TV, Isabella's dad initially gave her a short crew cut following her mom's passing because he didn't know what to do with her hair and he leaves early for work. So when she decided to grow the cut out, she was left to her own coiffing devices.
>
> Luckily, once she saw her bus driver, Tracy Dean, fixing a classmate's braids, Isabella knew where to turn for assistance. Dean now braids Isabella's hair more mornings than not.
>
> "You treat them like your own kids, you know," Dean told KSL of the act of kindness. "Seven years ago, I found out I had breast cancer, and that's one of the things that went though my head — who is going to take care of my little ones? Not that my husband couldn't do it, but you know, that's what moms do. They do their kids' hair."
>
> "It makes me feel like she's a mom pretty much to me," Isabella explained. "And it makes me excited for the next day to see what she does."
>
> The new tradition affects more than just the young girl's appearance. One of her teachers, Mrs. Freeze, commented to KSL, "I just noticed her head was a little higher that morning, and she had a little more of a step."

Exercise 3. ***Please read the speech below, then follow the next instruction.***

> Today June 1, 2022, we commemorate the Birthday of Pancasila in Ende City, East Nusa Tenggara. In this very historic city, Bung Karno, the proclaimer of independence, the Founding Fathers of the Nation contemplated and formulated Pancasila. Which was later ratified by PPKI as the basis of the state and inherited Pancasila for the nation and state.
>
> *Ladies and gentlemen, respected audience,*
>
> From Ende City, I invite all the nation's children wherever they are to share Pancasila and actualize the noble values of Pancasila in the life of society, nation and state.
>
> Not only has Pancasila united us all, it has also become a guiding star when Indonesia faces challenges and tests.
>
> And this has been proven many times in the course of the nation's history, that our nation and state can still stand firmly as a strong country because we all agree to be based on Pancasila.
>
> However, I always remind you that we must truly practice Pancasila and fight for Pancasila.
>
> We embody it in our social, national and state systems. We implement it in governance and also animate the interaction between fellow children of the nation.
>
> This is our collective duty, the duty of all components of the nation to make Pancasila an ideology which is felt by all of Indonesia's bloodshed.
>
> Ladies and gentlemen, currently facing a turbulent world, the Covid-19 pandemic has not yet fully ended and was followed by an energy and food crisis as well as the threat of extreme poverty and hunger as well as war in Ukraine.
>
> (Joko Widodo’s Speech on June 1, 2022)

Please identify the following reference following the preceding speech:

a. Anaphoric reference
b. Cataphoric reference
c. Exophoric reference

Exercise 4. ***Find an international journal article (identically has DOI) about reference analysis, then fill in the following questions***:

The title ……………………………………….

Background of the study

………

Method and theory used in the study

………

The results of the study

………

Benefits that you get from the article

………

Deixis

Exercise 1. *Read the following conversation.*

Lecturer
Assalamu'alaikum. OK, let's begin the class.
How many students will present today?

Student 1
5 students, ma'am.

Lecturer
Okay, you can prepare the devices.

Student 2
The students hasn't come yet, ma'am.

Lecturer
Students who have come can present first.

Student 1
Oh no. I'm not ready, ma'am.

Lecturer
It's okay. We start now.

Students
Yes, ma'am.

Please make a group consisting of 3-4 students and then discuss the deixis within the conversation with your group. After that, present it to your friends and give the reasons!

Exercise 2. *Record your conversation with peers, then follow the instructions below.*

1. The recording must be in 3-5 minutes
2. The transcription must be analyzed using QDA Miner Lite (Coding analysis)
3. Identify the deixis
   a. Personal deixis
   b. Spatial deixis
   c. Temporal deixis

Exercise 3. *Find an international journal article (identically has DOI) about deixis analysis, then fill in the following questions.*

The title ………………………………………

Background of the study

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

Method and theory used in the study

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

The results of the study

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

Benefits that you get from the article

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

Exercise 4. ***Read the following conversation***

After you read the conversation, please determine the following deixis:

1. Personal Deixis
2. Spatial Deixis
3. Temporal Deixis

Speech Acts

Exercise 1. ***For each of the following verbs, determine whether it can be used to perform an illocutionary act. It can give an example of a sentence where it is used to perform an illocutionary act. If it is not an illocutionary verb, determine whether it describes a locutionary act, a perlocutionary act, or neither.***

1. Give
2. Insult
3. Take
4. Prove
5. Shout

Exercise 2. ***Which of the following sentences would typically be considered indirect speech acts?***

1. Open the window!
2. Can you shut the door when you leave?
3. Once again, we respectfully request that you return your verified sketch by June 23.
4. I hereby apologize sincerely for my impolite behavior last night.
5. Sorry!

Exercise 3. ***Please find a credible article about speech acts, then read and answer the following questions:***

The title ………………………………………
Background of the study
…………………………………………………………………………………………………
Method and theory used in the study
…………………………………………………………………………………………………
The results of the study
…………………………………………………………………………………………………
Benefits that you get from the article
…………………………………………………………………………………………………

Exercise 4. ***Please read this conversation below.***

John : Where do you want to go on vacation this school holiday, Thor?

Thor : I would like to spend the school vacation this year at my grandma's house in the village. How about you, John?

John : I want to see my aunt in the village of Baradatu, Thor.

Thor : Wow, this is amazing. I love the peaceful countryside setting.

John : Does your grandma reside in the countryside as well?

Thor : That is right, but the atmosphere has changed, so my grandma lives in a semi-urban region.

John : Oh, I understand. If my aunt's house is still charming.

Thor : I want to enjoy the atmosphere without being bothered by crowds.

John : Exactly, Thor.

Thor : Please give my greetings to your aunt.

John : All right, I will give your greetings to her, as well as greetings to your grandma.

Thor : Send my greetings, and do not forget the gifts.

John : Of course, my friend.

Thor : Have a wonderful holiday season, my buddy.

John : You too. I hope to make friends happy.

After you read the conversation, please categorize which utterances represent the following speech acts:

The category	**The utterances**
a. Direct speech act	
b. Indirect speech act	
c. Felicity Condition	
d. Propositonal content conditions	
e. Preparatory conditions	
f. Sincerity conditions	
g. Essential conditions	

Chapter 2

Presupposition and Implicature

2.1 Presupposition

Estimation, bias, guessing, and presuppositions are all synonyms for **presupposition**. This term is used when one statement appears to presume and imply another. A sentence can presume another sentence if the second phrase's falsehood causes the first sentence to be inaccurate or untrue. There are two types of presuppositions in pragmatic studies: semantic presupposition and pragmatic presupposition. A semantic presupposition is an assumption derived from a speech based on the utterance's meaning syntactically or grammatically. In contrast, a pragmatic presupposition is based on grammatical meaning and the intent of the statement contextually. The gap between what is stated and what is meant can be filled with pragmatic presuppositions.

A **presupposition** is a background belief that the speaker and addressee must be mutually known or assumed for the utterance to be considered appropriately. It can generally be associated with a specific lexical item or grammatical feature (presupposition trigger) in the utterance. It will remain a necessary assumption whether the utterance is an assertion, denial, or question.

In short, it is an assumption that the hearer implicitly makes upon a particular context within an interaction. The speaker assumes this is the case before making an utterance. The assumption is related to an utterance whose degree of truth is often disregarded in a particular discourse. Miscommunication may occur if the addressee does not know the information. For instance, we say the sentence:

Ex. 45 *"I used to be the deputy chairman of that organization."*

It is assumed that "he was formerly a deputy chairman" or "he resigned from the position of deputy chairman." Furthermore, presupposition should be acknowledged by mutual comprehension from both the speaker and the hearer to reflect the connected utterance as context-appropriate. This pragmatic item's unique idea implies that denial cannot affect an assumption. For example, if a speaker spoke as in (**46**).

Ex. 46 *"My life is going to be ended here."*
"My life will not be ended here."

These both signify that the speaker has a life.

Above all, the presupposition is seen as a connection between two assertions. If we claim that the phrase in (**47a**) includes the proposition p and the sentence in (**47b**) has the preposition q, then we may symbolize the connection using the symbol >> to indicate 'presupposes' as in (**47c**).

Ex. 47 a. Will's car is fabulous. (= p)

b. Will has a car. (= q)

c. $p >> q$

In contrast, when we produce the opposite of the sentence by negating it (= NOT p), as in (**48a**), we find that the relationship of presupposition does not change. That is, the same proposition q, repeated as (**48b**), continues to be presupposed by NOT p, as shown in (**48c**).

Ex. 48 a. Will's car is not fabulous. (= NOT *p*)

b. Will has a car. (= *q*)

c. NOT *p* >> *q*

This property of presupposition is generally described as constancy under negation. It means that the presupposition of a statement will remain constant (still valid) even when that statement is negated.

Ex. 49 *I am in the third grade of junior high school and live with my three best friends, Aris, Andri, and Ana, daily. We have known each other since we were kids. We once created a friendship agreement letter on a piece of paper and placed it in a bottle, which was then buried under a tree to open the letter when we received the graduation test results.*

The short story excerpt (**49**) revealed a presumption that the writers, Aris, Andri, and Ana, are in the same grade at school. Hence they must be in the same class, even if it is not explicitly stated. Only the writer mentions that he is in third-grade junior high school in the text. However, the final sentence, [which was then buried (the bottle) under a tree to open the letter when we received the graduation test results], indicates that they will participate in the graduation ceremony together.

According to (Domaneschi, 2016), the distinction between explicit and implicit meaning has resulted in the identification of four significant levels of meaning that characterize a speaker's speech in a specific context of use: a) the meaning of the statement, b) what said, c) the degree of presuppositions, and d) the level of implied implicatures.

- *Sentence meaning*: Determining the conventional meaning of each expression in the sentence and the syntactic rules of the specific language, which states that the meaning of a sentence is given by the meanings of its constituent expressions and the rules used to combine them. Because this level of meaning is independent of the context of the speech, it cannot convey complete propositional content outside of the context of utterance (content that can be evaluated as true or false).
- *What is said*: When a speaker says a statement in the context of a conversation, semantic processes such as the disambiguation of homonymous and polysemic phrases augment the sentence meaning with contextual information.
- *Presupposition*: An utterance in a specific situation is always understandable and then assessed against a backdrop of implicit information connected to that utterance and assumed by the interlocutors.
- *Implicatures*: After determining what is stated, speakers might derive the amount of what is implicated, that is, what a speaker intends to express, without making it explicit.

2.1.1 Entailment

Entailment (also known as logical implication or consequence) is a critical semantic connection. Putri Indarti (2015) examined the difference between entailment and presupposition. It is challenging to distinguish entailment from presupposition since their semantic relationship appears identical. Based on the context, both entailment and assumption have an automatic link. Those semantic connections can still be distinguished by applying the negation test to determine if a pair is an entailment or presupposition.

This connection can be characterized by validating inference rules or the assignment of truth and falsity (Lafi, 2008). In addition, Cruse (2000), as cited in Bouzou (2018), emphasized that the truth values of a statement are what is considered "truth" or "falsity" in a sentence. Furthermore, the truth or falsehood of a linguistic unit indicates the expression of at least one proposition. On the other hand, imperative and direct interrogative statements have no truth value. Instead, they have an answer value, such as:

Ex. 50 a. What day is today?

b. It is Friday today.

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In (**50a**), the inquiry has no truth value since it aims to get a response that will move the speaker closer to the unknown truth. In (**50b**), the truth value of the answer is conditional on fulfilling the truth conditions of the speakers' reality, i.e., if it is indeed Friday, it is True; otherwise, it is False.

Entailment is a term that refers to a specific type of relationship between two phrases. Entailment states that if one phrase is accurate, another sentence must also be true "*the second sentence is entailed by the first one*". It is anything that logically follows what is said in the utterance in terms of presupposition.

Presupposition and implicature are related concepts to entailment. A presupposition is a foundational premise that must be confirmed before entailment occurs. For example, whether I will be 28 this year assumes I am genuine. Entailment differs from implicature in that implicature indicates that the truth of A suggests, rather than requires, the truth of B. For example, statement A, "I am writing these words," implies assertion B, "I am human."

The idea of logical consequence is closely connected to the concept of entailment. Sentences, not the speaker, have entailments. Another way to establish entailment between two phrases is to show that if one sentence is untrue, the other must also be wrong. The notion that if A is true, B must also be true is a logical entailment. For instance:

Ex. 51 Statement A: "I will turn 23 this year."

Statement B: "I am now alive"

Entailment is present in this case since the fact of A requires the reality of B: if I am not now living, I cannot age, and so I will not reach 23 this year. The truth of A requires the truth of B. It is the precise meaning of entailment. Similarly, entailment means that if B is untrue, then A is likewise wrong. If I am now dead, then A must be untrue because I could not attain the age of 23. Entailment is present in the connection between A and B once more.

Some of the presumed information linked with the utterance of (**52**) can be identified.

Ex. 52 John's sister brought a truck of flowers.

The speaker will generally be assumed to hold the presuppositions that a person named John exists and that he has a sister when delivering the utterance (**52**). The speaker may also have the more particular assumptions that John has just one sister and that she is very wealthy. All of these assumptions might be incorrect.

The line in (**52**) will imply that John's sister delivered anything, drove a truck, brought loads of flowers, and various other logical outcomes. These implications arise from the phrase, regardless of whether the speaker's opinions are correct. They converse without saying anything. Because of its logical structure, entailment is not as well explored in current pragmatics as the more speaker-dependent idea of presupposition.

Ex. 53 *The day the four of us had been waiting arrived. We also received the exam results, and the results all four of us passed.*

In the example above, there are four persons at the beginning of the statement, which implies that four people receive the test results and all four pass the exam.

Domaneschi (2016) added that the collection of ordered entailments is then derived by inserting quantified existential variables in all sentence elements beginning with the focus. The first background entailment and all the other entailments comprise the sentence's background entailments, which are differentiated by the feature of being "not relevant." In contrast, all of the entailments added to the background that make up the foreground entailments allow us to discern the relevant information given by the utterance.

2.1.2 Types of Presupposition

Presupposition has been related to the use of a significant number of words, phrases, and structures in examining how speakers' assumptions are frequently articulated. These language forms will be considered signs of prospective presuppositions, which can only become genuine presuppositions in settings with speakers. Here are the potential presupposition indicators, which are described in **Table 2.1**.

Table 2.1 Types of Presupposition

No	Type (s)	Example	Presupposition
1	Existential	The X	>> X exists.
2	Factive	I regret leaving.	>> I left.
3	Lexical	He managed to escape.	>> He tried to escape.
4	Structural	When did she die?	>> She died.
5	Non-factive	He pretended to be happy.	>> He was not happy.
6	Counter-factual	If I were not ill, ...	>> I am ill.

Further description of **Table 2.1** is explained below:

A. **Existential presupposition—**An existential presupposition is presumed to be present in possessive formations and any definite noun phrase. For example:

Ex. 54 The King of Sweden, the cat, the boy next door, the Counting Crows.

Ex. 55 The Prince of Majapahit

By employing any of the phrases in (**54**), it is presumed that the speaker believes the things specified exist. Also, the example in (**55**) *The Prince of Majapahit* presupposes the prince's name.

B. **Factive presupposition—** The verb's information implied can be considered a fact and is referred to as a factive presupposition. For example:

Ex. 56 "Even though I really love you, I love you, but you left me so quickly."

The example (**56**) in the speech I love you is the information presupposed after the verb. The verb is "love".

C. **Lexical presupposition—**The use of one form with its declared meaning is commonly interpreted with the assumption that another (non-asserted) meaning is understood. It is known as a lexical presupposition.

Ex. 57 She *managed* her working hours well.

When you say in (**57**) that she "managed" to do something, you indicate that she was successful somehow. When you say someone "did not manage," the underlying implication is that she failed. However, in both cases, there is a non-asserted presumption that the individual "tried" to do that thing. As a result, "managed" is commonly read as asserting "success" and implying "tried".

Other examples in (**58**) involve the lexical items 'stop', 'start', and 'again', which are presented with their presuppositions as follows:

Ex. 58 a. He stopped smoking. (>> *He used to smoke*)
b. They started complaining. (>> *They were not complaining before*)
c. You are late again. (>> *You were late before*)

In lexical presupposition, the speaker's use of a specific phrase is assumed to presuppose another (unstated) notion. However, in the case of factive presupposition, the speaker's use of a specific expression is assumed to presuppose the truth of the information said after it.

Ex. 59 *I was silent hearing my mother's words, and my tears fell. My tears did not stop hearing my mother's statement*.

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The lexical assumption in the above example is that the speaker is constantly sobbing.

D. **Structural presupposition—**The structural presupposition assumes that part of the structure is already actual. Speakers can utilize such structures to regard information as presupposed (i.e., presumed to be confirmed) and so be accepted as valid by the hearer. For examples:

Ex. 60 a. When did he leave? (>> He left)

b. Where did you buy the phone? (>> You bought the phone)

The type of presupposition illustrated in (**60**) can lead hearers to believe that the information presented is accurate rather than just the presupposition of the person asking the question. The wh-question construction in English, as shown in (**60a**) and (**60b**), is conventionally interpreted with the presupposition that the information after the wh-form is already known to be the case.

Ex. 61 *On the way home, I did not feel well for some reason*.
"I do not feel perfect, do I?" I said, worried.

The graphic demonstrated that the speaker did not feel good, but she told her companions about it by asking questions.

E. **Non-factive presupposition—**We have only looked at situations where presuppositions are presumed valid. A non-factive assumption, on the other hand, is presumed to be false. For examples:

Ex. 62 a. I *dream*ed that I was rich. (>> I was not rich)

b. We *imagine*d we were in Korea. (>> We were not in Korea)

c. She *pretend*s to be ill. (>> She is not ill)

Verbs such as 'dream', 'imagine', and 'pretend', as indicated in (**62**), are employed with the assumption that what follows is false.

Ex. 63 "Mother, where am I? Where are Ana, Andri, and Aris?" I asked.

"You are at the hospital, son. You are patient. Andri and Aris were not helped at the accident," replied the mother, shedding tears.

When she asked, "Where am I?" The speaker realized she was at the hospital by observing the surroundings, but she could not find her companions who had accompanied her.

F. **Counter-factual presupposition—**a counter-factual presupposition that what is assumed is not only false but also the inverse of what is true, or 'contrary to the fact'. Consider the following example:

Ex. 64 *He is dead.*

"Come on, just relax. We are not going to do anything wrong," answered Andri casually.

In the preceding case (**64**), the contrary occurred; something occurred that was not expected. He did not think his friend would die.

2.1.3 The Projection Problem

Many challenges associated with purely semantic methods disappear when presupposition is defined in terms of the common ground shared by the speaker and hearer. The critical issue in most of the problematic examples we have observed is that mutual knowledge, context, and information offered in the speech—all pragmatic features of the discourse—can outweigh the assumption (Birner, 2013). Consider the following analysis:

Balogun and Murana (2018) explore the pragmatic assumptions made and politeness methods deployed by President Donald Trump in his inauguration speech. The inaugural address is crucial to the inauguration rituals and is typically expected for its comforting promises and reassurances. The speech's text is obtained from the internet to assure correctness, and the ninety-nine phrases are serially numbered for ease of reference and careful examination. The study demonstrates that Trump assumes, among other things, the event's uniqueness, America's socioeconomic disaster, and the need and immediacy of the need to save her.

The presence of non-factive presupposition is part of an intriguing topic for analyzing utterances with complicated structures known as the **projection problem**. It is a basic assumption that the premise of a simple phrase will be valid when that simple sentence is combined with a more complicated one. It is one interpretation of the fundamental principle that the meaning of a phrase is a sum of its parts' meanings. However, the meaning of specific presuppositions (referred to as 'parts') does not survive to become the meaning of some complicated sentences (referred to as 'wholes').

2.1.4 Examples of Presupposition Analysis

The use of pragmatic context influences the perception and understanding of presupposition triggers. Many scholars have spent decades investigating these triggers to uncover the implicit meanings of utterances. Some research on presupposition is provided below as examples.

This study discussed one of the famous pop songs by Michael Joseph Jackson, *Heal the World*. The song is dedicated to underprivileged youngsters all across the world. In an interview, he stated that this was one of the most popular songs he had ever written. The title of this song is also the name of a charitable organization formed by the King of Pop. Heal The World Foundation is dedicated to improving poor children's lives. The charity also intends to teach youngsters how to help one another. Michael Jackson realized his love for children through 'Heal the World' and developed Neverland to manifest his love for children. Even though it was written for children, the lyrics of 'Heal the World,' which depict dreams for a brighter tomorrow, are seen to be inspirational.

The study was designed to use a descriptive qualitative research method. It investigates natural object situations (as opposed to experiments) in which the researcher is a powerful instrument, data is collected using triangulation, inductive data analysis, or qualitative analysis, and qualitative research outcomes prioritize meaning over universality.

Below are five verses of lyrics as existential, three factive, two non-factive, and six counter-factual presuppositions.

- Existential presupposition
  - *There are people dying. If you care enough for the living, make a better place for you and for me.* It is told that the world is horrible, that many people are dying, and that this is still true.
  - *If you want to know why there's a love that cannot lie, love is strong. It only cares for joyful giving. If we try we shall see. In this bliss, we cannot feel, fear or dread, we stop existing and start living.* According to the lyrics, there is true love in giving.
  - *Then it feels that always, love's enough for us growing, make a better world.* They are consistent with the reality that love may make life better.
  - *Then why do we keep strangling life, wound this earth crucify its soul.* The lyrics are believed to be hurtful to the globe, which is accurate.
  - *In my heart I feel, you are all my brothers.* The lyrics state that you are my brother, which is correct for all brothers.
- Factive presupposition
  - *There's a place in your heart, and I know that it is love, and this place could be much, brighter than tomorrow.* There is a message in these four words that there is a spot in your heart that is love but you do not aware you have that which even love can shine tomorrow.
  - *In this place you'll feel, there's no hurt or sorrow.* It conveys a message to a person who is unhappy at that location, although he is unaware of it.
  - *Though it's plain to see this world is heavenly, be God's glow.* There is a world of bliss, but you are unaware of it.
- Non-factive presupposition
  - *There are ways to get there, if you care enough for the living, make a little space make a better place.* The lyrics' meaning can lead to a better life, yet they do nothing to achieve it.
  - *We could fly so high, let our spirits never die.* We can fly high, yet we do not.

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- Counter-factual presupposition
  - *And if you really try, you'll find there's no need to cry.* It conveys a message of always being happy person.
  - *Heal the world, make it a better place, for you and for me and the entire human race*. They have the meaning of "let us cure the world," yet they have not truly healed the entire world.
  - *And the dream we would conceive in, will reveal a joyful face, and the world we once believed in, will shine again in grace.* The dream world seems lovely in the lyrics but is not in reality.
  - *Create a world with no fear, together we cry happy tears, see the nations turn their swords into low shares.* They behave as though they are joyful, but they are not.
  - *We could really get there, if you cared enough for the living, make a little space to make a better place.* They visualize a better place but have not done anything to improve it.
  - *You and for me heal the world we live in. You and for me save it for our children*. They assume that they can repair the world, but the fact is that they cannot.

The 20 data of existential presupposition are the most common among the 49 data sets examined. This assumption is commonly held since a song in one lyric language does not just explain one but several. The minor data is a non-factive assumption with 5 data. This data is because this assumption is relatively simple to grasp, with simple and less fascinating language.

This song implies that appeals for peace demonstrate how we care about the globe to provide a better future for our children and grandchildren. This song's words are profound, in addition to its compassionate tone. The theme of this song, Heal the World, is evident from the title itself.

A presupposition is found in song lyrics and the presidential farewell speech. This qualitative study examined semantic presupposition in a farewell video speech of Barack Obama. Below are the examples of each presupposition's findings:

- Existential presupposition
  - *That's when I understood that change can only occur if the citizens actively act, and unite to demand change*. It indicates that what the people say represents the people of the Unified States who are united and want to see a change. Describe their existence.
  - *A peaceful transfer of power and a president the citizens freely elect to the next president.* It discusses what the presidential changeover meant as an identity or the life of Americans who had the freedom to choose.
  - *It should be understood that democracy not required uniformity*. This speech provides the meaning of a speech that is not overwhelming and has a moral message that all parties may take.
  - *The founders of our country argue, fight and compromise, and they expect us to do the same. But they understand that democracy requires a sense of solidarity. a thought that even though we are different outside, we are still one. that we wake up and fall together*. The president stated that these individuals exist and that he is transmitting guidance phrases to such citizens. Words that might inspire hope and optimism.
- Factive presupposition
  - *Democracy is a difficult, challenging and sometimes bloody job. for every two steps ahead, sometimes we have to take a step back.* It indicated that what is said has genuine meaning, is not made up, and agrees with what is presented based on what occurred.
- Structural presupposition
  - *If I promised you eight years ago. that I will reverse the prolonged recession, restart the American automotive industry, and create the greatest employment opportunities in the country's history.* It demonstrates how the speaker explained based on the statistics over his reign while in President's office.
- Counter-factual presupposition
  - *We have everything needed to do that. we have everything needed to overcome that challenge. after all, we are still the most influential and respected richest country in the world. young soul and our passion, our diversity and openness. unlimited capacity to risk change. meaning that the future can be ours.* These sentences are solely conveyed in terms of expressing excitement.

Because the speech has many meanings that explain that the speech presented corresponds to the situation of the country and does not induce mutual ignorance in the act of democracy, the existential presupposition is the most frequently transmitted in the speech.

This research investigates the various forms and roles of presupposition triggers in Pakistani political memoirs. According to George Yule's methodology, two Pakistani political memoirs, Pakistan: A Personal History by Imran Khan and In the Line of Fire: A Memoir by Pervaiz Musharaf, were investigated. The findings demonstrated that both writers used distinct presupposition triggers to point to different political occurrences. Also, it revealed that existential and factual presupposition triggers were employed to their full potential in both autobiographies.

In descending order, counterfactual conditionals, lexical presupposition triggers, structural presupposition triggers, and non-factive items were employed. It was discovered that the functioning of these presupposition triggers in political memoirs elicited various assumptions. At the same time, a few changes were discovered in both autobiographies; nonetheless, they were minor. They primarily activate political and personal functions in the literature (Shamim & Kanwal, 2022).

Furthermore, (Puksi, 2018) investigated how a comic builds strategy through presumption in contributing to the development of a humor impact in stand-up comedy. In order to provide a complete and detailed understanding, a qualitative descriptive approach was used in this study. This study used fifteen (15) stand-up comedy videos hosted by Raditya Dika on YouTube. All obtained data was transcribed, and 60 statements were chosen to represent the whole transcript data. Six hundred fifty-one presuppositions revealed in 60 statements lead to the development of humor effects. The cognitive process, semantic mechanism, and contextual speech all play a role in producing the consequences of humor.

At the cognitive process level, the researcher discovers that if there is a presupposition with distinct and contradictory viewpoints in a statement, it will contribute to the creation of comedy. By referencing the earlier statement, the latter phrase's presuppositions might generate comedy at the semantic mechanism level. Presupposition will contribute to humor formation in contextual discourse if it breaches the conversational maxim.

Specifically, Roza and Ayumi (2020) explored pragmatics analysis of presuppositions as seen in horror movie poster taglines. This study aimed to identify presupposition triggers and types of presuppositions in the taglines of horror movie posters. The analysis's output includes an argument and a table. The results suggest that specific descriptions are the most major presupposition triggers among the 42 presupposition triggers discovered in the taglines of horror movie posters. Other presupposition triggers include state verb changes, factive verbs, and counterfactual conditionals. Meanwhile, out of the six categories of presuppositions, only four are featured in horror movie taglines: existential presupposition, lexical presupposition, factual presupposition, and counterfactual assumption.

Also, (Risdianto et al., 2019) aimed to explore the pragmatics presupposition in George Orwell's novella Animal Farm. It attempts to identify and categorize the presuppositions used in discourse in Orwell's novella. The identification and categorization are based on presupposition triggers and six categories of presupposition. The study will also look into the role of presumption in a discussion. The findings revealed that there are 180 presuppositions: 69 (38,3%) existential triggered by definite description and possessive construction, 35 (19,4%) lexical triggered by a change of state verb; implicative predicate; iterative, 53 (29,4%) structural triggered by wh-question, 4 (2,2%) factive triggered by a factive verb or predicate aware and glad, as well as 19 (10,6%) non-factive. According to Jakobson's six languages function, there are five functions of presupposition in the novella: 57 (47,9%) referential, 33 (27,7%) emotional, 25 (21,1%) conative, 3 (2,5%) poetics, and 1 (0,8%) phatic. As a result, the use of referential function in applying presupposition is regarded as the most common.

Finally, Sulistyaning Tyas et al. (2020) investigated how presupposition triggers were realized in the English lecturer at the State Institute for Islamic Studies (IAIN) Salatiga. The findings revealed that various kinds of presupposition triggers are realized: definite description, factive verb, implicative verb, change of state verb, an iterative verb of judgment, temporal phrase, comparison and contrast, non-restrictive relative clause, and questioning. Example of a factive verb: *Look for the keywords, ok. So you find the keyword first to get the idea and do the scanning. But be careful. If you remember, scanning and skimming are different.* The lecturer recommended that a female student double-check her tactics for

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obtaining the primary notion. He informs her that she has to alter her plan. The most common type is definite description, which has the straightforward structure of possessive construction and definite noun phrase. Another significant finding is the inclination to use questions as the following preferred triggers.

2.2 Implicature and Cooperation

We believe that participants in a conversation are typically cooperative with one another. Hearers must typically accept that a speaker who says [*my cat*] has the cat specified and is not attempting to deceive the hearer. This idea of cooperation is simply one in which persons conversing are not expected to confuse, deceive, or hide crucial information from one another. In most cases, this type of cooperation is merely the beginning of making meaning of what is spoken. Imagine the following illustration when the speaker intends to communicate more than is said:

In the middle of their lunch hour, one man asks another how he likes the chocolate he is eating.

"**Chocolate is chocolate**," he says.

From a logical standpoint, the response appears to have no communication value because it states something obvious. The hearer must first presume that the speaker is cooperative and means to impart anything to his friend who heard that expression. It is a further transmitted meaning known as an **implicature**. By stating it, the speaker expects the listener to be able to deduce the implicature meant in this context based on what is previously known.

We have all experienced the experience of having our statements misconstrued or taken out of context. Even if someone heard our words, they might have misinterpreted our intentions or aspirations. It is the kind of misunderstanding that pragmatics may study — both what we mean to say and how others might interpret our messages.

For many linguists, the notion of 'implicature' is one of the central concepts in pragmatics. In art, the verb implicates and the related nouns implicature (cf. implying) and implicatum (cf. what is implied). Therefore, an implicature is an intended meaning or implied information within utterances. It is not a part of the speech implying something (Rahardi, 2019; Suhartono, 2020). For instance:

+ Where is Patrick, *Sen*?
- *Tom* is at his mom's house now.

It is clear that the speech included in (+) is unrelated to the speech (–) and that the speech (–) appears to deviate from the speech (+). However, the speech (–) does contain implicature elements. It is indicated that [Tom] is a close friend of [Patrick]. If [Tom] is at his mom's house, the implication is that [Patrick] is also at the house of Tom's mom.

Implicatures, unlike presuppositions or entailments, are **cancellable**—that is, they can be negated without contradicting oneself or stating something indefensible. Look at the examples:

- Jessie has two cars, but (in fact) she has one car. (implicature *is* cancellable)
- Lee and Kim have read Alice in Wonderland, but Lee has not read Alice in Wonderland (entailment *is* not cancellable)
- Tasya's sister is visiting, but Tasya does not have a sister. (presupposition *is* not cancellable)

From the initial conversation, it is evident that anything implied is not a part of the speech presented. It even seems as if the speech, which is the response to the previous speech, is apart from the form of speech. What is implicated was further subdivided into conventionally and non-conventionally, with conversational implicatures representing a subset of the latter (Grice, 1975).

Hence, three significant representations of what is implicated emerged: conventional implicature, conversational implicature, and non-conventional, non-conversational implicature. Grice spoke little about non-conventional non-conversational implicatures, but he did hint in passing that they may include other aspects of pragmatic meaning, such as politeness or irony. Therefore, the common types of implicatures are **conventional implicature** (elicited by specific words) and **conversational implicature** (determined using the Cooperative Principle and specific maxims).

2.2.1 Conventional Implicature

As mentioned previously, conventional implicature is part of the acknowledged meaning of a lexical item or expression rather than generated from rules of language usage. It is not part of the requirements for the item's or expression's truth (Levinson, 1983).

Conventional implicatures are elicited by specific words and result in extra transmitted meanings when those words are employed (Yule, 1996). This implicature does not depend on the context and cannot be described logically as a calculable implicature. The English coordinator [*but, even, yet*] implies a contrast between the two clauses or that it is somehow surprising to assert the second one. Take a look at the following examples:

a. Jesse suggested white, but I chose black. (*contrast to*)
b. Even John came to the graduation. (*contrary to expectation*)
c. April is not here yet. (*expected to be confirmed later*)

Any utterance of type *P* but *Q* will be interpreted based on the conjunction *P* & *Q* with an implication of 'contrast' between the information in *P* and the information in *Q*. Meanwhile, the conventional implicature of [even] adds a 'contrary to expectation' interpretation of that event (**b**). Then, the conventional implicature of [yet] in (**c**) is that the current situation is expected to be different, or even the reverse, at a later period.

Speaker A : I went to *Toko 5000* yesterday.

Speaker B : *Toko 5000*? What exactly is it?

Speaker A : *Toko 5000* is where the average item costs Rp. 5.000.

Speaker B : Oh, really? I had a feeling. Where is the location?

Speaker A : Jl. Gatot Subroto, near my residence.

Speaker B : What goods are available there?

Speaker A : A variety of items, including school supplies, books, paper, pens, and household utensils.

Speaker B : What did you buy there the day before?

Speaker A : I only purchased a dozen pens.

Speaker B : How much does it cost?

Speaker A : Yes, Rp. 5.000. *Toko 5000* is another name for it.

Speaker B : A dozen of pens Rp. 5.000? So, each pen costs less than Rp. 500? Are you sure it is a good pen?

Speaker A : That is all right. I purchased it for myself and my sisters.

Speaker B : I would like to buy it as well. Could I use one of your pens?

Speaker A : This.

Speaker B : Thank you very much. I will be there later that evening.

The conversation above gives an example of an expectation to be accurate, on the utterance "A dozen of pens Rp. 5.000? So, each pen costs less than Rp. 500? Are you sure is it a good pen?", there were doubts from the speaker, with the price of the pen, whether it can get good quality.

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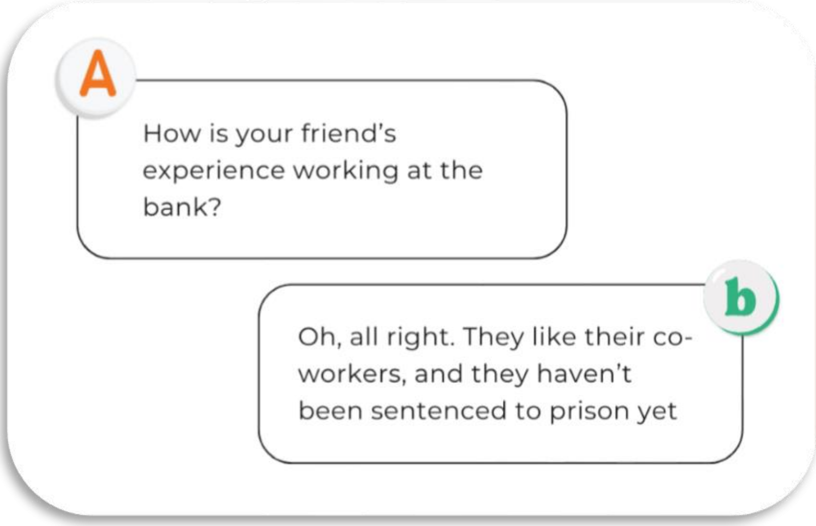
2.2.2 Conversational Implicature and Cooperative Principle

Pragmatics is mainly concerned with the use of language in specific settings. Thus, a speaker must use language successfully in everyday communication. Language effectiveness cannot be separated from cooperative principles. A succession of communicative statements is the most significant aspect of a communication process. The purpose is for the speaker's language to represent what he wants to express and for the speaker's listeners to grasp what is delivered via speech. Some things we say do not fit our words' logical or literal sense. Consider the following example that is derived from (Grice, 1975):



Picture 2.1 Example of Conversational Implicature

What does B mean when he says [their friends haven't been sentenced yet?] They may imply a variety of things: perhaps B enjoys telling jokes, or perhaps their friend is not always trustworthy, or perhaps they mean that if you did not like working at a bank, you would steal money.

The context will determine the actual meaning given, which includes what A and B both know, their connection to one another, and B's buddy, among other things. Whatever B means, it is evident that when they say "they have not been sentenced to prison yet," they are expressing more than simply the literal sense of their words! Many people have never gone to prison! What is the significance of B bringing it up?

Depending on these principles, the meaning given by an utterance is its **conversational implicature**. These implicatures come from the structure of speech or conversation, based on our understanding of communication. One hallmark of a conversational implicature is that its contribution to the meaning of the utterance is not truth-conditional, and it is context-dependent: If the context were different, this particular form might not give rise to the same implicature.

Conversational implicatures emerge in the context of a broad **Cooperative Principle** for communication. The notion behind this theory is that when we talk with others, we presume that we are all working toward a shared objective (or goals), and we may interpret what they say accordingly. Therefore, in the dialogue above, speaker A may presume that B added that their friends had not been sentenced to prison yet for some reason—they did not just add a true but irrelevant remark to the conversation for no reason!

Grice provided four more particular maxims under the overall title of the Cooperative Principle (Grice, 1975):

Table 2.2 Gricean Maxims

No	Gricean Maxims	Sub-Maxims
1	Maxim of Quantity	▪ 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.
2	Maxim of Quality	▪ Do not say what you consider to be untrue. ▪ Do not say anything unless you have sufficient evidence.
3	Maxim of Relation	Provide relevant information
4	Flouting Maxim of Manner	Avoid obscurity of expression, avoid ambiguity, be brief, and be orderly.

These maxims can be applied in two ways: by complying (observing) with them or by rejecting them, which can be divided into two types: violating the maxims and causing them to flout.

Observing the maxims entails speaking or communicating following the provisions outlined in each of the maxims listed above. It occurs in order to deceive a listener by revealing just the surface meaning of a speech (Cutting & Fordyce, 2021a). In addition, (Culperer & Haugh, 2014) emphasized that violating a maxim entails the speaker's purposeful failure to observe a maxim in a way others would not recognize under normal circumstances.

There are several ways to violate the maxims, including 1) Quietly and unobtrusively violate a maxim; if the speaker does, it may mislead in some circumstances; 2) *Opt-out* the operation of both the maxim and the cooperative principle; the speaker may state, suggest, or make it clear that s/he is unwilling to comply in the manner required by the maxim; 3) Just utter—[I cannot say anything else because my lips are sealed]; 4) Face a *clash*, such as being unable to fulfill the first maxim of quantity without jeopardizing the second maxim of quality, and 5) *Flout* a maxim, which means s/he will blatantly fail to fulfill it.

If we violate a maxim, he or she does it in such a way that the violation of the maxim is evident to others under normal circumstances by plainly failing to fulfill it. In contrast, if someone purposefully stops using maxims to persuade their listeners to infer the underlying meaning behind their statements, they are **flouting** maxims (Culperer & Haugh, 2014). The following table contains several speakers' intentions that can be categorized as flouting maxim:

Table 2.3 Flouting Maxims

No	Flouting Maxims	Speaker's intention (implicature) of Flouting the Maxims
1	Flouting Maxim of Quantity	▪ To give clear information ▪ To stress something ▪ To avoid an unpleasant situation
2	Flouting Maxim of Quality	▪ To make a joke for the speaker felt like being imposed ▪ To give clear information
3	Flouting Maxim of Relation	To be polite
4	Flouting Maxim of Manner	To make a joke

Flouting that violates the maxim of *quality* occurs when the speaker asserts anything false or for which he or she lacks acceptable proof. A violation of the maxim of *quantity* happens when a speaker offers more or less information than the context demands. Exceptions to the maxim of *relation* include shifting the subject or neglecting to address the matter directly.

2.2.3 Gricean Maxims

In daily conversation, however, it is essential to recognize these maxims as an underlying assumption in dialogue. We want people to provide appropriate information; we expect them to express the truth, be relevant, and be as straightforward as possible. Let us try to analyze the maxims in this conversation below.

Namo	:	Din, where are you going on vacation this semester break?
Dini	:	I am going to Grandpa's home in the village. What are your plans, Nam?
Namo	:	It symbolizes that there are still numerous buffaloes and rice fields in the village. My family and I are planning a vacation to Lombok Island, you know? An island near the island of Bali.
Dini	:	Despite my Grandpa's home being in the village, there are no buffalo. Modern agricultural tools are used to plow the land. Many of Grandpa's rice fields have been cut and replaced by residences.
Namo	:	Oh, that is terrible. The atmosphere will not improve since there will be no more rice fields or buffaloes. So, what are your plans for your visit to Grandpa's village?
Dini	:	As usual, I will assist with his work. For example, I am planting rice, harvesting rice, and so on. So, where will you go to Lombok later? May I request souvenirs from Lombok?
Namo	:	Later in Lombok, I will head to Gili Island and go diving because I enjoy diving.
Dini	:	Wow, it must be a lot of fun. Can I request souvenirs from Lombok?
Namo	:	Sure, you can. What do you want to ask for?
Dini	:	Please bring me some beach sand and sea coral.
Namo	:	Ha ha. OK, I'll bring you a sack of sand and coral.
Dini	:	Ha ha ha, that is cool. Have a happy holiday. I'm waiting.
Namo	:	Yes, Din. Thank you.
Dini	:	You're welcome.

From the conversation between Namo and Dini, the maxims that can be identified are: a) Maxim of Quality, when Dini confesses the truth about going to her Grandpa's village for the holidays, as in [I am going to Grandpa's home in the village]; b) Maxim of Quantity, when Dini explains why there are no buffalo in the village, as in [Even though my Grandpa's home is in the village, there are no buffalo]; c) Maxim of Manner when Namo responds to Dini's request, it demonstrates a concise and unambiguous response, as in [Sure, you can], and d) Maxim of Relation since the question and response are inextricably linked.

1. Maxim of Quantity

This maxim includes two submaxims: make your contribution as informative as is required (for the current purposes of the exchange) and do not make your contribution more informative than is required. For instances:

1. The blind man is a masseur.
2. The person who cannot see is the masseur.

The utterance in (1) is considered more informative and contains truth value. Everyone knows that blind people cannot see. Thus, the element [cannot see] in utterance (2) is considered redundant. The existence of an element that cannot be seen in (2) is considered contrary to the maxim of quantity because it adds a thing that is already obvious and does not need further explanation.

Here is a mini-dialogue between Dino and Dimi with the illustration as follows:

One day, Dino and Dimi were playing in the yard. They were both surprised by the quiet atmosphere of the environment.

Dino	:	"Well, why are our surroundings so quiet, Dim?" (shocked)
Dini	:	"Right, Din, it is Corona season."
Dino	:	"However, what will happen to our surroundings if it is so quiet?" (A bit glumly)

Dini : "I am also sad when our surroundings are quiet," Dimi says. We seldom play, cannot leave the house, and must wear masks. The worst part is that we cannot go to school anymore." (Depressed)

Dino : "Yeah, we cannot go to school anymore," Dino says. If not, let's ask our teacher to zoom in. So, we will be able to see our friends again!" (enthusiastically suggested)

Dini : "Come on. I already miss my friends!"

Dino : "Okay, let's Zoom!"

Based on the second sub-maxim above says that do not be more informative than a conversation requires, and in the relevant context, all Dino needs to know is the reason why their surroundings are quiet.

Flouting the quantity maxim that may be deduced from the above dialogue is as follows: the flouting occurred in Dimi's response, *"I am also sad when our surroundings are quiet. We seldom play, cannot leave the house, and must wear masks. The worst part is that we cannot go to school anymore"*. The response does not directly focus on the question. It is because Dimi tends to go on and on about unrelated things to Dino's question. Dino just asked about "what will happen to our environment?" but Dimi is too informative about everything that happened during the Corona pandemic.

Other examples of violating the quantity maxim may be as follows:

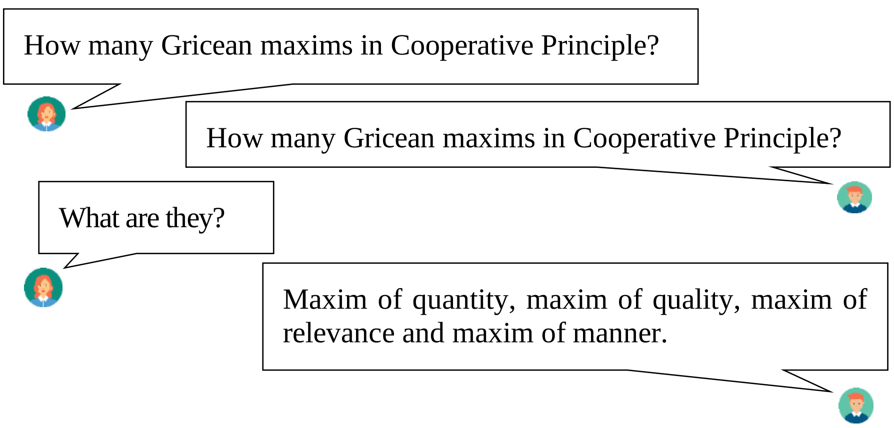
Student : When is the deadline for the essay, sir?

Lecturer : That information is posted on the course syllabus, which is available on the website.

In this discussion, the lecturer has not indeed responded to the student's question—this is an uncooperative response. The lecturer intends to express that the student should be able to answer their question based on the information available. (The lecturer's statement most likely flouts the relevance maxim, as they have not explicitly answered the question).

2. Maxim of Quality

This maxim includes two sub-maxims: do not say what you consider untrue, and do not say anything unless you have sufficient evidence. In short, this maxim requires each participant to provide factual information. Read the following illustration:



Picture 2.2 Example of Maxim Quality

Based on the initial conversation, the addressee provides correct information based on Grice's book that has been read. There are four maxims such as maxims of quantity, quality, relevance, and manner.

Violating the quality maxims if a participant is lying—intentionally saying untrue things—or does not have sufficient proof.

If your aunt asks you what day garbage pickup is this week, you cannot remember. However, if you think it could be Tuesday or Thursday, you would violate the quality maxim if you confidently responded: "*Garbage is specifically collected on Thursday this week*."

Flouting the quality maxim frequently includes irony, sarcasm, metaphors, and idioms. Consider the following conversation between a son and his parent on a road trip:

Son	:	"Are we there yet?" (He asked for the tenth time)
Parent	:	"No, we will just go to keep driving in this car for the rest of our lives." (Tired of answering)

In this speech situation, the parent does not mean for their child to accept their comments literally; instead, they are flouting the quality maxim by implying that the question was undesirable.

3. Maxim of Relevance

This maxim requires each participant in the conversation to provide relevant information. The notion behind this maxim is that when we speak, we should avoid bringing up extraneous topics—we should endeavor to stay on topic and expect our contributions to be perceived. Consider the following interaction:

Son	:	"Dad, there is someone at the door."
Parent	:	"I am in the bath."

Regarding the following interaction, when the son informs his dad that someone has arrived at their door and expects his dad to welcome the visitor, his dad responds that he is taking a bath. Dad's response expects his son to understand where his dad is at that time. Thus, he cannot open the door and see who is coming. Therefore, the relationship between speech participants does not necessarily rest in the meaning of the utterance but might also lie in what the utterance implies.

Making irrelevant contributions is a **violation** of the relevance maxim. You could do this because you are distracted or are not paying attention to what the other person is saying, but you can also violate the relevance principle more discreetly. Consider the following dialogue:

In the following example, Jesse has just walked into April's office and noticed all the work on her desk. April's response seems to flout the maxim of relevance.

Jesse	:	Whoa! Has your boss gone crazy?
April	:	Let's get some coffee.

To preserve the assumption of cooperation, Jesse will have to infer some local reason (i.e., the boss may be nearby) why April makes a non-relevant remark. The implication is that April cannot answer the question in that context.

4. Maxim of Manner

This maxim encourages each participant to use familiar, easy-to-understand words or phrases, minimize ambiguity, be brief, and be orderly. We need to discuss each sub-maxim because they have a slightly different effect in conversation.

a. **Avoid obscurity of expression**. Use easy-to-understand words or phrases to follow this sub-maxim.

Violating this sub-maxim includes using words and phrases your audience is unfamiliar with. We frequently do this unknowingly, such as when our lecturer unintentionally uses a grammatical term that was not specified in class.

Using phrases you do not expect your audience to comprehend would flout this sub-maxim. In most cases, this would be done to imply something pretentious and impolite, such as "I know more than you do."

b. Avoid ambiguity. Following this sub-maxim, avoid expressing anything that might be taken in more than one manner. For instance:

Dad : "Let's take a break and get something to eat."

Mom : "Sure, but not K-F-C."

Dad as the speaker, must interpret the words uttered by the interlocutor (Mom). The spelling uttered by Mom aims to make her children, who like KFC, not realize that their parents do not want to eat that. Thus, ambiguity is avoided if collaboration among speech actors is always founded on attentive observation in line with the notion of the speech context.

It is quite simple to unintentionally **violate** this sub-maxim because you will not notice the ambiguity in what you say until it is pointed out to you.

Flouting this sub-maxim is frequently used in specific types of jokes.

c. Be brief. To follow this sub-maxim, use a shorter statement if it has already enough.

Violating this sub-maxim includes talking or writing anything longer than necessary.

Flouting this maxim is more subtle. For example, use a long paraphrase instead of a single word, such as "*What did you have for dinner last night?*"

d. Be orderly. To follow this sub-maxim, we list the things in an order that makes sense. For instance, when telling a story, we usually start at the beginning and then relate events in the order they happened.

Violating this sub-maxim may be quite confusing, as you will know if you have ever had to stop someone to clarify the order of events in a story they are presenting.

The speakers' motivations for flouting or hedging the maxims might be courtesy or emphasis. Learning from figurative language that flouts conversational maxims, such as in a novel, may benefit English language learners. It is common for literary works to use figurative language in discussions to study pragmatics, particularly flouting conversational maxims (Sri Ningsih, 2014). Note that there are five types of metaphorical language: metaphor, overstatement, rhetorical inquiry, tautology, and irony.

Additionally, Henst and Sperber (2004) mentioned three concepts that give heuristics for analyzing utterances and are connected to three of Grice's maxims, they are:

A. Q-Principle
- *Speaker's maxim*: Never remark less accurately than your knowledge of the world permits.
- *Corollary to the recipient*: Take it as a given that the speaker made the strongest statement consistent with what he knows.

B. I-Principle
- *Speaker's maxim*: Produce the linguistic information required to fulfill your communication goals.
- *Corollary to the recipient*: Increase the informative content of the speaker's statement by locating the most detailed interpretation, up to what you believe is the speaker's point.

C. M-Principle
- *Speaker's maxim*: Use marked terms that contrast with those used to describe comparable normal, stereotyped situations to indicate an uncommon, non-stereotypical scenario.
- *Corollary to the recipient*: Improper language suggests an unnatural setting.

2.2.4 Hedges

Hedges are words or phrases used to convey that we are not quite specific and that what we are expressing is correct or comprehensive. Cooperative interactions may be best judged by the number of terms we use to convey that what we are saying is not completely correct. A linguist (Yule, 1996) considered hedges to be the conversational implications, which can provide the implicit meaning of words when individuals converse. Hedging the maxims indicates that the speakers do not want to be committed to the statement's content (Maria Goretti, 2009).

The importance of the maxim of **quality** may be best measured by the number of expressions we use to indicate that what we are saying may not be accurate. Take an example:

a. *As far as I know,* they're best friends.
b. *I'm not sure if this is right*, but I heard it was a secret ceremony in Seoul.

A recent rumor about a couple known to the speakers might be the informal setting for the preceding cases. Hedges or cautious remarks can also be employed to demonstrate that the speaker is aware of the **quantity** maxim, as in the first words of a recent trip report.

a. *A long story short*, we grabbed our stuff and ran.
b. *I won't bore you with all the details,* but it was an exciting trip.
c. *As you probably know*, I'm terrified of cockroaches.

Markers linked with the expectation of relevance (from the relation maxim) may be discovered in the middle of a speaker's speech when they say something like [oh, by the way] and then mention some possibly unrelated topic during a conversation. Speakers also appear to employ terms like [anyway] or [well, anyhow] to imply that they have veered into a potentially irrelevant conversation and wish to end it.

Some expressions from an office meeting that may operate as hedges on the expectation of relevance are provided in the first sentences.

a. I don't know if this is private, but some rooms are full.
b. It may sound like a dumb question, but whose handwriting is this?
c. Not to change the subject, but is this related to the budget?

The knowledge of manner expectations may also drive speakers to develop hedges of the sort seen in the first sentence in the following (a-b), heard during a crash story.

a. I'm not sure if this makes sense, but the bike had no ring bell.
b. It may be a bit confusing, but I remember being on a bike.

These hedge instances show that the speakers are aware of the maxims and wish to demonstrate that they are attempting to follow them. Such forms may also convey the speakers' concern that their listeners perceive them as cooperative conversational partners.

In some cases, there are specific situations in which speakers may deviate from the cooperative principle's expectations. Witnesses and students are frequently called upon in courtrooms and classrooms to tell people things such individuals already know (thereby violating the quantity maxim). Such specialized institutional discourse is distinct from the dialogue.

Listeners' common reaction to any seeming violation of the maxims is the concept of conversational implicature (Yule, 1996). Even in speech, a speaker can opt out of the maxim expectations by responding to a query with language like [no comment] or [my lips are sealed]. An intriguing feature of such statements is that, while they are usually not [as information as is necessary] given the context, they are readily understood as revealing more than is expressed (i.e., the speaker knows the answer).

Hedges, particularly, can be viewed from three perspectives (Salager-Meyer, 1997):

- Threat-mitigation tactics are employed to prevent absolute claims and signal distance,
- Strategies for correctly reflecting knowledge specificity, and
- Politeness methods in writer-editor social interactions and negotiations.

We feel compelled to adjust our speech acts in order to ensure acceptance and the possibility of cohabitation. A similar observation may be made about scientific language resulting from human interactions. Academic progress and ultimate inclusion in a professional discourse group need a thorough comprehension of hedging devices.

Hedging is a language resource expressing doubt and skepticism's underlying scientific qualities. It has a specific, pragmatic benefit in actual communication, lowering the value of information in sentences, weakening information in phrases, and shifting the topic. In daily interpersonal communication, hedges have very broad and universal relevance.

Understanding hedging devices completely is essential for academic achievement and inclusion in a professional discourse community. Salager-Meyer (1997) stated that hedges are mostly verbal and adverbial expressions such as [can, perhaps, may, suggest], which deal with degrees of probability. Thus, hedges can be considered the interactive elements that bridge the propositional information in the text and the writer's factual interpretation.

In brief, the number of statements we use to convey that what we are saying may not be completely true may be the greatest way of evaluating the importance of the quality maxim. A linguist defined hedges as conversational implications, which can offer the implicit meaning of words when people communicate. In the middle of a speaker's utterance, markers associated with the anticipation of relevance (from the relation maxim) may be detected.

2.2.5 Particularized, Generalized, and Scalar Implicatures

Grice distinguished between conversational implicatures that are heavily dependent on *context* (the PCIs: particularized conversational implicatures) and those that are heavily dependent on the *words* employed (the GCIs: generalized conversational implicatures). Scalar implicatures are the most prominent instances of GCIs (de Carvalho et al., 2016). Specific information is always presented by selecting a term that conveys one value on a scale. It is most noticeable in expressing quantity, as demonstrated in the table below, where terms are arranged from greatest to lowest value (Yule, 1996).

[*all, most, many, some, few*]

[*always, often, sometimes*]

When producing an utterance, a speaker selects the word from the scale which is the most informative and truthful (quantity and quality) in the circumstances, as in below:

I am studying pragmatics, and I have completed some of the elective courses.

Scalar implicature is based on the idea that when any form on a scale is affirmed, the negative of all forms higher on the scale is implicated. By choosing [some], the speaker implicates that [not completed all of the elective courses]. It is one of the scalar implications of saying it.

It is worth noting that GCIs and PCIs are generated using the same mechanism: they are the consequence of an inference formed by comparing what the speaker says with what she could have stated but did not. In other words, these assumptions are founded on possibilities other than what was spoken. Look at an example:

Akmal lives somewhere in Bekasi, I believe.

The statement leads us to a PCI, i.e., the speaker does not know where Akmal resides specifically because we rapidly conclude that if he did, she would have said so. A GCI, for example, uses the same inferential technique such as:

The student studied some Linguistics studies.

The sentence implies that he did not study all of them because the speaker would have used *all* rather than *some* if he had studied all of them (if the speaker knew). Despite sharing the same inferential technique, PCIs and GCIs differ in how "the alternatives" are determined: through the context for PCIs and the lexicon for GCIs.

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2.2.6 Conversational Implicature Properties

So far, we have discussed how all of the implicatures have occurred during a discussion, with the inferences formed by persons who hear the utterances and try to maintain the premise of cooperative contact. Speakers may deny that they intended to express such meanings since these implicatures are part of what is communicated and not said. Take an example:

You won 10 dollars! (+> ONLY five)

The example is a standard implicature that states that the speaker means [*only* 10 dollars] that number.

However, it is quite easy for a speaker to suspend the implicature +> only using the expression [*at least*]. To cancel the implicature by adding further information, often following the expression [*in fact*]. It is to reinforce the implicature with additional information.

It demonstrated that conversational implicatures are deniable. They can be explicitly denied (or reinforced) in different ways.

2.2.7 Functions and Instruments to Understand Implicature

The notion of implicature in the study of pragmatics serves at least four functions, as proposed by Levinson (1991) cited in (Amrullah, 2015):

1. The possibility of obtaining a functional explanation that is relevant to language realization but is not covered by descriptive linguistics theory,
2. Providing an unambiguous explanation of the potential that a language user will understand the messages even if what is uttered differs from what is meant,
3. The ability to simplify the semantic explanation from the different relations among clauses despite the clauses being connected with the same word structure, and
4. To explain a wide range of unconnected or contradicting language clues.

Because there is no semantic relation between the speech and something that implies, multiple implicatures may be presumed to understand a speech. If not comprehended, the speaker may make errors in capturing the implicature transmitted to him or her and will endeavor to follow cooperative ideas in dialogue.

In Javanese culture, a notion of speaking is known as *nglulu* (talking that indicates otherwise: irony). If the hearer does not immediately grasp the speech, the speaker will generally quickly alter their utterance. Following the cooperative principles, he will reuse an utterance. Consider the following conversation example (**65**):

Ex. 65

Mengko muleh bengi maneh ta, e?

Translation: "Are you going to come home at night again?"

Nggih pak, kados padatan.

Translation: "Yes, dad. As usual."

Yen mengko muleh bengi maneh, ora tak bukakke lawang. Ora usah muleh sisan wae. Ngerti, ojo muleh bengi neh.

Translation: "If you come home late again, I'm not going to open the door. Please do not come. Do not come back home."

In the dialogue (**65**), the father seems bad mood because his implicature is not addressed. Therefore he switches his speech. The hearer must apply all of his or her abilities and knowledge, including global knowledge, cultural background, the ability to think referentially, presupposition, speech acts contexts, cooperative principles, and general experience. If such instruments are currently owned, the implicature discourse will go smoothly. Consider the following conversation:

Azka	:	*Eh, Akmal mau datang sekarang nih*. (Translation: Akmal is going to come immediately.)
Kevin	:	*Wah, hp nya harus disimpan dulu*. (Translation: Keep out the phone!)

Regarding Akmal's tendency to enjoy mobile games but continue to ask for one from his friends, Kevin recognizes the implication intended by Azka. Using cooperative principles and prior experiences, Kevin intentionally and instantly preserves the phone (perlocution) so that Akmal does not request one. Overall, implicature is easily received and understood when each speaker has a tool for comprehending the implications.

2.2.8 Examples of Implicature and Maxims Analysis

Implicature refers to the inferred interpretation of a remark made by the speaker. It is frequently heard in ordinary discourse. Several studies of implicature analysis are presented here to improve your comprehension.

Many studies have been written to study Audre Lorde's poetry, but none have done so concerning its pragmatic implications. Grice's theory of Conversational Implicature (Cooperative Principle) was used to explain the data in this study, which consisted of four maxims: Quantity, Quality, Manner, and Relation. This research aims to determine how these maxims may be applied to reading Lorde's selected poetry. It also attempts to determine the extent to which Lorde's chosen poems violate or conform to these maxims. According to the study, Audre Lorde simultaneously breaks and conforms to the maxims in several of her poems (Igwedibia, 2017).

Umar Al-Qaderi (2015) researched the Gricean Theory of Conversational Implicature and its application to the Arabic language. Semi-structured interviews were conducted with 15 Yemeni dialect speakers. The analysis concentrated on breaking the maxims. The results showed that the Gricean Theory of Conversational Implicature might be applied to the Arabic language, namely the Yemeni dialect. Furthermore, the data analysis revealed that the Quantity maxim was most commonly violated. Following that, Relationship, Quality, and Manner maxims were violated.

Marbun et al. (2021) investigated the official method for governments to communicate, educate, and influence public behavior using public service announcements (PSAs) to minimize public health hazards such as Covid-19. This study seeks to address a research vacuum in implicature studies in public health and political contexts by analyzing the forms of implicatures in the Covid-19 PSAs issued by Indonesia's Ministry of Health on their Instagram account, @kemenkesri. The researchers observed that PSAs used conversational implicatures to communicate their messages more frequently than conventional implicatures (18%), with generalized conversational implicatures being more widespread (64%) than specified conversational implicatures (18%). Conventional implicature was only used in early postings when Covid-19 was not well known among the public. As people were accustomed to the "new normal," altered PSAs employed conversational implicature because the public was already aware of Covid-19. The findings of this study shed light on the distinctions between each form of implicature while also contributing to the scarcity of studies on the suggested meanings of PSAs and the scarcity of implicature studies in non-classroom settings.

In the framework of ELT, teachers have traditionally placed a high value on researching scientific teaching methods to increase students' listening comprehension capacity. This research investigates the efficacy of using Conversational Implicature. The experimental class uses the Conversational Implicature Teaching Strategy, while the control class uses the usual teaching style. The results reveal that the experimental class's capacity to infer conversational implicature is superior to that of the control class,

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which can increase the students' listening comprehension level. The study's findings guide the application of conversational implicature teaching methodologies in similar settings and some ideas for English listening instruction (Li, 2021).

Furthermore, Yudith et al. (2021) used a pragmatics method to investigate the forms and objectives of conversational implicature stated by all characters in the film In the Heart of the Sea. This study discovered two forms of conversational implicature in the characters' utterances in that film: particularised conversational implicature and generalized conversational implicature. This study discovered five reasons for conversational implicature: to protect the speaker, to demonstrate power and civility, to provide information, to delight the audience (humorous), and to have a lack of particular information.

This research examines the use of implicatures in print media in Pakistan's top periodicals and newspapers. Advertisers use terms that suggest specific, pragmatic implications. There are 15 advertisement clippings. The researchers used Yule's theory of implicatures to discover how particular commercials spoke about the efficacy of their products in order to increase sales. George Yule's symbol (+>) refers to the distinctive implicatures found in ads. The study shows that advertising is essential in comprehending implicature, an important aspect of language teaching and learning (Majeed et al., 2021).

Musdalifa et al. (2022) recently analyzed the conversational implicatures of the main characters in Lady Bird film by applying Grice's theory to determine the implicature form and Searle's illocutionary classification theory to determine the function of the implicatures as the main theories and the supporting theory by Hymes for portraying the context of conversation which determines the factors that influence communication as the main theories. The data revealed 31 conversational implicatures, comprising ten generalized and 21 particularised conversational implicatures to illustrate and clarify factual events. Specific conversational implicatures are to depict sarcasm or insults that are well-known regionally. While maxim flouted is controlled by way maxim followed by relation, quantity, and quality due to a broken cooperative principle.

Furthermore, using speech act classification to highlight the communicative roles of creating the two groups of conversational implicatures. According to the statistics, only four kinds were discovered among the five classes of functions. There are 7 data with directive functions, 9 with representational functions, 14 with expressive functions, 1 with commissive functions, and none with declarative functions.

The abovementioned studies are mostly cooperative principles, maxims, and conversational implicature. However, the study of hedges or flout maxims, as well as scalar implicature, in the context of language learning and instruction are also critical.

In the current experiment, we applied lexical scales in a masked priming paradigm to perform a lexical judgment task. While PG accounts do not attribute any role to lexical scales in the computation of scalar implicatures, NG accounts predict that weaker terms in a scale should prime more vital terms than the reverse because stronger words are required for interpreting weaker words. In contrast, more vital words can be interpreted independently of weaker words. Our findings supported the psychological presence of scales, providing the first unequivocal experimental support for the NG explanation (de Carvalho et al., 2016).

Below are several studies that have researched the hedges or flout of the four Gricean maxims. Read it carefully and find these articles to know how the procedure of analysis:

A study by Sulistyorini (2014) analyzes how the characters in the *Lock, Stock, and Two Smoking Barrels* movie flout and hedge the Cooperative Principles maxims in their discourse. The findings highlighted two aspects. The first is that the characters frequently violate the quantity maxim and hedge the quality maximCharacters frequently employ exaggeration to violate the four maxims. While the maxim of manner is violated twice and hedged once, this is due to the character's desire to make a clear message without using unclear terms. The second is that not all forms of maxim flouting methods are discovered; just seven varieties can be discovered and used by the characters.

Only five approaches to maxim hedging can be discovered in the data. The characters prefer to employ "well" in their statements while using maxim hedging since it appears six times. Meanwhile, tautology appears just once since the characters dislike using the same terms to stress their point of view. Meanwhile, the words “anyway,” “never mind that,” “I thought,” “I think,” “if you don’t mind,” “if you know what I mean,” “if I’m not mistaken,” and “could they?” appear just once in the data.

Recent research (Liu, 2020) evaluated hedges employed in the renowned English novel *Jane Eyre* using Leech’s Politeness Principle as the theoretical framework. The findings showed the following inferences from closely examining the dialogues: Hedges play an essential role in our daily lives at first. Both speakers and hearers can use different hedges to satisfy their communicative objectives. In this sense, the context in which hedges are used is critical. Speakers should pay more attention to their language surroundings, and listeners should comprehend the speakers’ conversational meanings.

Further, when individuals employ hedges in their speech, they imply something or make some information implicit and ambiguous. Different types of hedges can have distinct conversational effects and objectives in different circumstances. The purpose of hedges is to help the discourse flow smoothly and successfully. Therefore, the four essential functions are maintaining a better communication environment, saving face and fulfilling the goal of self-protection, making expressions courteous and euphemistic, and making language more suitable and acceptable.

On the other hand, Miššíková (2008) analyzed maxim hedges through conversational and translational perspectives. The analysis aims to identify conversational techniques used by communication participants, emphasizing particular usages of hedging phrases and intensifiers. The article is translated by examining particular usages of maxim hedges in two parallel texts, the source text (ST) in English and its Slovak translation (TT). Hedges in the TT rendered the hedges in the ST. All hedges require a pragmatic explanation in the context of a literary work.

An analysis of the flouting and hedging of conversational maxims of utterances used by the main characters in the “Post Grad” movie conducted by (Rokhmania, 2012) discovered the maxims are flouted when the speaker breaks some conversational maxims when using utterances in the form of rhetorical strategies such as tautology, metaphor, hyperbole, irony, and rhetorical question. Conversely, conversational maxims are hedged when the information is not entirely factual or conveyed explicitly but appears informative, well-founded, and relevant.

Dewa (2017) outlined the sorts of Cooperative Principles maxims that the Australian witness in the Jessica Murder Trial flouted or hedged. The study highlights two key conclusions. To begin with, of the 22 instances of flouting maxims, the flouting of maxim quantity (13 instances) is most frequently used by the Australian Witness because the court circumstance demands the witness to supply more information than the judge requires. Second, with 17 total occurrences of maxim hedging, maxim quality hedging has the most with nine occurrences. While the hedging of maxim manner occurs just once, it is the rarest.

Marliana (2022) revealed that *Ngeno Ngene* speakers in Kelayu flout the four types of maxims (quality, quantity, relation, and method) and hedge the three types of maxims (quality, quantity, and relation). Speakers flout the quality to persuade the addressee, cover something, and hide something. Also, they flout the quantity to explain more about something, emphasize something, and anticipate something. While they flout the relation maxims, shift the discussion topic, hide unnecessary information, and also flout the maxim of the manner to attract attention and be explicit. Moreover, they are hedging the maxims to avoid absolute statements, correctly express the assurance of knowing, and negotiate. An overstatement, understatement, metaphor, irony, banter, sarcasm, irrelevant statement, ambiguous statement, tautology, and rhetorical inquiry are some of the methods used by *Ngeno Ngene* speakers to flout those maxims. The hedges that they frequently use are eleven types, which are *are ndi?, gane/jegane, terang, badeq, ruane, rua-ruane jaq, baa+(*verb repeated twice*)+ so/ho, sang/sang+gane, ongkatne/paranne jaq/ngene, menurutku/badeqku, angkaq*.

Understanding Task

Presupposition

Exercise 1. ***Indicate which of the given inferences are presuppositions. The following sentences make specific presuppositions.***

1. I want more sugar in my coffee!
   a. I'm having coffee.
   b. I hate coffee with sugar.
   c. Someone has already put sugar in his coffee.
   d. I don't like my coffee with the amount of sugar that is currently in the coffee.
2. Putri's husband has called.
   a. Putri is married.
   b. Putri is a female.
   c. There exists a married man.
   d. Putri's husband has called the speaker.
3. Would you mind doing laundry this time?
   a. I don't have time to do the laundry.
   b. There are dirty clothes that need to be done.
   c. The dirty clothes needed to be done before.
   d. Someone didn't do the laundry the last time it needed to be done.

Exercise 2. ***Is the B sentence a presupposition or an entailment of the A sentence?***

Presupposition	Entailment	The sentences
☐	☐	A: Where is the man with the megaphone? B: There is a man with a megaphone.
☐	☐	A: The Queen of England attended a cooking workshop. B: There is a queen of England.
☐	☐	A: My dog Richard was killed in a car accident. B: My dog Richard is dead.

Exercise 3. ***The sentences in A presuppose sentence B. Please determine the type of presupposition below.***

The sentences	The options	
A: The fair boy shook his head. B: There is a fair boy.	• Existential • Factive • Lexical	• Structural • Non-factive • Counterfactual
A: I wish I wouldn't eat these delicious fries with extra ketchup. Now I have to get changed. B: The speaker has eaten these delicious fries with extra ketchup.	• Existential • Factive • Lexical	• Structural • Non-factive • Counterfactual
A: If I wouldn't eat so much over the holiday, I would still fit my favorite jeans. B: The speaker has eaten so much over the holidays.	• Existential • Factive • Lexical	• Structural • Non-factive • Counterfactual

Exercise 4. ***Please read this story, then follow the instruction below.***

Lazy Child

Sunday is a holiday that is awaited by people lying down, lazy to do activities. Some just want to lie down at home to get rid of their tiredness for a week of activities and some are planning to take a vacation. Banu chooses the first option, Banu chooses to relax lying at home, and the worst thing is that Banu will always feel lacking in his holidays.

“Banu wake up already noon, you’ll be late.” her mother asked.

“Bu Banu is still tired, Banu skips a day, okay?” Banu pleaded with his mother.

“Don’t be like that, your school fees are expensive, don’t underestimate studying,” replied his mother in denial.

“Just one day, Mom, Banu sleeps again.”

Seeing Banu’s behavior, his mother was furious, so his mother took Banu to see a retarded child in an orphanage.

“Now try to open your eyes, they want to go to school like you, but no parents will pay for them to go to school” Her mother explained, they were still in the car.

With this incident, Banu realized that he wanted to go to school even though he was late. On the way to school, Banu saw a limp child in the same school uniform as him, in his heart Banu said, I am grateful that I still have a perfect physique to be able to study.

After reading the short story, please categorize the presupposition you found following these types!

a. Existential presupposition
b. Factive presupposition
c. Lexical presupposition
d. Structural presupposition
e. Non-factive presupposition
f. Counter-factual presupposition

Implicature

Exercise 1. ***Answer the following questions correctly.***

1. What is implicature? How many types of implicature do you know?

   Answer: ……………………………………………………………………………………….
2. What is scalar implicature? What is its function of it?

   Answer: ……………………………………………………………………………………….
3. Mention the four Gricean maxims and give a brief explanation for each maxim!

   Answer: ……………………………………………………………………………………….
4. When are maxims flouted?

   Answer: ……………………………………………………………………………………….
5. What are the differences between violating, flouting, and hedging? Give an example.

   Answer: ………………………………………………………………………………………

Exercise 2. ***Which of the four maxims in each dialogue are violated?***

The options		The dialogues
○ Quantity ○ Quality	○ Manner ○ Relation	Mom: What did you think of Junior's children's behavior last night? Dad: Well, boys will be boys.
○ Quantity ○ Quality	○ Manner ○ Relation	Student A: Do you like Linguistics? Student B: Well, I don't jump for joy before class.
○ Quantity ○ Quality	○ Manner ○ Relation	Student: I was absent on Monday – did I miss anything important? Teacher: Oh no, of course not. We never do anything meaningful in class.
○ Quantity ○ Quality	○ Manner ○ Relation	Student A: Can you tell me where the lecture is? Student B: It is in room 201, room 231, where I had my first university class ever.

Exercise 3. ***Name the conversational implicature in each of the following.***

a. Speaker A: It's cold in here.
   Speaker B: I'll turn the heat up.

b. Speaker A: Where's Harry?
   Speaker B: Jani is taking a holiday in Bermuda now.

c. Speaker A: What's the weather prediction?
   Speaker B: Bring your coat.

d. Speaker A: Are your parents coming to visit?
   Speaker B: My mother is.

e. Speaker A: Do you like Rosie?
   Speaker B: Well, she has a nice husband.

Exercise 4. ***Please read this conversation***

Hinata: I'm not sure I'll be able to enjoy my trip this year. I have much coursework to finish.
Sakura: Do not be sad. We won't go on vacation as long as you haven't done your coursework.
Hinata: In that case, maybe we only have two days off during this school break.

Sakura: It's not a big deal for me, Hinata. Bandung is not far from our home. There are many wonderful spots to visit.

Hinata: Thank you for your suggestion, Sakura.

Sakura: All right, Hinata.

Analyze maxims and which maxims are flouted based on the preceding conversation.

a. Maxim of quality
b. Maxim of quantity
c. Maxim of manner
d. Maxim of relation
e. Flouting maxim

Exercise 5. ***Consider the following conversation. What maxim does speaker B flout, and what implicature that follows.***

1. Speaker A: How is it going with your new kid?
   Speaker B: Well, babies are babies.

   Answer:

   The maxim flouted is …………………………………………………………………….

   The implicature that flows from it is ………………………………………………….

2. Speaker A: How did you do with your seminar preparation this week?
   Speaker B: Well, I could not get any books from the library.

   Answer:

   The maxim flouted is …………………………………………………………………….

   The implicature that flows from it is ………………………………………………….

Chapter 3
Culture and Discourse

3.1 The Relation

Pragmatics and discourse analysis investigates language's relationship to contextual background factors. Both disciplines investigate discourse (or language use) and text (or chunks of spoken or written discourse), concentrating on how stretches of language become meaningful and unified for their users. Discourse is a cohesive arrangement of sentences or sentence fragments produced through communication between participants, whether speaker and listener or writer and reader. Text, on the other hand, solely refers to written communication. Remember that whenever another linguist's work is referenced, the author has attempted to use the word she or he initially used (Y. Wang & Guo, 2014).

We should know about intercultural pragmatics, which has broadened our understanding of pragmatics in interaction (Yule, 1996). Intercultural pragmatics studies how individuals from various cultures communicate via a common language. As a theoretical underpinning, the socio-cognitive method is used. This method combines the cognitive-philosophical viewpoint, in which purpose pre-existing in the speaker's mind before it is stated, with the sociocultural-interactional viewpoint, in which intention is emergent and cooperatively produced among discourse participants (Taguchi & Sykes, 2013).

In other words, discourse is what makes human cultures conceivable and distinctive. We employ the terms "discourse" and "culture," which does not mean that we are unaware that each is ambiguous and possibly problematic, as evidenced by their separate histories. Culture is a historically evolved collection of ways of thinking, concepts, symbols, representations (e.g., of the self and others), norms, laws, and tactics manifested in the behaviors and artifacts of a social society in power relations with those of other communities. We also believe culture is an intrinsic aspect of a social community's living practice in connection to others. It is multifaceted and dynamic rather than fixed to people, location, or time (Shi-xu, 2016).

In this chapter, we will concern with the relationship between culture and discourse in the context of pragmatics. Discourse creates and sustains relationships, ideas, and self-coherence. Coherence is a result of culture. Individuals' opinions on personal experiences, emotional attitudes, and knowledge of the articulated and worked through conversation with others (Keating & Duranti, 2011).

In discourse analysis, the attribute of being "meaningful and unified" is referred to as **coherence**, whereas pragmatics refers to it as **relevance** (Cutting, 2002). Speakers must plan the structure and content of their remarks. They must package their messages depending on what their listeners know and do not know, and everything must be sequenced logically. If those speakers choose to type their words, they will no longer have listeners who can respond quickly and interactively.

Discourse analysis is known to study the form and function of what is said and written in a much larger context. In this broader approach, speakers and writers are seen as employing language not just in its interpersonal function (which deals with personal interaction) but also in its textual function (which deals with what makes a text well-formed) and in its ideational function (which deals with thought and experience). As a result, they must rely on more explicit structural methods to organize their works.

Discourse analysis extends beyond individual sentences or utterances to include macrostructures of texts (for example, problem-solution, cause-effect, and narrative structure) as well as microanalysis of characteristics of spoken versus written language discourse and airport controller talk to promote international safety through transparent language use (LoCastro, 2012).

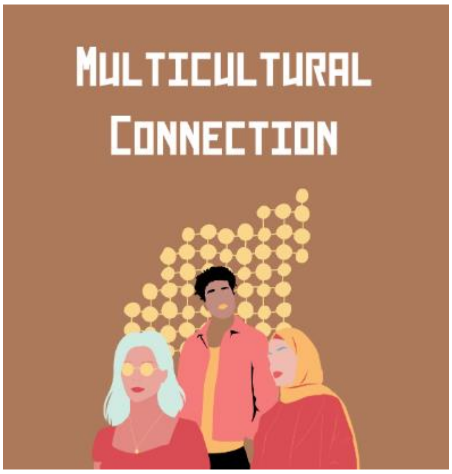
For example, Hartati and Mulyani (2019) studied tense and aspect in pragmatics and discourse analysis. They offered basic notions about tense and aspect in English and Indonesian languages, including (1) definitions of tense and aspect, (2) the importance of tension and aspect in specific texts, and (3) tense and aspect differences between English and Bahasa Indonesia. However, there is one key distinction between Indonesian and English: English has both tense and aspect, whereas Indonesian only has aspects. Tenses were also used in some texts, such as past tense in narrative prose and present tense in 'hot news.' Meanwhile, tense and aspect differences among languages introduce language learners to another factor to consider when constructing and interpreting meaning between languages, such as English-Indonesian, in which learners must be more analytical in interpreting the intended meaning in pragmatics and discourse context.

3.2 Discourse Analysis

Discourse analysis (DA) studies language concerning the social and psychological elements that impact communication. Regarding linguistic issues, DA focuses on the record of the intention (spoken or written). There is much interest in the structure of discourse, specifically focusing on what makes a well-formed text. Within this structural view, the focus is on topics such as the explicit connections between words in a text that create cohesiveness or textual organizing aspects that are distinctive of narrative, as opposed to opinion expressing and other text genres.

Co-text, primarily concerned with discourse analysis, focuses on cohesion (how words relate to each other within the text, referring backward or forwards to other words in the text). Also, the cooperative principle investigates **relevance theory**, which studies how the assumption of relevance holds texts together meaningfully (Cutting, 2002). DA also encompasses a wide variety of activities, from the narrowly focused analysis of how words like [oh] or [well] are used in informal conversation to the study of culture's prevailing ideology as manifested, for example, in educational or political practices. An ideological approach that investigates the function of language in the social environment and uncovers how discourse reflects and determines power structures is known as **critical discourse analysis** (CDA).

On the other hand, the pragmatic element of discourse analysis focuses on what is unsaid or unwritten yet communicated. It is interested in background knowledge, beliefs, and expectations. In the pragmatics of discourse, we must unavoidably investigate what the speaker (or writer) is thinking. Consider the following picture:



Picture 3.1 Representation of Multiculturalism

Picture 3.1 shows a conversation that takes the shape of symbols and text. However, there is an unspoken or unwritten message to be conveyed in the image. The image conveys that intercultural connections may be made by people of all genders and religions, as seen by the symbols presented, which include males, women wearing hijab, and women who are not wearing hijab. It leads to many interpretations since each work has an unspoken or unwritten meaning dependent on the underlying knowledge of the person seeing the art.

Different communicative styles and social interaction norms are described here as universal (language and culture-independent) and simple and easy to understand, making them accessible to children and second-language learners (e.g., immigrants) with limited English knowledge. It is hoped, then, that the type of simple metalanguage used here to investigate different modes of human interaction and different interactive strategies associated with different languages can be used not only as a tool for investigating linguistic interaction in different cultural settings but also as a foundation for teaching it, and, in particular, as a foundation for teaching successful cross-cultural communication (Wierzbicka, 2003).

3.3 Coherence

Coherence is the relationship that connects the meanings of utterances in discourse or the sentences in a text. (Shahriar & Pathan, 2012) discovered that a meaningful English text is always considered coherent writing. Also, the role of cohesion in a readable English text establishes strong, cohesive linkages and promotes coherence. They examined two poems: William Wordsworth's Daffodils and advertising from the UK website gumtree.co.uk. Both data contain various genres and elements, yet they constitute coherence. The most common type of coherence is lexical cohesion. It demonstrated that, while cohesion is a crucial part of generating a coherent text, coherence is also feasible in the absence of cohesiveness.

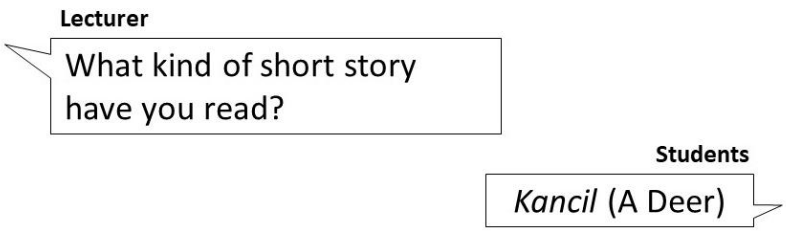
Additionally, coherent language (written or spoken) makes sense to the hearer and provides clues as to how the text is interpreted. That 'normal experience' will be tied to the familiar and the expected. For example:

Ex. 66 Garage sale

The notice, as in (**66**), does not mean someone is selling the garage. However, the interpretation is that "someone who sells household items from their garage requires some familiarity with suburban life."

This emphasis on familiarity and knowledge as the basis of coherence is necessary because of evidence that we tend to make instant interpretations of familiar material and tend not to see possible alternatives. It was inevitably based on what you had in mind and not only on what was in the text.

Ex. 67



The students' responses demonstrate that the deer's story is well known in all circles, from youngsters to adults and the elderly.

From a cognitive standpoint, discourse may be evaluated in two ways: as a static product or as a dynamic process. From the perspective of discourse-as-product, coherence is a language reality generated on the surface of conversation by various linguistic techniques employed to connect distinct portions of a discourse. According to the discourse-as-process viewpoint, coherence results from an interaction between the addresser and addressee, which may be accomplished via mutual efforts of both the communicator and addressee. Be mindful that discourse coherence depends on numerous linguistic devices and the interpreter's role in determining the implicit significance (Shahriar & Pathan, 2012).

3.4 Background Knowledge

Background knowledge is defined by pragmatics as assumptions that are required to understand a text but are not specified in it. A writer who appropriately guesses the reader's background knowledge resources will create accessible, efficient content. A writer who overestimates or underestimates the reader's background knowledge resources will create a work that is less accessible and efficient (Giltrow, 1992). Our ability to arrive automatically at interpretations of the unwritten and the unsaid must be based on pre-existing knowledge structures. These structures function like familiar patterns from previous experiences we use to interpret new experiences.

In the previous chapter, we discussed that context could be defined as background knowledge of speech that both the speaker and the hearer shared and that aids the hearer in interpreting the meaning of speech (Zong & Zhen, 2021).

Background knowledge includes **schema** (plural, **schemata**) and knowledge patterns of situations. When people comprehend, they must integrate their background knowledge with the information in a text. In this process, people's cognitive actions are influenced by their prior knowledge and knowledge structure. People are more likely to notice items that fit into their schema while re-interpreting inconsistencies in the schema as exceptions or twisting them to suit. Schemata organize present information and offer a foundation for future comprehension.

Using schema theory in college English reading instruction helps foster students' reading interests, increases their reading speed, and helps them make sound judgments. It can also help students complete their tasks more successfully and significantly impact English reading instruction. In addition, Schema theory provides an efficient course for building and strengthening students' reading skills, and it is essential in today's college English classes (Zhao & Zhu, 2012).

Also, background knowledge contains a **frame** (fixed patterns of how we assume things to be). Frame shared by everyone within a social group would be something like a prototypical version (e.g., what do we expect to find in a library, in a supermarket) (Yule, 1996). When more dynamic types of schemata are considered, they are more often described as **scripts**. A script is a knowledge pattern of sequences of events (e.g., what happens when we go to the movies when we get on a bus when we go to the public baths).

We use scripts to build interpretations of accounts of what happened. Because most of the details are assumed to be known, they are unlikely to be stated. For members of the same culture, the assumption of shared scripts allows much to be communicated that is not said. However, for members of different cultures, such an assumption leads to a great deal of miscommunication. Look at the following picture:

Picture 3.2 Representation of Frame

The frame that can depend on people visiting or seeing the beach in many interpretations, depending on the situation and state of a person, can lead to many alternative interpretations, as shown in the example **picture 3.2.**

Further, the following are the primary concepts that have shaped and highlighted this new trend in language study:

1. People communicate differently in various civilizations and communities;
2. The distinctions in speaking styles are significant and systematic;
3. These distinctions indicate different cultural norms, or at least different value hierarchies, and
4. Different speaking methods and communicative styles may be explained and made sense by independently creating various cultural values and priorities.

According to Wierzbicka (2003), these four principles are crucial - not only in terms of our knowledge and understanding of the world but also in terms of practical, social understanding, and, in particular, cross-cultural understanding in a multi-ethnic society.

3.5 Cultural Schemata

From the preceding explanation, we know that background knowledge allows the reader to make expectations about the text and contributes to text comprehension and interpretation. Cultural schemata, also known as cultural models, represent generic concepts distributed across cultural members (Bensalah & Gueroudj, 2020). It is also based on knowledge of a specific culture and is a critical cognitive process through which culture influences action. Thus, its concept is known as culture-specific world knowledge.

When studying English and American poetry writings, one of the first issues to be addressed is a lack of proper schemata. The current study by Almufayrij (2020) investigated how Saudi students perceive the relationship between a lack of appropriate schemata and comprehension of English and American poetry in order to explain how they read and interpret poems in English and how they respond to culturally loaded texts by writers with different cultural schemata in order to provide a better understanding of the challenges they face in the poetry classroom. The research also showed that cultural knowledge, a component of background and topic knowledge, is fundamental in comprehending texts.

Also, it examined students' receptivity to schema activation approaches in the poetry classroom. There is a connection between schema theory and the comprehension of poetic writings. Thus, it acknowledges the complexity of poetic language, the vast experience it conveys, and the worldly experiences a reader brings to it. Schemata are an essential issue that must be addressed if the barriers to reading comprehension of Saudi students studying English and American poetry with cultural themes different from their own are to be recognized and instructional ways to accommodate their requirements are to be developed.

Speaker intention and listener perception are rarely entirely matched, and the likelihood of obtaining meaning following what was meant lowers as cultural inequalities emerge (Stadler, 2018). The differences in expectation based on cultural schemata are called cross-cultural pragmatics. Cross-cultural pragmatics, in other words, refers to a branch of research concerned with how language obtains meaning through context and its cultural embedding. Because meaning is not inherent in our utterances, messages must be interpreted using contextual information, the dynamics of the speaker and his/her interactional partner(s), and the common knowledge we share with our interlocutors. Therefore, the concept of speaker intention and the inferences interlocutors derive from it is relevant to the study of cross-cultural pragmatics.

With the increased interest in English as an International Language, it is appropriate to reassess the status of cross-linguistic disparities while widening the scope of such research to include examining the pragmatic systems of languages in cross-cultural contact (Intachakra, 2004). **Cross-cultural pragmatics** is a branch of study concerned with how language gains meaning through context and sociocultural embedding (Stadler, 2018). While 'cross-cultural pragmatics' addresses sociopragmatic issues, '**contrastive pragmatics**' addresses pragmalinguistic issues. Contrastive pragmatics is the study of different cultural ways of talking.

Everyone had had the experience of surprise when some assumed component of an event was unexpectedly missing. I remember my first visit to a Japanese restaurant and the absence of one of my 'restaurant script' requirements—*no chairs*! (The large comfortable cushions were an excellent replacement). It is almost inevitable that our background knowledge structures, our schemata for making sense of the world, will be culturally determined. We develop our cultural schemata in the contexts of our essential experiences. Something good in one person's schema can sound like something terrible in another's.

According to the study's findings (Abdallah Hassan et al., 2020), cultural schemata have a significant role in critically interpreting each other's spoken speech. Furthermore, the findings revealed that there are significant variances between persons descended from various cultural backgrounds. As a result, the more excellent room should be provided for such individuals to bridge the gap between themselves and others in communicating discursive signals. The instructors also agreed that understanding spoken discourse should be the primary means of enhancing students' performance. They supported the use of spoken discourse in teaching the target language to achieve maximum efficiency in understanding spoken conversation.

Take a look at the following picture:

Picture 3.3 Cultural Schemata

Looking at the example **Picture 3.3**, we may form an opinion about whether we like or dislike it; it all depends on how we view it. What we infer about the image is based on our cultural knowledge, so even if it is only a cup of tea and a watermelon, it might have different meanings for different people; this is known as cultural schemata.

3.6 Example of Culture and Discourse Analysis

Carbaugh (2007, 2016), giving a framework, referred to his research as cultural discourse analysis (CuDA). He stated that CuDA is an abbreviation used to distinguish cultural discourse analysis from critical discourse analysis (e.g., Fairclough and Wodak 1997) and conversation analysis. It differs from the former in that it requires descriptive, interpretative, and comparative analysis prior to critical evaluations and from the latter in that it emphasizes interpretive and cross-cultural studies. As demonstrated by the preceding explanation, it is consistent with various research findings on culture and discourse analysis in strengthening communicative abilities.

CuDA is a communication strategy that examines culturally distinct communication practices as they occur in everyday contexts, the meanings individuals activate in those acts, and cross-cultural assessments of those daily practices and their meanings. This study can be constructed to investigate what happens when individuals speak, with these diverse achievements related to questions of identity, action, emotion, relationships, and living in nature.

He also discovered that terminology for conversation corresponds to four stages of enactment (Scollo, 2011):

1. The *activity* level, which refers to speech performances produced by a single participant;

2. The *event* level refers to speech performances that require more than one person or co-participatory production;
3. The *style* level refers to the selection of a general way or variety of speaking, among other things; and
4. The *functional* level refers to the function of speech activities for those who participate in them and, thus, less of a level of enactment.

Critical reading takes considerable effort on the reader's part since it engages the reader's thinking in various ways. Furthermore, the reader's cultural group influences how he or she reads, interprets, and evaluates work. This cultural effect is unavoidable, and it has a significant impact on the reader's perceptions. As a result, while reading a work critically, the reader must exercise caution in using cultural information (Naskar & Jha, 2017).

A study about a pragmatic schema would allow students to compare cultural ways of displaying a specific language structure. Introducing students to various cultural schemas and comparing them with their English counterparts, if any, assisted them in understanding the differences in cultural repertoires in both Arabic and English (Al Sharoufi, 2019). When the students of Gulf University for Science and Technology in Kuwait were given sets of specific speech acts and instructed to use them in appropriate settings, they were more conscious of the use and usefulness of pragmatic schemas after recognizing the connection between speech acts as action verbs, pragmemes as contextualized speech acts, and plays as physical representations of such acts.

Hamidy (2019) discussed gender relations in communicating between husband and wife using the Sasak language. One of his results on using pronouns in Sasak's speech revealed that pronouns are rebuilt mainly in the context of males, whose social hierarchy is greater than that of women and low-status women in the Sasak society. The gender imbalance between the two parties is reflected in the pronouns employed by speakers. Men rarely employ subtle variations in their utterances to women, although women posture themselves with docile, obedient, and respectful attitudes toward men. It may be noticed in the tiny variations women use in their talks with males. The findings showed that Sasak's type of speech pattern categorization powerfully demonstrates gender disparity. Gender inequality is demonstrated by terminology, interactional control, and grammatical structure, which reveals the numerous stigmas of thinking that suppresses or are repressed by dominating forces in society.

Pishghadam et al. (2020) investigated the essential function of a speaking community's language can provide important information about its culture. They hypothesize how *cultuling* (i.e., culture in language) and metacultuling might become embedded in a language. Cultuling may be seen when we consider the effects of macro social elements such as area, ethnicity, age, social position, and gender on language in (inter)action and intralingual pragmatic rules encoded in variational pragmatics (VP). It demonstrated how CLA might reveal cultural memes buried in language and the cultural roles of linguistic utterances. Also discussed is how identifying flawed cultural memes might aid in purifying culture and pave the path for euculturing.

This study looked into the connection between cultural schemata and reading comprehension. Eighth-grade black and white students read a piece on "sounding" or "playing the dozens," a verbal ritual insult prevalent in the black community. White individuals saw the passage as about physical aggressiveness, but black subjects interpreted it as verbal play. The scores on theme-revealing disambiguations and incursions and an inference probing test were related to the respondents' cultural background. According to the data, cultural schemata can impact how written content is understood. The findings were examined in light of efforts to remove cultural bias from reading materials and standardized test items (Reynolds et al., 1982).

Students' future academic achievement in majors that use English as the teaching medium mostly depends on their ability to read and comprehend. This study aimed to examine the link between Saudi secondary school students' target language cultural background and their native language cultural background. Thirty-two secondary school students from Imam Ja'afar Al-Sadiq Secondary School in Al-Ahas Educational Zone took part in the study. Participants were all of the same age (16 to 19 years old), gender (male), cultural background (Saudi culture), and native language (Arabic). According to the findings, there is a statistically significant difference between the target language cultural background and the native language cultural background of Saudi secondary school students, influencing their target language reading and comprehension (Hamarai, 2021).

This case study delves into culture-based narrative writings via the views of native Arabic, Chinese, and English speakers. The study looked at metaphors such as probing time, elaboration, content recall, and distortion participants experienced while reading English material in a foreign setting. A maximum variation strategy of purposeful sampling was adopted to capture the participants' experiences. According to the findings, culturally recognizable texts encouraged readers' cultural schemata and improved their reading interpretation. The distortion and confusion when reading foreign texts may have hampered readers' desire to initiate and construct new cultural schemata. Furthermore, regardless of the form of the cultural text and its familiarity or unfamiliarity, there was a reciprocal interweaving between cultural schema and language competence (Alsheikh et al., 2022).

Additionally, both students and teachers face several challenges in college English teaching in China. It is vital to expand further the roles of professors and students in college English teaching and practice, to improve teaching practice, and to increase the interactive effect of teaching. Discourse analysis is the core idea that must be followed in future college English teaching reform and gives important suggestions for enhancing college English teaching. As a result, teachers should update the teaching concept over time, pay attention to the application of discourse analysis theory in reading teaching, and use the discourse analysis method to propose English reading and writing teaching in order to improve the overall effectiveness of college English teaching (J. Wang, 2019).

All in all, the goal of language instruction is for learners to be able to communicate in the target language, even if this communication is restricted at times, and the most successful approach to teaching language is to use it for conversation. Given this assumption, the purpose of language education is to enable the learner to communicate, and the method of instruction is to expose the student to and practice relevant examples of communication.

Instructors can use discourse analysis not just as a research method to investigate their teaching practices but also as a tool to examine interactions between language learners. Discourse analysis may help students understand language and how it is used to achieve communicative goals in various circumstances. Thus, discourse analysis may aid in developing a second language learning environment that more properly represents how language is used and helps learners progress toward their second language fluency goal.

Discourse analysis can be the primary reference for language teaching and learning decision-making. Creating appropriate contexts for interaction, illustrating speaker or hearer and reader or writer exchanges, and providing learners with opportunities to process language in various situations are necessary for developing learning environments in which language acquisition and language development can occur from a communicative standpoint.

Since they reflect two connected discourse worlds that describe human communication, discourse analysis and pragmatics are crucial to language instruction and acquisition. Language instruction should emphasize both (1) message formulation tactics to promote learner generation of communicative intent and (2) interpretation strategies to assure some capacity on the learner's side to process inferentially (even if only approximately) the speaker's (or writer's) intent. At the receptive end, the first represents the intended meaning transmitted within the context and is thus concerned with sequential relationships in production. The second explains the interpreted meaning resulting from linguistic processing and social interaction while considering various contextual factors.

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Understanding Task

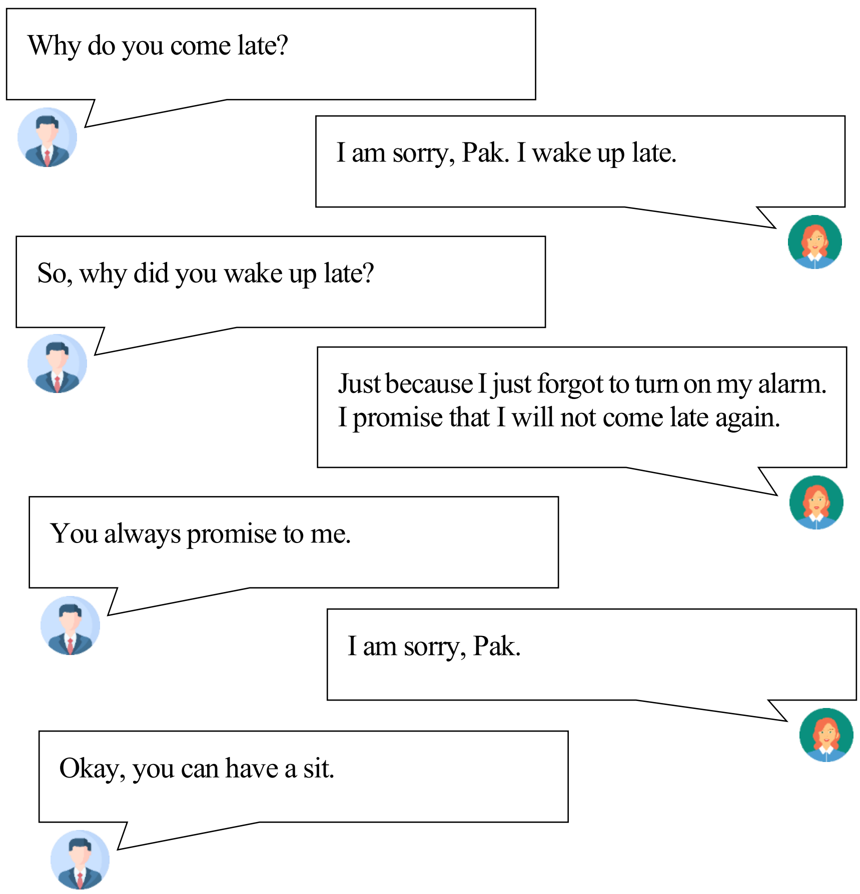
Exercise 1. ***Please do observation in your class, then give a checklist if the teacher in class does the following:***

Learning Process	**Checklist**		**Note**
	Yes	**No**	
The lecturer uses the Indonesian language.			
The lecturer uses the Javanese language.			
The lecturer uses neither Indonesian nor Javanese language.			
The lecturer carried out local wisdom in the classroom.			

Regarding the results, please answer the following questions using the psychological concept of discourse issue, including background knowledge, beliefs, and expectation:

1. Why is there an influence on the use of the native language of the teacher in teaching in the classroom?
2. What is the importance of including local wisdom in learning?
3. How can culture help the learning process in the classroom?

Exercise 2. ***Below is the conversation between the teacher and the student. Please read it carefully and analyze the way the student calls "Pak" and why he did that. Relate it to the background knowledge and discourse.***



Exercise 3. ***Please make a conversation about pragmatic failures and investigate the failures by explaining.***

Put your answers here

Exercise 4. ***Below is a pictorial of multiculturalism. Please determine the culture surrounding it and the discourse from the representative picture.***

Put your answers here

Exercise 5. ***Please find an article about the relationship between discourse and culture, then answer the following questions:***

The title ……………………………………

The cultural issue

……………………………………………………………………………………………

How the discourse is formed

……………………………………………………………………………………………

The theory of discourse

……………………………………………………………………………………………

Benefits that you get from the article

……………………………………………………………………………………………

Chapter 4

Politeness, Power, and Ideology

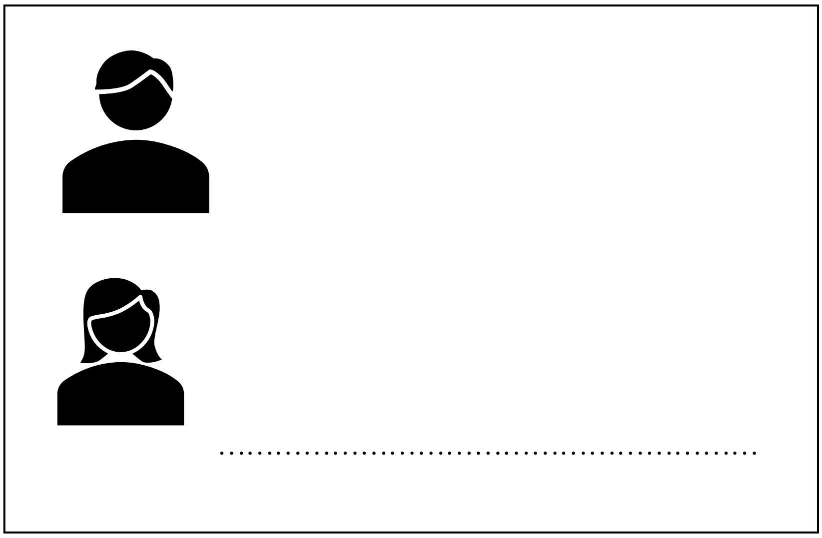
4.1 Politeness

Aside from the Cooperative Principles guideline of language philosopher H.P. Grice, there is another idea that is useful while people are conversing. Geoffrey Leech proposed Politeness Principle. The basic notion is to analyze the influence of someone's utterance, not the interaction information.

In conversation, both the speaker and the listener recognize that rules govern how they talk, how they employ diction and tone, and how they understand what the other person says. Every speaker bears responsibility for what they do and says about the norms of linguistics in the conversation.

To make sense of what is stated in a conversation, we must consider several elements related to social distance and closeness. Those are the things that affect language and speech in communication related to conventions in society. Some of these elements are set before interaction and thus primarily external. They usually entail the participants' relative position, which is determined by societal values such as age, power, and ideology.

Pay attention to these choices of dialogues with your pair. Which dialogue is more appropriate and give the reason:



Which one will you choose? And why?

a. Sorry, I have plans tonight
b. I would like to, but I have to study tonight.
c. With you? No way!
d. Do not do such a silly thing.

Because Indonesians have a fixed social framework, courtesy comes naturally to them. Suppose you had to pick your replies. Regardless of your initial motive, you can select between A and B. Choosing C or D may be accurate if you speak candidly, but this type of language may cause controversy.

There is a branch of pragmatics concerned with the importance of politeness in expression. Politeness is defined as the avoidance of disagreement. Lakoff (1990) stated that politeness facilitates connection by limiting the possibility of conflict and confrontation inherent in any human exchange. People are presumed to obey the Politeness Principle by engaging in meaningful dialogue with one another as rational agents.

You may often not notice that when we talk to someone who is older or has a higher social status than us, we are indirectly doing something different when we communicate with people of the same ages or social statuses. Specifically, politeness has a different pattern in each region in Indonesia. in specific parts of the island of Java, manners and politeness tend to be more rigid than in other areas. It is very different from conditions in areas outside Java. Areas outside Java have structures and rules regarding politeness that tend to be more flexible regarding relations between people of different ages.

The article discusses politeness in Javanese daily conversation and comprehends the politeness employed in connection to the background culture and context in which the discussion occurred. The article is conducted by Purwanto (2020). As we all know, politeness is essential in Javanese society. Its rule prevails at the highest level of Javanese society. Individuals follow numerous unwritten rules in their daily lives, particularly during conversations. This article discovered that Javanese politeness uses indirect discourse, mainly when individuals accept an offer. In connection to Leech’s maxim, Javanese people frequently employ the modesty maxim. In this instance, they will minimize their attention, particularly when discussing what they have and do.

Speakers who consider themselves of lower status tend to use honorifics, such as a title and the last name (in an English-speaking environment) or a first name (in an Indonesian-speaking context), to distinguish themselves from higher-status speakers. We engage in various interactions (mainly with strangers) in which the social distance established by external causes dominates.

However, it can be something that cannot be easily described because the concepts may be different in every language community. For instance, this will be very different when we compare Indonesia with other countries, especially countries in western nations. Countries in Europe and America and other countries with similar cultures tend not to have rigid rules about politeness. However, that does not mean that these countries do not have norms of politeness.

Other parameters, such as the amount of imposition or the degree of friendliness, are frequently negotiated throughout a contract. These are intrinsic to the encounter and might cause the initial social distance to change and be noted as less or more as the contact progresses. It may result in participants switching from a title and a last name to a first-name basis inside the conversation (depending on the country’s standard). These internal elements are often more significant to individuals whose social ties are being worked out throughout the interaction.

External and internal variables impact not just what we say but also how we are seen. Typically, the investigation of such influence is done in terms of politeness. In many situations, the interpretation extends beyond what we wanted to express and includes judgments like [rude] and [inconsiderate] or [considerate] and [thoughtful]. Recognizing the significance of such judgments demonstrates that more is communicated than is uttered.

4.1.1 Politeness Principle

It is possible to treat politeness as a fixed concept, as in a culture’s idea of ‘polite social behavior’ or etiquette. It is also possible to specify the number of general principles for being polite in social interaction within a particular culture. These might include tactfulness, generosity, modesty, and sympathy toward others.

Linguistic politeness is the use of language in conversation to show consideration for the feelings and desires of one’s interlocutors, to create and maintain interpersonal relationships (so-called political behavior), and to follow the rules for what society or one's culture considers appropriate behavior. Although politeness in language had been mentioned in earlier work to varying degrees, study into the subject took off in the 1970s and 1980s. The initial explanations were based on modern theoretical pragmatics and sociology, as well as the cooperative principle, speech act theory, and, in particular, the concept of face.

They considered politeness as a group of maxims (for example, "offer alternatives") driving language choices or paying linguistic attention to an individual's need to be liked and do anything they wanted. Many linguists were inspired by these models, resulting in a significant increase in politeness studies in the 1990s (van Olmen, 2017).

In specific cases, the norm of honest politeness is more rigid regarding the social level. However, it can be something that cannot be easily described because the concepts may be different in every language community. For instance, this will be very different when we compare Indonesia with other countries, especially countries in western nations. Countries in Europe and America and other countries with similar cultures tend not to have rigid rules about politeness. However, that does not mean that these countries do not have norms of politeness.

According to Leech (2014), there are eight characteristics of politeness:

a. Politeness is non-obligatory. People can be either polite or impolite without any specific limitations. Based on the circumstances, a person can subjectively choose whether he/she needs to act politely or rudely. Two people can have different acts on the same occasion. For example, one person may act politely because he/she needs to be, and the other may not for a specific reason or mood. Regardless of the same cultural (language entity) they are in.
b. In terms of behavior, politeness, and impoliteness and impoliteness have varying gradations. Politeness is highly conventionalized, i.e., every cultural entity/ language has specific parameters. People in one cultural entity can determine which words are polite and which are not. Among those categories, there are levels ranging from somewhat less polite, ordinary, or quite polite. For example, older Javanese consider younger people very polite if he greets, smile and bow. Meanwhile, if the young man smiles with his eyes down, it can be quite polite. However, when the young man does not bow, say hello, or smile, he is considered less polite.
c. Politeness has a specific degree that is considered something "normal." Society has a conventional level that all language / cultural community members understand. If point b refers to the presence of levels of politeness, then this point refers to the existence of levels considered "average" by society. For example, this is considered normal when someone greets and smiles on an official occasion. However, if someone greets, smiles, and asks too much, it will be considered an exaggeration and tends to be disrespectful.
d. This point refers to the contextual standard of politeness. Whether or not politeness is necessary and how polite the behavior is needed depends on the situation. There are specific moments that are considered to require a specific degree. For example, the level of politeness of a person when communicating with an older person when he attends an official forum will be different from the level of politeness when he speaks in an informal forum or the level of politeness that a person is required when in a football stadium with when in a place of worship.
e. Polite behavior can have reciprocal asymmetry between two parties. When a person feels that he has received polite treatment from a specific party, he will consider himself in a lower position as a common reaction. For example, when X performs a performance, Y (the audience), who is satisfied with the performance, will give applause and cheers as appreciation (consider X's performance high). Meanwhile, X will retaliate with a bowing reaction as a gesture of assuming his performance is low. The reason is that when a person considers his appearance of high value, he/she is considered disrespectful.

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Phase 1	A offers help to B	→	B Declines
Phase 2	A offers help to B	→	B Declines
Phase 3	A offers help to B	→	B Accepts

Picture 4.1 Polite Behavior Scheme

f. This unique characteristic is that politeness can manifest itself in “repetitive behavior” to a lesser extent and a greater extent. For example, a person sitting will stand up when someone respected enters the room as a form of politeness. The same thing (standing) also happens when a respected person is in a room full of people.

   For example, “repetitive” also includes the frequency of speech/actions performed. Someone who offers something will accept after the repeated request because a traditional convention internalizes a person who refuses continuously and will create a disrespectful impression.

g. Politeness also involves a “transaction of values” between the speaker and the other party. “Something” here has a value that should move from one person to another. For example, we thank someone because we have asked for something; in soliciting, making an offer, or an invitation, we offer something to the recipient.

   Linguistics already studies politeness and has centered on specific speech acts, all of which involve value transactions, such as expressions of gratitude, requests, and invitations, as well as compliments, congratulations, condolences, apologies, offers, suggestions, and the like.

   A typical response to this speech act is often also polite but oppositely to the speech act itself. For example, responses to a thank you often deny that A owes B: “Not at all,” “It was nothing,” “No problem,” or “Do not mention it.”

h. The last characteristic of politeness is the tendency to preserve “balance” between speakers. It can be seen in the speech act variants “thanking” and “apologizing,” which can be said to have a remedial character.

   “Thanking” is an attempt to pay back a person when he or she benefits from others, while “apologies” are utterances made when a person feels he has to pay for his mistakes.

The question may arise “is politeness a socio-cultural phenomenon or pragmatics?”. It may be problematic because pragmatics, as one of the branches of linguistics, is also almost impossible to separate from social factors.

Leech (2014) exemplifies that the limitations on discussing pragmatics toward politeness can be seen from the habit of modifying tenses in English sentences.

When one asks for help from another, the speaker will be encouraged to use additional capital taken from the past pattern. Rather than “can you help me?” the speaker will tend to say, “could you help me?” or “would you give me a hand?”. In the English system, this is done as a form of politeness.

In brief, politeness is described as behaviors that build and preserve comity. That is the ability of participants in a social encounter to interact in a relatively harmonious environment.

4.1.2 Politeness Maxim

Leech (1983) claimed a politeness principle with conversational maxims comparable to those proposed by Paul Grice. The six maxims of politeness are tact, generosity, approbation, modesty, agreement, and sympathy. Leech defines two types of illocutionary deeds while articulating his maxims.

He refers to representatives as “assertive” and directives as “impositive.” These maxims differ by culture: what is deemed polite in one society may be unusual or even impolite in another.

Not all maxims are equally significant. Each maxim is followed by “a less important sub-maxim.” For example, tact influences what we say more than generosity, and approbation is more important than modesty. It lends credence to the notion that negative politeness (the avoidance of strife) is more critical than positive politeness (seeking concord).

It is also worth noting that speakers may follow more than one politeness maxim simultaneously. Often, one maxim is in the foreground of the statement, with a second maxim implied. We might assume that if politeness is not transmitted, the politeness attitude is lacking.

The six types of Politeness principles proposed by Leech, such as tact maxim, generosity maxim, approbation maxim, modesty maxim, agreement maxim, and sympathy maxim, are explained briefly below:

a. Maxims of Tact

A tact maxim is a person who believes in and implements the tact maxim and will be considered courteous. This maxim reduces the expression of views that suggest a cost to others and increases the expression of beliefs that benefit others. Similarly, a command conveyed indirectly is more courteous than one expressed explicitly. Therefore, the more indirect a speech is, the politer it is.

This maxim is carried out in a commissioned and impositive manner. Commissiveness is found in a speech expressing the speaker's intent in future actions, such as stating a promise or offering something. A directive is an utterance that influences the speaker to act. These utterances can usually be found in some utterances such as; invite, command, order, advise, and so on. For example:

- Could I interrupt you for a second?
- If I could, clarify this, then.

An example of the context of the conversation carried out as a reflection can be seen in the research by Widya (2017) about lecturer-student conversations on WhatsApp media. A case in point used as an illustration is a student who contacted the lecturer through a short message. The student reminds the Grammar lecturer to determine the material taught in the class because the lecture will involve students from other majors.

The student's utterance meets the maxim of tact because it minimizes harm to others and maximizes the benefit of oneself. The student as a speaker gives more opportunities to allow the lecturer to make a choice. It also makes the impression that the student is more polite because he does not restrict (or dictate) the lecturer.

b. Maxim of Generosity

This maxim reduces the expression of views that express or suggest self-benefit; increases the expression of beliefs that express or imply self-cost. Like the maxim of wisdom, this maxim is carried out in a commissioned and impositive manner.

This maxim is self-centered, while the maxim of wisdom is centered on others. In more detail, the difference between this maxim and the maxim tact is that in this maxim, the advantage is on the part of the hearer while the speaker tends not to think about their interests to get a polite impression. For example, compare the following sentences:

1. Just come to my house to eat.
2. I will invite you to eat at my house if you do not have another essential agenda.

These two sentences have the same meaning because the speaker invites the hearer to eat at his house. However, the sentence in (1) is more likely to be instructive and short. Meanwhile, the sentence in (2) is longer and indicates that the speaker is in a more disadvantaged position because he who invites and who will have to suffer a "loss." However, to get a polite impression, the speaker chose to say a sentence indicating that he was ready to "sacrifice."

If the listener is not acknowledged as the giver, for example, "Can I have some sugar?" a higher degree of politeness can be reached. Considerably more courteous if the speaker does not seem like a recipient, as in [Is there any sugar?].

c. Maxim of Approbation

This maxim reduces the expression of ideas that reflect disapproval of others while increasing the expression of beliefs that express acceptance of others. It is preferable to compliment others and, if this is not feasible, to dodge the topic, provide a limited answer (perhaps using euphemisms), or keep silent.

This maxim instructs speakers to avoid saying unpleasant things to others, especially to speakers. This maxim is found in powerful and expressive speech. Assertiveness is an utterance commonly used to state the truth. This speech is usually obtained if someone expresses their opinion, comments, suggestions, and others. Expressiveness is speech that indicates the feelings of the speaker. These utterances can usually be found in some expressing gratitude, congratulations, welcome, apology, praise, and others.

The first part of the maxim seeks to prevent controversy; the second portion seeks to make others feel good by demonstrating unity. An example of a situation illustrating this maxim is when the speaker delivers an apology when giving a dropped wallet to the hearer.

1. I am sorry to bother you, but I think this wallet belongs to you.
2. Hey, be careful with your wallet. If you still need it, keep it; do not drop it anywhere.

The expressions in sentences (1) and (2) have identical meanings, but the two sentences are pronounced differently in actual conversation. In the context of the conversation, the speaker can say the two sentences, but sentence (1) tends to be better used in politeness because it will make the listener more comfortable when he hears it. In his words, the speaker used an apology, even though he did nothing wrong, instead of helping the hearer. However, this expression made his words more expansive and polite.

d. Maxim of Agreement

This maxim increases the agreement between oneself and others and reduces the disagreement between oneself and others. There is a tendency to increase agreement and minimize disapproval by expressing regret or partial agreement when someone talks to another person. It is related to Brown and Levinson's positive politeness techniques of "seek agreement" and "avoid conflict," which they value highly. However, it is not maintained that individuals avoid every dispute. It is noticed that they communicate agreement far more directly than dissent. This maxim is found in powerful speech:

A: How was the race?

B: Thank to your support, I finished first yesterday.

Whether or not the support provided by A is sincere, B answers by providing a correlation between his answer and the question given by A. It indirectly indicates that B is looking for a correlation between his achievements and the contributions made by A, regardless of whether the contribution is real or not.

The phrase "Thank you for your support, I finished first yesterday" is more polite than other alternative sentences such as "You know I am a fast driver" or "I worked hard, so I deserve to finish first."

e. Maxim of Sympathy

It is impolite to express one's ugliness when attending a funeral in various cultural entities. This maxim reduces antipathy between oneself and others and increases sympathy between oneself and others. In this case, the achievements achieved by others should be congratulated.

On the other hand, the calamity that happened to others should be given sympathy or condolences. This maxim can be found in assertive speech. The situation that shows this maxim is the utterances of a state of mourning. An example of the situation is as follows.

1. My condolences. Your father was kind to his neighbors during his lifetime.
2. Maybe your father would rather die because he has been ill for a long time. It was more than he suffered.

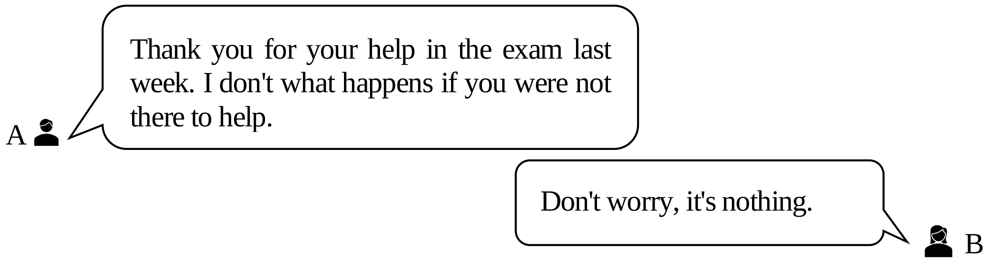
Sentence (1) denotes empathy for the deceased person and the family left behind. This expression is usually detached from the fact to be expressed. Meanwhile, expression (2) indicates the speaker's opinion, which may be based on actual conditions. However, this kind of expression does not indicate the presence of empathy, so it is categorized as impolite.

Leech highlighted that an essential aspect of this maxim is “feeling.” It has to do with the measure that determines the measure of sympathy required by a person when delivering one’s own.

f. Maxim of Modesty

The maxim is one of the six maxims proposed by Leech (1983) in his PP (politeness principle). The modesty maxim is to reduce praise or enhance dispraise of self. It argues that one should reduce self-praising expression and enhance self-criticism expression.

The maxim of wisdom and modesty are concerned with the level of good or bad evaluation of others or oneself spoken by the speaker. This maxim is found in assertive and expressive speech, as in the maxim of praise. One of the situations that can describe this maxim is when a person refuses to accept praise.



Expression B is a self-demeaning expression after he has given A very vital help. I help anyone who needs me,” or “Now that I help you, do not ever forget that you owe me.”

To facilitate the classification of maxims and their properties, consider the diagram of politeness presented by Leech below:

Picture 4. 2 Leech’s Table of Politeness

The Component Maxims of the General Strategy of Politeness			
Maxims (expressed in an imperative mood)	**Related pair of maxims**	**Label for this maxim**	**Typical speech event type(s)**
(M1) gives a high value to the hearer’s wants	Generosity, Tact	Generosity	Commissives
(M2) gives a low value to the speaker’s wants		Tact	Directives
(M3) gives a high value to the hearer’s qualities	Approbation, Modesty	Approbation	Compliments
(M4) gives a low value to the speaker’s qualities		Modesty	Self-devaluation
(M5) gives a high value to the speaker’s obligation to the hearer	Obligation	Obligation (of S to H)	Apologizing, thanking
(M6) gives a low value to the hearer’s obligation to the speaker		Obligation (of H to S)	Responses to thanks and apologies
(M7) gives a high value to the hearer’s opinions	Opinion	Agreement	Agreeing, disagreeing
(M8) gives a low value to the speaker’s opinions		Opinion reticence	Giving opinions
(M9) gives a high value to the hearer’s feelings	Feeling	Sympathy	Congratulating, commiserating
(M10) gives a low value to the speaker’s opinions		Feeling reticence	Suppressing feelings

As competent speakers, social beings, and members of a specific culture, we frequently know what constitutes polite (or impolite) behavior, but we do not always know it. All sorts of things can go wrong when speakers are perceived to be impolite, but what these speakers often lack is knowledge about what

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types of actions count in general as polite in this situation, how these types of actions can be performed (linguistically), what the conventions or social norms of politeness are, or what desires the particular hearer has. When a speaker tries to be courteous, she must frequently be aware of all these things (Pfister, 2010).

4.1.3 Politeness Maxim Analysis Studies

Politeness has been a critical issue in most contemporary pragmatic studies; it is frequently used to examine daily dialogue among people. Below are several studies about politeness and its examples to inform you on how to analyze politeness in society.

This article examines the politeness principle, which consists of six maxims in Kung Fu Panda 1 the movie. Rosyidha et al. (2019) found that tact maxim ten utterances (9,8%), generosity maxim five utterances (4,9%), approbation maxim 24 utterances (23,5%), modesty maxim 11 utterances (10,8%), agreement maxim 45 utterances (44,1%), and sympathy maxim seven utterances (6,9%) are all employed in the movie. Below is an example of each maxim:

- Tact maxim
  - PO [to customer]: *Oh, careful, that soup is... sharp!*

  PO served a bowl of soup noodles to his customer then. PO advised his customer that the bowl of soup noodles was sharp since he was concerned about his customer's satisfaction. The word 'sharp' meant 'hot' in that context. Thus, in that speech, PO maximized his customer's advantage to raise his customer's satisfaction.
- Generosity maxim
  - MR. PING: *What were you dreaming about?* [He puts down the basket and begins chopping vegetables next to Po as he listens.]
  - PO: *What was I... uh... I was dreaming about...* [He sees Mr. Ping listening expectantly and cannot bring himself. He glances down at the bowl he is holding.] *Uh... noodles*.

  The preceding remark appears to be a Generosity Maxim. It was because, at that point, PO wanted to maximize his father's satisfaction by claiming that he dreamed about noodles while he dreamed about Kung Fu. He downplayed his delight since he understood that his father's happiness was better than informing him about the actual dream. He did not want his father to be unhappy if he spoke the truth.
- Approbation maxim
  - VIPER: *Are you ready?*
  - PO: *I was born ready—*
  - PO: *OW! Oh...*
  - VIPER: *I am sorry, brother! I thought you said you were ready!*
  - PO: *That was awesome! Let's go again.* [salutes]

  PO spoke to Viper as they were exercising in such terms. PO has to confront a really powerful Viper while conducting a workout. PO was unable to match Viper's might and was attacked by him. Despite the agony caused by Viper's strike, Po praises Viper's prowess. Because PO maximizes praise for another, it is included in Approbation Maxim.
- Modesty maxim
  - SHIFU: *Master, Master, wait! You were about to point at Tigress, and that thing fell in front of her! That was just an accident! That flabby panda can't possibly be the answer to... our problem!*
  - OOGWAY: *There are no accidents.*
  - TIGRESS: *Forgive us, Master.* [She kneels forward and bows. The others follow suit.] We have failed you.

  Tigress expresses to Master Shifu that she has failed him with such words. Thus, one of the Furious Five was not selected as the Dragon Warrior. Tigress reduced her admiration by apologizing to Master Shifu. She maximized her disdain for herself by claiming that she and the Furious Five had failed Master Shifu, who had trained them properly to be the Dragon Warrior, but no one was picked. It was included in the Modesty Maxim.

- Agreement maxim
  - SHIFU: *Fly to Chorh-Gom Prison and tell them to double the guards and double their weapons. Double everything! Tai Lung does not leave that prison!*
  - ZENG: *Yes, Master Shifu!*

  In that utterance, Zeng told his master, Shifu, that he agreed with his master's statement to fly to Chorh-Gom Prison and tell them to make double the guards, double their weapons, and everything so that Tai Lung does not leave that prison. Zeng minimized disagreement between himself and master Shifu by saying and maximized agreement between himself and Master Shifu by agreeing to do what Master Shifu instructed him. Therefore, it includes in Agreement Maxim.

- Sympathy maxim
  - SHIFU [He rushes back to Oogway]: *W-we have to do something. We cannot just let him march on the Valley and take revenge! He will, he'll—*
  - OOGWAY [He looks into the water of the Moon Pool]: *Your mind is like this water, my friend. When it is agitated, it becomes difficult to see. But if you allow it to settle, the answer becomes clear.*

  In that utterance, Oogway saw Shifu's anxiety because Tai Lung escaped prison. Then, Oogway stated advice to make Shifu feel better. Therefore, it included Sympathy Maxim.

The most often used maxim in the film is the agreement maxim, which appears up to 45 times (44.1%). The agreement maxim is intended to reduce disputes within oneself while maximizing agreement between oneself and others. It is because, in Kung Fu culture, students often agree with what the Master says. They seldom dispute with their Master because disagreement demonstrates indiscipline, which is catastrophic in a student-master relationship.

The least often used maxim in the film is the generosity maxim, which appears in 5 utterances (4.9%). The generosity maxim is seldom used to maximize the benefit while minimizing cost. Po himself applies the generosity principle to increase Po's father's happiness. Generosity is seldom employed in this context since the most noticeable feature of a Kung Fu situation is the obedience between the Master and students, as seen by the agreement between the Master and students.

Besides that, a study by (Isnu Maharani, 2017) discussed the politeness maxim used by the main character in Secret Forgiven drama. Similar to the first one, this study analyzed six types of politeness maxims. The discussion showed that the main character (Kristen and Kami) used all types of maxims in their conversation. The most commonly used are the approbation maxim and agreement maxim. Below is an example of each type of politeness maxim:

- Tact Maxim
  - *Will you go?*
    The auxiliary verb "will" is stated as tact maxim, which relates to minimizing the expense of others while maximizing their gain. The speaker strives to be more courteous, with no purpose of forcing the listener to answer the question and provides the listener flexibility in answering the inquiry.

- Generosity Maxim
  - *Wait, I need to talk to you.*
    The fact that this utterance is marked as a generosity maxim indicates that the speaker reduces profit to herself while trying to maximize expense. The speaker then indicates that the utterance's cost is to herself. Meanwhile, the phrase indicates that the advantage is for the listener.

- Approbation Maxim
  - *She is a good woman, and I know she'll be able to work through this*

The speaker tries to persuade the listener that he or she is friendly and capable of dealing with any difficulty. She persuades the listener by complimenting someone. She engages in approbation maximization, minimizing criticism of others while maximizing praise.

- Agreement Maxim
    - *I bet you I'm right. Hey, I know. Tell him, I'd love to go out. But that I don't give out what he's looking for.*
    The listener appears to concur with the speaker by adding, "I bet you I'm right. Hey, I know. Tell him, I would love to go out," but the following remark reveals her dissatisfaction by continuing, "But that I do not give out what he is looking for." Those remarks used the agreement maxim because the hearer reduces her declaration of disagreement with the speaker and increases her expression of agreement with the speaker.
- Sympathy Maxim
    - *I'm glad you're so positive about it, mom.*
    The hearer employs the compassion maxim because she respects and congratulates her mother on her accomplishment. By employing the word "glad," she reduces her animosity against her mother and increases her affection for her mother.
- Modesty Maxim
    - *Nope, it's an old one. I just don't wear it very often.*
    Because the speaker reduces praise of herself and increases dispraise of herself, the speech can be classified as using the modesty maxim. She increases her scorn by refuting the hearer's assertion and claiming that her dress is ancient, even though the hearer compliments the outfit for looking great on him.

The main character performs all of the six politeness maxims. However, when the number of politeness maxims performed by the main character is compared, the tact maxim is performed three times, the generosity maxim is performed six times, the approval maxim is performed seven times, the agreement maxim is performed seven times, the sympathy maxim is performed two times, and the modesty maxim is performed only once. As a result, the approbation and agreement maxim (executed seven times) are politeness maxims frequently featured in the main character's discourse in the theatre Secrets Forgiven.

Further, this article specifically discussed the politeness used by EFL instructors in middle school and its implication for the English teaching-learning process. Haryanto et al. (2018) found that according to the observations, the EFL instructor used six maxims: tact maxim, generosity maxim, approval maxim, humility maxim, agreement maxim, and sympathy maxim. The findings also suggest that the instructor employed tact most of the time in classroom interaction. Furthermore, the interview results show that the politeness principle fosters togetherness between a teacher and students, fosters respectful behavior in students, and assists students in developing a positive attitude toward the lesson, which motivates them to participate more actively in the learning process.

The teacher's use of the politeness principle while engaging with students has three implications. For starters, the politeness principle fosters collaboration between instructors and students. Second, it fosters student respect. Third, the teacher's politeness principle encourages students to have a favorable attitude toward the lesson, which stimulates them to be more active in following it.

Hence, there is a more narrowly defined sort of politeness inside an interaction. We need the idea of face to explain it. Politeness is characterized as people's ability to use interactive approaches dependent on their communication context. Communicators might use their instruments to make a good impression on the interlocutor, build a favorable self-image, or increase personal space (Holmes, 2006).

4.1.4 Face Wants

Politeness may be achieved in both social distance and closeness. Respect or **deference** are commonly used to show awareness of another person's face when that other appears socially distant. When the other person is socially near, showing equivalent awareness is typically defined as friendliness, camaraderie, or solidarity. In most English-speaking environments, participants must often establish the relative social distance between them while they talk. Hence their face wants.

A **face-threatening act** (FTA) occurs when a speaker says anything threatening another person's expectations about their self-image. Alternatively, if some behavior may be construed as a danger to another's face, the speaker can say something to mitigate the threat. It is known as a **face-saving act** (FSA). Imagine the following scene:

Ex.

Him: I'm going to tell him to stop that awful noise right now! (1)

Her: Perhaps you could just ask him if he is going to stop soon because it's getting a bit late and people need to get to sleep. (2)

In that example, it was a late-night scene, and a youthful neighbor was blasting music as an older couple tried to sleep. In (2), one proposes an FTA (face-threatening act) and the other an FSA (face-saving act). Because it is widely anticipated, everyone will make an effort to respect the wishes of others. There are several methods for doing face-saving acts.

When we try to rescue someone else's face, we might heed their negative or good face desires. The negative face of a person is the desire to be autonomous, to have freedom of action, and not be forced on by others. The term 'negative' does not indicate [bad] in this context; instead, it is the contrary of 'positive.' The yearning to be accepted, even liked, by others, to be treated as a part of the same group, and to know that others share his or her desires is shown in a person's smiling face.

Thus, a face-saving act focused on the person's negative face will demonstrate deference, underline the value of the other's time or worries, and may even include an apology for the interference or interruption. It is often referred to as **negative politeness**. A face-saving act concerned with preserving the person's good face will likely demonstrate unity, emphasizing that both speakers desire the same thing and share a shared aim. It is also known as **positive politeness**.

Ex. *Come on, let's grab breakfast next week!*

It threatens the negative face since it consumes the listener's time. In this speech, we emphasize the positive face by demonstrating to the hearer that she/he is appreciated and regarded as a friend.

Ex. *I don't mean to impose, but I thought, if possible, we could have lunch together next week.*

This phrase is more polite and friendly and demonstrates knowledge of the negative face.

4.1.5 Politeness Strategies

Some norms and concepts govern how individuals speak and behave in any community. Brown and Levinson (1987) provide a different definition of politeness. They classified politeness strategies into five categories: Off-Record, Bald On-Record, Negative Politeness, Positive Politeness, and No FTA.

A. **Off-Record Strategies** – The strategy for using indirect language is to reduce the threat of imposing on the hearer. The primary goal is to relieve part of the speaker's pressure so that he does not appear

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intimidating. An off-the-record statement may or may not succeed, but if it does, it will be because more information was given than was stated. Take a look at the following examples:

- Ugh, I forgot my pencil.
- Hmm, I wonder where I put my pencil.

These are statements that are not targeted directly at the other. The other person might act as if the remarks were not even heard. They may be called "clues."

The threat to face is high. Off-record sub-strategies include inviting conversational implicature and being unclear or ambiguous, as illustrated in the following table, adapted from Hasmi (2013).

Picture 4.3 Sub-Strategies of Off-Record

No.	Sub-Strategies	Example
1.	Inviting conversational implicatures	
	a. Providing clues	**It is quite cold here.** (Rather than *close the window!*).
	b. Providing association rules	Oh, God. I have **got another headache.**
	c. Assuming (Presupposing)	Today I cleaned the house once **again.**
	d. Understating	The navy skirt looks **quite** nice on you. (*quite* literally, "not so good")
	e. Overstating	I asked you **a hundred times**, but you never responded.
	f. Using tautologies	**War is a war.**
	g. Using contradictions	A: Are you comfortable with him? B: Well, it is a toss-up between **yes or no.**
	h. Being sarcastic	**Tom is, indeed, a genius.** (He had done a lot of foolish things.)
	i. Making use of metaphors	**Harry is a genuine fish.** (He moves like a fish.)
	j. Using rhetorical inquiries	**How many times do I have to say it?**
2.	Being ambiguous or unclear: In violating the maxim of manner	
	a. Ambiguity	**Sam is quite sharp.**
	b. Vagueness	**I will walk down the street for a while** (to the market).
	c. Over-generalization	**Mature adults** occasionally assist with dishwashing.
	d. Displacing the hearer	A: **Someone must be responsible for this mess.** B: You know who was here tonight with his buddies? (C, who was there, is close to A and B.) A pretends that the FTA is directed to B but hopes that C recognizes that the FTA threatens her/him)
	e. Being insufficient, employing ellipsis	**Well, I will just** ...

If the speakers want to perform an FTA, they want to escape the obligation of it. Therefore they can do off-the-record and leave it up to the recipient to determine how to interpret it. The listener cannot be assured that a clue has been dropped; the speaker can convincingly assert an alternate interpretation.

B. **Bald On-Record Strategies** – They are strategies that generally make no or little effort to reduce the threat to the listener's face. The most direct method, which employs imperative forms, is known as **on record**.

- Give me a pencil.
- Lend me your pencil.

Those instances are targeted directly to the other person to convey your wants. If these direct statements are followed by terms such as [please] and [would you?], which aim to soften the demand and are referred to as **mitigating devices**.

Conflating the bald-on-record technique with all direct command forms (i.e., imperatives) is easy. It would be deceptive because close friends and family frequently employ imperative forms without being taken as orders. For examples:

- Give me that wet umbrella. (Trying to help)
- Have some more cake. (Offering something to eat)

Furthermore, regardless of who is being addressed, emergencies need the use of imperatives, such as when danger necessitates the usage of the phrases listed below.

- Watch out!
- Stop it here!

Additionally, this strategy has five sub-strategies, as written in the following table, as adapted from Hasmi (2013):

Picture 4.4 Sub-Strategies of On-Record

No.	Sub-Strategies	Example
1.	Demonstrating criticism (disagreement)	**Nobody strengthens your hair.**
2.	Making suggestions/giving advice	**Gods will flock to you if you dress like a goddess!**
3.	Requesting	**Get rid of your jacket!**
4.	A caution; threatening	**Do not try to disguise your body odor!**
5.	Making use of the imperative form	**Get out!**

Bald-on-record expressions, on the other hand, are related to speech situations in which the speaker believes he or she has power over the other and can affect the other's conduct with words. Such bald on-the-record behavior would normally be avoided in daily interactions between social equals since it may pose a danger to the other's face. Face-saving acts that employ positive or negative etiquette methods help to avoid face-threatening conduct.

C. Negative Politeness Strategies – It is not just that they know and wishes to preserve the hearer's face, but they also sense that you are intruding on them somehow. A face-saving act is often conducted in most English-speaking environments using a negative politeness strategy. Read the following examples:

- **Could you** lend me a pencil?
- I am sorry to bother you, but **can I** ask you for a pencil or something?

It should be noted that negative politeness is generally communicated through questions. The most prevalent form is a question containing a modal verb, such as [could you?] or [can I?]. Using this method yields formulations that include statements of apology for the interference. Read the following sub-strategies of negative politeness that are adapted from (Hasmi, 2013):

Picture 4.5 Sub-Strategies of Negative Politeness

No.	Sub-Strategies	Example
1.	Not being direct	**Could you tell me what time it is**?
2.	Not assuming/presuming (e.g., questioning, using hedge)	I was wondering if I may ask you a **quick question.**
3.	Not coercing the listener	
	a. Being pessimist	I will discuss my paper with you **if you have a bit of spare time** tomorrow afternoon.
	b. Minimizing the imposition	Could I speak with you **for a moment?**
	c. Deferring communication	Excuse me, **officer**. I believe I parked at the incorrect location.
4.	Communicating the speaker's desires avoid interfering with the hearer	
	a. Expressing regret/apologizing (e.g., indicating reluctance, giving overwhelming reasons, begging for forgiveness)	**Sorry to disturb you**, but ...
	b. Impersonalizing the speaker and hearer (using performatives, imperatives, impersonal verbs, passive and circumstantial voices, indefinite replace the pronouns 'I' and 'you,' pluralizing the 'I' and 'you' pronouns, viewpoint distancing)	A: **That car is parked in a no-parking zone**. B: Officer, it's mine. A: **Well, it must have a parking ticket**.
	c. Declaring the FTA to be a general rule	**Parking on double yellow lines is unlawful**. Therefore you will have to pay the fee.
	d. Nominalizing	**Participation** in an unauthorized demonstration is a crime. Could you please give me your name and address, sir?
5.	Resolving the hearer's other needs (going on record as incurring debt or as not indebting the hearer)	If you could only fix a formatting issue I'm having, **I'll buy you meal at lunch**.

Using negative politeness expressions emphasizing the hearer's right to freedom might be interpreted as a deference approach. It might be a group's standard approach or merely a choice made on a specific occasion. In what is known as "formal civility," a deference approach is also used. The language associated with a deferential approach stresses the speaker's and the hearer's independence, as seen by the absence of personal demands, such as: *If you make it, there will be a celebration. It will be entertaining.*

D. Positive Politeness Strategies – It attempts to reduce the threat to the hearer's positive face. These strategies are intended to make the listener feel good about himself, his interests, and his possessions. These are used among persons who are well acquainted. For example:

- *How about letting me use your pencil?*
- *Hey bro, I'd appreciate it if you'd let me use your pencil*.

A positive politeness strategy allows the requester to appeal to a similar objective and even friendship through statements like those. Below are three broad sub-strategies of positive politeness adapted from Hasmi (2013).

Picture 4.6 Sub-Strategies of Positive Politeness

No.	Sub-Strategies	Example
1.	Using common ground	
	a. Observing and attentive to the hearer	**Sam, you are great at solving math problems**. I wonder if you can help me with this little formatting problem.
	b. Exaggerating (e.g., approval, sympathy, interest in hearer)	**Jim was a good man. Just the man I was looking for. I knew I would run into you here**. Could you give me a few minutes?
	c. Increasing hearer interest	**You will not believe what Fred told me last night. It is perfect for you.**
	d. Employing in-group identity markers/jargon/slang/ellipsis	Are you okay, **babe**?
	e. Seeking agreement (safe topics, repetition)	**I fully agree. Right. Manchester United did not play too well last night, did they?** Do you think you could offer me a cigarette?
	f. Avoiding conflict (token agreement, pseudo-agreement, white lies, hedging opinions)	**In some ways, I think you are correct. But consider it this way.** Why don't you try...?
	g. Proposing/Asserting/Assuming common ground (e.g., gossip, small talk, viewpoint operation, presupposition manipulation)	**People like me and you, Sam, do not enjoy being pushed around like that.** Why don't you complain about it?
	h. Joking	**A: We are enjoying a fantastic summer. On average, it rains five times every week.** B: It is awful, isn't it? A: May I ask you a favor?
2.	Demonstrating that the speaker and hearer are partners	
	a. Asserting/assuming the speaker's understanding of and concern for the hearer's desires	**Because I know you enjoy marshmallows, I have got you a big box of them.** I was wondering if I might ask you a favor.
	b. Offering/promising	**I will take you out to dinner on the Weekend** if you make dinner tonight.
	c. Being optimistic	**I know you are usually grateful for gardening advice, Ted,** so I would not trim your lawn so short if I were you.
	d. Involving both the speaker and hearer in the activity	I am quite thirsty. **Let us pause for a moment.**
	e. Asking for/giving reasons	**Tom, I believe you have had a little too much to drink.** Why not spend the night at our place?
	f. Assuming/asserting reciprocity	If you assist me with my math assignment, Mom**, I will mow the yard after school tomorrow.**
3.	Fulfilling the hearer's desires for some X (e.g., giving the hearer gifts—goods, compassion, understanding, or cooperation)	A: **Tom, please have a tumbler of latte.** B: Fantastic! Thanks. A: Absolutely not. I was wondering if I might confide in you for a few moments.

The use of positive politeness expressions that emphasize the connection between speaker and hearer might be interpreted as a solidarity approach. Linguistically, such a plan will contain personal information, including nicknames, harsh phrases (especially among males), and common dialect or slang vocabulary. A solidarity approach is frequently distinguished by inclusive phrases like [we] and [let's], as in the party invitation: *Come on, let's go to the party. Everyone is going to be there. We will have a good time.*

E. No Face Threatening Act (FTA) – Because the FTA is deemed too dangerous for the intended receiver, it is not implemented in the interests of societal cohesion. This method is used by speakers when they believe the threat to another's face is exceedingly high. In this case, the speakers avoid executing the FTA perfectly, avoiding a threat to another's face.

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For instance, suppose you arrive at an important lecture, pull out your notebook to take notes, and realize you do not have anything to write with. You believe the guy sitting next to you has the solution. In this situation, your first option is whether or not to say something. You may go through your luggage, check your pockets, and return to your bag without saying anything but with the faint hope that your problem will be detected.

- Self: (looks in the bag)

  Other: (offers pen) Here, use this.

Many people appear to prefer having their needs acknowledged by others without having to explain those requirements verbally. When such requirements are identified, as in the preceding instance, it is evident that more has been communicated than was uttered.

Furthermore, while grading face-threatening acts, three important socio-cultural aspects are taken into account: social distance between interlocutors, degree of power over each other, and ranking. Being polite entails considering the emotions of others. It also entails being mindful of the expressions of others. A healthy connection develops when two people are at ease with one another.

In the next section, we will talk about power, which has been identified as one of the characteristics that influence which politeness technique interactants choose. Thus, power ties are created nearly in all encounters, especially when asymmetrical power relations are involved.

4.2 Power

Politeness is based upon recognizing differences of power (Fairclough, 1996). The relationship of power is created in nearly all conversations, especially when asymmetrical power relations are involved. To communicate, individuals must possess shared knowledge of each individual’s role relationships. Politeness is also shown in how individuals are addressed. The speaker may prefer pronouns to assign to the addressee based on the speaker-addressee relationship (Tamimi Sa’d & Mohammadi, 2014).

When you pay attention to the environment on your campus, the apparent phenomenon is that students will be obliged to speak more politely to the lecturer. Meanwhile, lecturers do not have the same level of politeness when talking to students. On the other hand, the lecturer will be obliged to speak politely when he communicates with other lecturers with higher positions, such as when talking to professors.

Defining “power” may be problematic as this term has many versions and definitions. Power can be ideological, economic, or cultural, manifest at various levels: social, individual, military, state-based, legal, and others. Also, it can refer to something that contains physical and violent elements or something that exists but is not realized.

Additionally, Watts (2003) defines power as the freedom to act to attain one’s aims, whether or not this includes the ability to force one’s will on others to carry out activities that are in one’s best interests. From a sociological perspective, power refers to something that can result in changes in others. The capacity to persuade someone to do or not do something is referred to as a power operation. At this point, power becomes very relevant to discuss pragmatics because language is a medium of communication that can transform a person from a way of thinking to physical activity.

Please pay attention to the following illustrations, and consider what makes them different.

Please Do Not Litter

The important thing about those illustrations (see **Picture 4.7**) is that both phrases effectively get people to change their minds or even their behavior. It is a simple concept about the relationship between power and language. Both illustrations show the same command, but the impression generated by the two images may be different due to the words used. The sentences in the picture are more persuasive than the sentences below.

However, which image will be more effective when adapted to the context may be determined. The image above will be more appropriate when placed in a more formal location, while the image below may be more effectively placed in a public place or where people tend to be more ignorant of the rules. The importance of those illustrations is that both phrases effectively get people to change their minds or behavior. It is a simple concept about the relationship between power and language.

Furthermore, sociologists formulate that language has significant power that can be used as an indicator of the existence of power in a social structure. In his research in Indonesia, Anderson (1990) found that language plays a crucial role in political contestation in Indonesia. For example, President Soeharto used specific pronunciations that changed the *-kan* ending with *-ken* which did not match the official Indonesian spelling. It reflects how someone who has power can make language an indicator of the strength of his power. Slightly back in the past, Javanese people have different dialects and variants of vocabulary for different circles. The Javanese aristocrats (nobles) used a specific language that the common people did not master to indicate their power in the social structure.

The condition may have a different context than the discussion of politeness in the previous discussion about politeness. Leech (1983) considers politeness from the aspect of indirectness, whereas Brown and Levinson (1987) view politeness from the perspective of status differences caused by the existence of power (power disparity). Three determinant scales determine the disparity: (1) social distance between speakers and hearers, (2) the speaker and hearer's relative power, and (3) the degree of imposition associated with the required expenditure of goods or services. Below is a further explanation:

1. The **social distance between speakers and hearers** is based on age variations, gender, and socio-cultural background. Most socio-cultural communities place older people in positions with higher politeness than people of younger age. Related to the dichotomy of the sexes, a woman tends to have better politeness than a man in speech. The same is true of the socio-cultural ranks because others will politely treat people with a higher socio-cultural background. For example, a teacher in a rural area will get polite behavior because he is considered to have a higher socio-cultural status than other people who work as farmers or laborers. Similarly, an official has a high politeness rating compared to ordinary people.
2. The scope of the **relationship between the speaker and hearer relative power** is related to a power rating that prevails in a more load structure than the definition in point 1. If the social distance range disparity applies to two parties in the opposition, this relative power targets hierarchical relationships similar to ecosystem chains. For example, a teacher has a higher power rank in an educational

institution than the students. However, the setting turns into a highway, and there is a violation of traffic rules, so the teacher's power level is lower than that of a policeman.

3. The degree of **imposition associated with the required** is based on a relative position between the act speech and the speech act. For example, a man meets his female friend when the husband is not at home. However, conditions will be very different when the man comes to the house because of an emergency, such as a fire or crime. It is considered disrespectful or even violates the norms of politeness that apply to speech in society.

4.3 Ideology

Ideology has many definitions. However, the most straightforward term when understanding this in linguistics is something hidden behind texts. According to Eagleton (1996), ideology refers to our attention today as [ideas that help legitimize dominant political forces]. However, those who oppose dominant political groups may label their views as ideologies and intuitively recognize the normative character of all ideologies, which is discussed further below. An additional important attribute of the dominant ideology is the function of 'naturalization': the hegemonic state is presented as rational, dictated by common sense, or objective. We have seen this reflected in the view of a standard language as the unsigned and the most efficient variety for communicative purposes.

It is not difficult to show that the common-sense point of view is a laden one; for example, earlier views that saw specific social groups as irreparably inferior are now gladly replaced, but these were accepted at the time as rational views. The commonsense view in this argument is just one that is generally accepted, and proponents of the dominant ideology may care to see this perception gain and maintain broad approval.

According to Fairclough (1996), ideology has a very close relationship with power because ideology has an assumptive nature that is embedded in specific conventions, and the nature of the convention itself depends on the power relations that underlie the convention; and because they are the means of regulating existing social relations and power differences, simply through the repetition of familiar and familiar ways of behavior that take these relationships and power differences for granted. Ideology is closely related to language because using language is a form of social behavior that is the most common and the social form of behavior in which we rely most on 'common-sense' assumptions. However, despite the importance of language, the concept of 'ideology' appears very rarely in discussions of language and power in linguistics, which is a symptom of their limitations.

Analysts in critical discourse point out that ideology is detected by analyzing specific discourse features at the textual and intertextual levels. For example, the First Minister of Scotland was denied the right to hold an independence referendum. At the time, he argued that Scotland could not be 'imprisoned in England against its will. The verb 'imprisoned' with its connotation of helplessness, emphasized by the passive voice, and the phrase 'against his will is chosen over slightly more neutral expressions such as 'remain part of England.'

Similarly, the formality of lexical choice can be used to exert influence. The following example is an ironic email from a reader who is aware of how big businesses use language to increase sales:

Seen on [company name] trains, in the shop. The list of coffees and other drinkable and edible things you can buy is headed 'Prices and stuff'. Obviously, the denotational meaning is 'Prices'! So, what is the pragmatic meaning? Is it '[company founder name] is a really nice cool guy, a man of the people, who would really rather just give you a nice

Picture 4.8 Example of Ironic E-Mail

The standard magnifier ‘Prices and goods’ is informality in the form of slurred language, used to make rail companies appear human and attractive and to encourage people to buy more ‘drinkable and edible goods,’ even if they are expensive.

The degree of specificity implied by lexicogrammatical choices can also be used to persuade. For example, Priti Patel, UK Home Secretary, explained her new points-based immigration system that would bar people from entering the country if they have lower skills or do not have an excellent job offer, telling the News Agency. PA means that the brightest and best will be able to come to England to bring out their true talent’. The word ‘will’ denotes a specific future used to persuade governments, businesses, and society that the system will achieve its goals.

Plans are presented as open to debate when the planners have already decided which option they want the public to take. The following is an excerpt from a proposal to build a multinational supermarket in a small Welsh town:

> A new food retail outlet in [town name] could have a positive economic impact and provide additional employment. The town may also benefit from increased visitors as people shop locally rather than travel to the coast. This may add to the vitality of the town and contribute towards the regeneration of the Station Road area. The [site name] site adjacent to [town name], which is highlighted as a potential development site, could be a suitable location. Development would be dependent on the relocation of the Highways Depot.

Optimistic nouns and adjectives in ‘positive economic impact,’ ‘additional jobs,’ ‘increased visitors,’ ‘vitality,’ and ‘regeneration’ outnumber hedges ‘could’ and ‘maybe,’ thus focusing on profit than they are unspecific.

The sentence about site and relocation is out of place in the paragraph about profits, indicating that the planner hopes readers will be so affected by the benefits that they will ignore the plan’s details.

The ‘could’ and ‘will’ of site and relocation make plans seem as unspecific as the ‘could’ and ‘maybe’ of the first three sentences. The locals later found that the negotiations were going well.

4.4 Politeness, Power, and Strategy

Levinson relates public expression to face management. According to them, speech acts in politeness are divided into two, namely (1) face-threatening acts/FTA; and (2) face-saving acts. It can then be understood in terms of two types of face wants in politeness: negative and positive. A negative face includes the right to territory, freedom of action, and freedom to intervene regarding the desire not to be disturbed by the actions of others. Meanwhile, a positive face is a consistent self-image that a person has, which he wants to be appreciated or recognized by others.

Based on Levinson’s formulation, Cutting and Fordyce (2021a) underline that positive politeness strategies aim to save a positive face. The strategy is to show closeness and solidarity, highlight friendship, position other people better, and condition the interlocutor to feel that the speaker and listener

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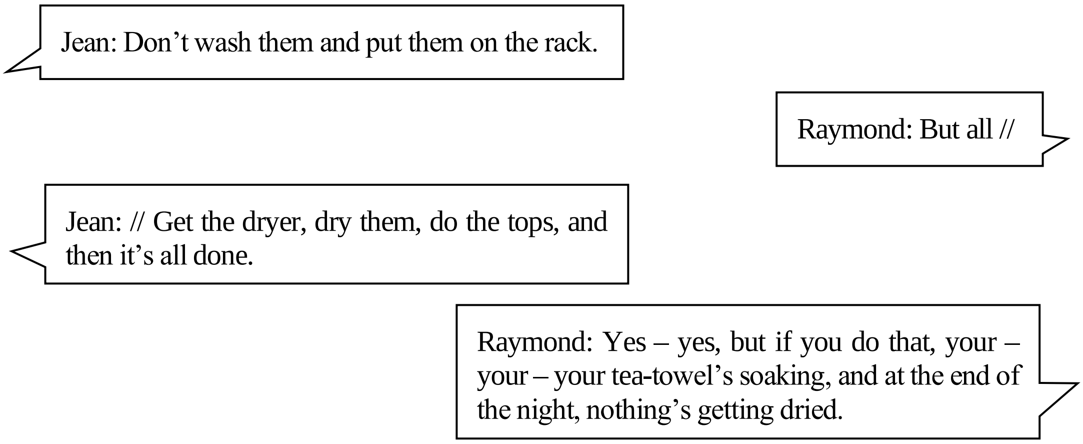
have the same goal. For example: “Dimas, my most helpful bestie-I would be very grateful if you could tell me how to pass the English test.”

As quoted by Brown and Levinson (1987), one of the main strategies of a positive politeness strategy is to claim equality. The speaker can do this by paying attention to the listener’s interests, wants, and needs. The invitation to the party we saw in our previous discussion of negative politeness (*Feel free to come to the party if you have time*) can be changed to show positive politeness as follows: (*I know you hate parties, Jen, but come anyway. We’d all be there, and that would be cool. Ally and Andrea will be there!*).

That example contains many solidarity strategies – knowledge of personal information, nicknames, shared dialects and slang, and gossip. The invitees claim common ground by including the invitees in joint activities, exaggerating interests, predicting that the party will be ‘cool,’ and using identity markers within the group: her nickname ‘Jen’ and young people’s slang in the ‘cool’ group. The mention of Ally and Andrea confirms the similarities: my invitees say, ‘I know that you know about them, just as much as we do.’ In addition, the speaker here is optimistic that the listener will accept the invitation.

Two common positive politeness strategies are seeking approval and avoiding disagreement. One way to avoid disputes is to use pseudo-agreement, as seen in the following example:



Picture 4.9 Pseudo Agreement

The word ‘yes – yes (see **Picture 4.9**) sounds like an agreement, but it is not because it is followed by a ‘but’ and a contradiction.

Avoiding “disagreement” is practiced across many cultural entities and even between speakers of different cultures. The speaker can also play the role of the listener and speaker as ‘partners’ through offers and promises and with the assumption of reciprocity as in dialogue: “If I help you, will you keep this secret?”

Another term very close to the practice of power in the language is hegemony. The term *hegemony* comes from the Greek term *hegeisthai*. Hegemony can be defined as domination by one group over another, with or without the threat of violence, so that ideas dictated by the dominant group against the dominant group are accepted as common sense.

According to Eriyanto (2002), the concept of hegemony is widely used by sociologists to explain the phenomenon of the occurrence of efforts to maintain power by the ruling party. The concept of hegemony was popularized by the leading Italian philosopher Antonio Gramsci, who argued that capitalist power and domination were not only through the material dimensions of economic means and production relations but also power and hegemony.

While the former uses coercion to get people to follow and obey the conditions of a particular mode of production or values, the latter involves the extension and perpetuation of voluntary “active obedience” from groups dominated by the ruling class through the use of leadership—intellectual, moral, and political. Hegemony emphasizes the form of expression, the application of the mechanisms implemented to defend and develop themselves through the obedience of their victims so that these efforts succeed in influencing and shaping the mind.

In its realization, the function of language as a tool of power (hegemony) occurs in the verbal communication process, both transactional and interactional. In this context, language provides elements that allow students to develop specific speech acts and strategies to influence or dominate the speaker's feelings, thoughts, and behavior. Some speech strategies are to influence or even dominate the speaker's feelings, thoughts, and behavior. This symptom can occur in various speech events in political, economic, social, educational, and cultural institutions.

A study by Idris (2014) at SMPN 1 Bungoro, Pangkep Regency, discovered that the hegemony in the teacher's speech act in learning Indonesian is represented in the directive, assertive, and expressive acts. In directive acts, the teacher, as the holder of power in the classroom, uses five types of directives: orders, requests, prohibitions, requests, questions, and refusals. The use of these speech acts has a high restriction level, so it tends to represent dominative power. In the representation of hegemony in assertive acts, the teacher, as the holder of power in the classroom, uses three assertive acts: affirming, showing, and defending. This assertive act shows the domineering nature of power over students.

Expressive actions are represented in the form of teacher anger, which also has a high level of restriction, so it is domineering. The hegemonic function of teacher speech acts in learning Indonesian at SMP Negeri 1 Bungoro, Pangkep Regency, is represented in preventive and corrective actions. In preventive action, hegemony prevents the violation of rules in learning. As for corrective actions, hegemony functions to improve student actions, student behavior in learning, and student work in doing assignments.

What is interesting is the research on the practice of hegemonic power studied (Idris, 2016). The research resulted in an example of a dialogue in the form of an imperative found in teaching and learning interactions at SMP Negeri 1 Bungoro, Pangkep Regency. The context of speech is as follows:

Guru (*Teacher*):	Bagaimana hasil ujiannya?	*How was the result?*	(1)
Siswa (*Students*):	Kurang memuaskan, Bu.	*Not satisfied, ma'am.*	(2)
Guru (*Teacher)*:	Kalau kamu semua mau mendapat nilai bagus, tingkatkan cara belajarnya, ya? Pasti nilai semakin meningkat dan lebih bagus lagi	*Suppose you all want to get good grades and improve your study, OK? Surely the grades are increasing and getting better.*	(3)

In sentence (3), [*Suppose you all want to get good grades and improve your study, OK! Surely the grades are increasing and getting better*]. In responding to student questions, the teacher also uses a commanding directive. The command-directive utterance appears as the teacher's response to students asking for the value of their daily test. The implication is that the teacher orders students to study hard to get the maximum score.

Other examples of speech context, such as:

Siswa 1 (*Student 1*):	Terima kasih saran dan pertanyaannya.	*Thank you for the suggestions and questions.*	(4)
Guru (*Teacher)*:	Iya, memang seharusnya dijelaskan satu-satu bagian itu supaya semuanya tahu namanya per bagian itu. Ingat saran dan pertanyaan dijawab semua ya, supaya saya tidak perlu lagi menjelaskan ulang.	*Yes, that should be explained one by one so that everyone knows the names of each part. Remember that all suggestions and questions are answered, so I do not have to re-explain.*	(5)

The utterance (5) is a directive of recommendation. It is indicated by the use of the word remember which indicates that the teacher encourages and warns students to explain the material so that everything is clear. Besides, the teacher's command indicates the goal of the teacher, who wants to lighten his burden as a giver of knowledge and explain reinforcement material.

The teacher's dominance in the directive, remember that all suggestions and questions are answered yes, so I do not need to re-explain (5) marked by a warning from the teacher using the word remember. The use of the word remembers dominated the space for movement and freedom so that students were stiff, tense, and depressed because they were afraid they did not answer all questions properly. Based on this research, it can be concluded that the results of that study are:

1. Hegemony in the teacher's speech acts in learning

   Indonesian language at SMPN 1 Bungoro, Pangkep Regency, is represented in the directive, assertive, and expressive acts.

   In the representation of hegemony in directive acts, the teacher, as the holder of power in the classroom, uses five types of directives: orders, requests, prohibitions, requests, questions, and refusals. The use of these speech acts has a high restriction level, so it tends to represent dominative power. Meanwhile, in assertive acts, the teacher, as the holder of power in the classroom, uses three types of assertive acts: affirming, showing, and defending. This assertive act shows the domineering nature of power over students. Expressive actions are represented in the form of teacher anger, which also has a high level of restriction, so it is domineering.
2. The hegemonic function of teacher speech acts in learning Indonesian at SMPN 1 Bungoro, Pangkep Regency, is represented in preventive and corrective actions. In a preventive action, hegemony prevents the violation of rules in learning. As for corrective actions, hegemony functions to improve student actions, student behavior in learning, and student work in doing assignments.

Language is an instrument of symbolic power. The style of speaking and the diction used can indicate a person's status, degree, and power in society. The language used by a person can indicate that person's status as a ruler or vice versa because language can represent strength and power. In every language event, some parties dominate, and some parties are dominant. The language, originally only used as a means of communication, can shift into a tool of power practice. The language representing power is often used to enlarge and expand one person's influence to dominate others.

Furthermore, Subandi et al. (2022) explained that language contains mechanisms to seize or maintain power (power), domination, and hegemony. That is, language is a representation of symbolic power. When the dominant party controls the means of production, it determines the consciousness of the dominant party. Language is a manifestation of social, cultural, and symbolic capital, which is a means that plays a role in determining social position, including power. Social capital is a network of relationships as a resource for determining the social position of power.

In addition, language exchange is always related to symbolic power. The symbolic system as an instrument of domination means the production of linkages symbols with dominant class interests and specific group ideologies disseminated to the wider community. The dominant culture creates hierarchical differences and legitimizes these differences. The production of ideas about the social world is subject to the logic of power, and language is an instrument

Domination is a symbol system that functions as a communication tool. It equates views to entering into a consensus that can be used as a practical tool to express specific ideologies and hegemony of power that allows for the coercion of a view. It strengthens the argument that language as a social tool has political and ideological content and symbolizes power from a particular cultural identity. Symbolic power will be able to function when there are parties who use symbolic power and there are parties who become targets. In the end, whatever is conveyed through language by the dominant party is considered a truth that must be accepted and impacts the emergence of compulsion or awareness and agreement to carry out or do.

There has never been a language practice that is free from interests. Every human behavior, including language, has specific ideological and other interests. The speaker's effort to convince and be accepted by the interlocutor, consciously and by a compulsion to the ideas conveyed, is proof of the speaker's efforts to hegemony and dominate to control the other person.

Subandi et al. (2022) conclude that the use of language forms aimed at verbally attacking the interlocutor is often found in the life of the fictional world as a result of literary works, one of which is in the film entitled Better Day by Derek Tsang. In the dialogue texts between characters, many present events of language crimes, especially by the antagonist against the main character. Language crimes are characterized by the use of language forms used to verbally attack the main character to drop the psychic of the interlocutor so that it will indirectly place the interlocutor in a weak position. Through language forms, punishment, intimidation, accusations, prohibitions, and orders, the emergence of fear, worry, anxiety, and the like, and the loss of the rights to freedom, tranquillity, and the right to equal dignity of the interlocutor.

Language crimes are used as a strategy for hegemony and domination. On the other hand, these forms of language make the speaker superior, dominant, and powerful because language has the power to reflect the dominance and power of the speaker. Thus, language crimes that are realized in forms of language have the function of verbally attacking the main character's psyche/psyche by the antagonists, making the antagonist character the dominant party and the main character the dominant party. Therefore, the language crime committed by the antagonists against the main character manifests the hegemonic practice of symbolic power and is used to legitimize the speaker's symbolic power.

4.5 Power, Politeness, and Ideology

Ideology is concerned with power, and the rule maker will use their power (authority) to select what sort of society they want to establish. In a broader sense, ideology is a system of thinking, beliefs, and symbolic practices related to politics and social activities. The Brown-Levinson examination of politeness phenomena is reinterpreted and applied to political literature, notably international communication texts. Their paradigm explains many features of verbal formulation in face-to-face conversation, but it appears to consider social connections as a natural condition of affairs to which interlocutors respond.

Most individuals are aware that politicians have hidden meanings behind what they say. Few politicians have a positive public image. To attain their purpose, they frequently lie to society. They do not rely solely on deception to get public attention. It refers to politeness. Since politeness was a language staple in the eighteenth century, it was frequently misused, adding little to the broad concepts of [refinement] and [correctness]. It was used in social behavior, formal and informal expression, and the general state of society and culture. Politeness was an advanced social interaction, but social "politeness" was paradigmatically conversational. Various crucial topics are discussed regarding politeness (Klein, n.d.).

Therefore, the language used by politicians employs politeness. They will combine it with their power and ideology. These three ideas are linked to one another. They try to influence the public's opinion and prove that the opponents' parties are not worthy of being elected by violating politeness.

There are various tools that politicians might use to communicate their ideologies. They can attack their opponents by violating maxims. The ideology can be expressed by being hypocritical, and it can be expressed by applying maxims such as Approbation Maxim. In terms of civility, unpleasant language persuades others to do terrible things (Sosiowati et al., 2014).

4.6 How to Analyze Pragmatics: A Combination with CDA

Discourse analysis through the Critical discourse Analysis (CDA) in the language journal. The scholar discusses advertising discourse by examining the interrelationships between the sentences composed and the relationship between texts, society, and culture. The approaches in discourse analysis are divided into three, namely:

1. **Formal approach**. It understands discourse at a higher linguistic level than sentences. It examines discourse in terms of type, structure, and the relationship of its parts.
2. **Sociological-empirical approach**. It understands discourse as a speech event bound by the situation's context.
3. **A critical approach**. As a form of social practice, it places discourse as power. Every person has a discourse purpose, including exercising power.

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Pragmatic and critical approaches are combined, becoming critical pragmatics because empirical phenomena are not sufficiently studied only with a pragmatic approach. In pragmatic studies, we are an inclusive form or a combination of the first person (I, one, me) and the second (you, you, you). However, such an explanation is insufficient when our persona deixis is found in two editorial discourses covering the same topic used by different newspapers.

Regarding words used in the editorials of *Republika* and *Suara Pembaruan* on November 10th, 2008, the topic of execution of the perpetrators of the Bali Bombing I shows a difference in the number of personal deixes. *Republika* uses 19, while *Suara Update* uses only 4. Pragmatics cannot explain the difference, but critical pragmatics can explain it. It is related to the ideology of the two dailies as Muslim newspapers (Republika) and Christians (Suara Pembaruan). Republika uses the word us more to build our perspective so that the readers equally sympathize. This sympathy will form solidarity and an understanding that the actors are not a terrorist. They are part of us.

Pragmatics and CDA theoretically may be combined because they have compatibility (i.e., both take into account the context even though the scope or scope is not the same). In pragmatics, context is any background knowledge that is assumed to be shared by both the speaker and the listener and helps the listener interpret what the speaker meant. The context in pragmatics is limited to interpersonal speech's situational setting. Meanwhile, CDA involves context regarding setting, situation, history, power, and ideology.

There are also dynamics in pragmatic studies that have begun to touch the realm of CDA or become a sign of the emergence of critical pragmatics. The study by Verschueren (2011) reviewed the editorial of the December edition, of The Economist: The World in 1996. It is based on the view that communication events or phenomena at the macro level are difficult to separate from the ideological process. He places the study as part of Chapter 8 on Macropragmatic issues, particularly in the discourse and ideology subchapter. Macropragmatics is a pragmatic perspective that pays attention to the use of language at the macro level, such as issues of intercultural and international communication. Meanwhile, micro-pragmatics pays more attention to small-scale languages, such as face-to-face interaction.

In the CDA tradition, critical attributes reflect two CDA settings. First, the CDA builds on the critical ideas of the Frankfurt School (especially Jurgen Habermas). According to Habermas, critical science must come to self-reflection. That is, it must reflect on the initial interests on which it is based and heed the historical context of the interactions it involves. Language studies should not only stop at describing aspects of language but also discuss its function in communication, even reflecting on the human users.

Second, CDA is a continuation of the critical linguistic tradition. The term critical linguistics first appeared related to the study of the followers of Halliday (especially Roger Flower, Gunter Krees, and Bob Hodge) about the function of language in society. The emergency that gave rise to a critical perspective in linguistics can be understood as a reaction to contemporary pragmatics (especially to Austin and Searle's speech act theory) and Labov's quantitative-correlative sociolinguistics.

Discourse cannot exist without social meaning; therefore, there is a close relationship between linguistic structure and social structure. This view then gave birth to an interdisciplinary CDA approach.

Thus, critical in critical pragmatics can be formulated as the ability or power to reveal the social meaning of language discourse and reflect the human users. Critical pragmatics needs to have ideological prejudices in every study without losing its identity as a pragmatic study.

Not every discourse can and needs to be analyzed with critical pragmatics. Its scope of exploration is discourses using spoken and written language) which contain motives, power relations, and ideological motives that can greatly impact.

Mass media discourse (news, headlines, or corners), official speeches, or politicians' statements can potentially be critical pragmatic study data. However, the casual conversation between husband and wife in the family room, the dialogue of children playing together in the yard, or the electronic mail of a couple or several old friends, are not discourses that are suitable as data for critical pragmatic studies.

Summary

- Politeness is crucial in understanding why individuals say things in a certain way, whether in spoken or written speech, and why they choose to violate a maxim and communicate an illocutionary deed indirectly rather than explicitly.
- We must notice and demonstrate facial awareness when we engage in social connections. It is evident in how we engage with one another.
- The order of politeness strategies on a continuous line:

Off Record		**Least direct**	**Most polite**
Negative politene ss		Less direct	Very polite
Positive politene ss		More direct	Less polite
Bald on record		**Most direct**	**Least polite**

  The less explicit you pretend to be, the more polite you seem. Conversely, the more direct you express your wants in conversations, the less polite you seem to be.
- Politeness strategies are invented in order to save the listener's face. In other words, we normally attempt to avoid embarrassing or making the listener feel uncomfortable. We consider the sentiments of others and avoid Face-Threatening Acts (FTA).
- FTA is often inescapable. Speakers can correct an FTA with negative politeness that acknowledges the listener's bad face. On the other hand, they can remedy the FTA with positive politeness, which respects the listener's positive face.
- Positive face- the person's desire to be accepted and connected by others and to be treated as a part of their group. In contrast, the negative face-the desire for autonomous, free, not being forced on by others, and being respected by others in terms of time, privacy, and possession.
- Because politeness is a language, it is often misused. It will be impacted by the speakers' or listeners' ideology and power.

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Understanding Task

Exercise 1. ***Pay attention to the dialogue, discuss with your peer based on the questions, and then put your answer in the provided box.*** (This text is adapted from (Cutting & Fordyce, 2021b)

BBC News 26 November 2018	
Reporter:	Mr. President, have you read the climate report yet?
Trump:	I have seen it, I've read some of it and it's fine.
Reporter:	They say the economic impact would be devastating =
Trump:	= Yeah, I don't believe it.
Reporter:	You don't believe it?
Trump:	No, no I don't believe it, and here's the other thing. You're going to have to have China and Japan and all of Asia and all of these other countries, you know ... it [the report] addresses our country. Right now we're the cleanest we've ever been and that's very important to me. But if we're clean, but every other place on earth is dirty, that's not so good. So I want clean air, I want clean water, very important.

Mr President, have you read the climate report yet?

a. How detailed do you feel the President has read the climate report? What language points to this?
b. Do the reporter and Trump seem to share the same values? How does their choice of words reflect your evaluation?
c. In Trump's last five lines, what impression does the repetition of words and phrases create of the President? Why do you imagine that he repeats? Rewrite the five lines without repetition, and discuss what impression that creates.
d. What effect do the generalizations and superlatives have?
e. Find another transcription of Trump's words, and explore whether it has the same features.

<u>**Discussion Result**</u>
…………………………………………………………………………………………………
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…………………………………………………………………………………………………

Exercise 2. ***Read the following text, and then analyze the positive politeness from the conversation below.***

Text

Edinburgh buses

This text has been chosen to demonstrate that critical discourse analysis (CDA) can be applied to non-political discourse. Here are the students again. Note that AF and BM are residents in Edinburgh, and the other two are from England and have only been in Edinburgh for a month. They are entertaining each other with tales about their experiences on Edinburgh buses.

BM	I had a really bizarre conversation with a bus driver over that and em it was early in the morning and he had the particular kind of accent that I c-didn't quite catch everything he said. He didn't quite catch everything I said either. So it was working both ways. So we had this really confusing conversation. (0.5) I was on the wrong bus. But anyway I'd got on it.
BF	(heh heh) (1) We had a really neurotic bus driver this morning. Cos he (0.5) there must be something wrong with his hearing and everybody was getting on and saying one eighty please. He said well what kind of fare do you want? You know (heh heh heh)
DM	// (heh heh heh)
BM	// (heh heh)
BF	I wish you'd speak up, you know. (heh heh) Really annoyed with everybody.
DM	Demented bus driver.
BF	// (heh heh heh)
AF	// (heh heh heh) You get the occasional one. (2.5) The wild ones are on the on the green buses actually. They go at a hell of a rate. Don't stop for anything. If you got to // want to get somewhere.
BF	// Limited stop buses, are they?
AF	No just the no they're just em the the SMT buses // the green ones that go.
BF	// Oh.
AF	into Saint Andrew's Square. The big ones and the little ones and the (0.5) I d- I don't know. I think they're on some sort of productivity bonus or something.
BF	(heh heh)
DM	What the more times they go round. // (heh heh)
AF	// Yeah something like that.
BF	Sponsored bus drivers. // (heh heh)
DM	// (heh heh heh)
AF	// (heh)
BM	They give change, don't they?
AF	They do.
BM	They're sort of 'We give change!'
DM	If you can get on the bus, you get change then.
BF	Ah right. // that's good.
DM	// Yeah.
AF	If you don't mind breaking your leg as you try and get on. (heh heh)

Exercise 3. ***Find three international journal articles about politeness (1), ideology (1), and power (1), and then fill in the following questions:***

The title ……………………………………
Background of the study
…………………………………………………………………………………………………
Method and theory used in the study
…………………………………………………………………………………………………
The results of the study
…………………………………………………………………………………………………
Benefits that you get from the article
…………………………………………………………………………………………………

Exercise 4. ***Please find the transcription of your favorite movie, then follow the instructions below.***

1. The transcription must be at least half of the movie
2. The transcription must be analyzed using QDA Miner Lite (Coding analysis)
3. Identify the politeness
   a. The determination of the **social distance between the main character and another character** is based on factors such as age variations, gender, and socio-cultural background
   b. The scope of the **relationship between the speaker and relative hearer power**

The degree of **imposition associated with the required** is based on a relative position between one speech act and a speech act.

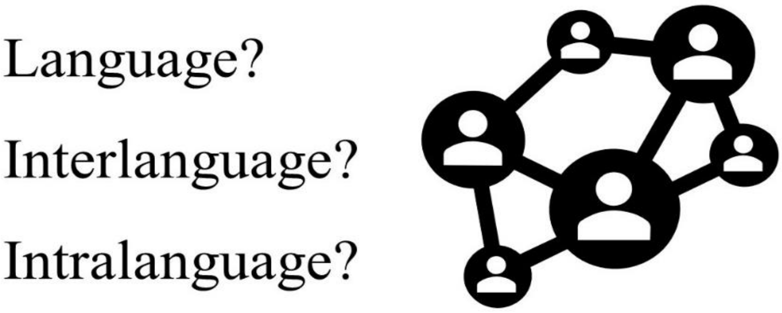
Exercise 5. ***Please determine the politeness strategy, and maxim flouted, and the speech act from the following scenario.***

A college dean to an applicant for a job at the college:
"You might be happier at a smaller -or a larger-college, son!"
Politeness strategy: ……………….
Maxim flouted: …………………
Speech act: …………………..

Chapter 5

Contrastive Pragmatics

5.1 Contrastive Definition



Picture 5.1 Contrastive Definition

Pragmatics cannot neglect the diversity of language study sources, whether created or interpreted speech. Variability can be produced in 'the same' language - abstractions based on various dimensions of one practice, such as "mutual understanding" to creations connected to education, society, and political elements. From an anachronistic standpoint, this form of interlanguage variety may be noticed.

We discuss pragmatics, movies, and history while focusing on use factors. In contrast, the interlanguage diversity of pragmatic events in pragmatic dialectology is known as variational pragmatic names.

Contrastive analysis is a work technique that attempts to compare the structure of L1 with the structure of L2 to uncover differences between the two languages. The distinctions between the two learned and generated languages can be used to identify or predict the challenges or language learning limits that students would experience in school, particularly while studying L2. Contrastive analysis was established and used as a structural linguistic application to language education in the 1950s and 1960s, and it is founded on the following assumptions:

1. The main obstacle in learning a new language is an interruption from the first language.
2. The contrastive analysis can indicate or predict these complications.
3. Contrastive analysis may be used in teaching materials or materials to lessen interference effects.

In Indonesia, scholars and language specialists are beginning to pay attention to "pragmatics" in linguistics. This branch of study focuses on the function of speech or language rather than its form or structure. In other words, pragmatics leans toward functionalism rather than formalism. It adheres to the notion of pragmatics proposed by (Levinson, 1983). The study of language usage and functional views is known as pragmatics. This research attempts to explain features of language structure through the use of non-linguistic effects and causes.

Pragmatic variation among languages considers 'language' as a homogenous entity. It may be observed from several perspectives. Anthropological linguists have noted the variability in areas where universal assumptions make theorization too simple. Specific speech act categories could not be explicitly applied to the analysis of verbal conduct in all speech communities, or even fundamental concepts such as intentionality are not always or always valuable. As a result, it is demonstrated that the idea of Gricean collaboration and its related notions require a minor modification to grasp speech actions in various socio-cultural situations.

The language linked with cross-communities or cross-cultural is the topic of a tradition known as cross-cultural or intercultural pragmatic, which is fully aware of results from an anthropological point of view. The term ‘cross-cultural’ refers to comparisons across co-existing use systems, whereas ‘intercultural’ refers to circumstances in which usage systems converge in the same interaction setting. As a result, intercultural pragmatics obtains its data from intercultural communication, commonly referred to as ‘cross-cultural’ examples (Verschueren, 2016).

Many factors must be addressed while considering variability in pragmatics. Understanding linguistic behavior in non-native or foreign speech groups might be one of the motives. This quest may not be entirely intellectual but rather practical. A pragmatic knowledge of differences is crucial in language training and translation or interpretation.

Interlanguage pragmatics is a sub-discipline that should be situated in the context of language education or second language acquisition, with its emphasis on (prevention of) the transfer of pragmatic norms and techniques (e.g., those linked to politeness, irony, and the like), interlanguage and intercultural pragmatics are just a narrow line apart: attention to pragmatic differences between languages in teaching and learning is expected to be beneficial for intercultural communication, either in everyday situations or in institutional settings.

Can we introduce contrastive pragmatics into this surrounding? This word is often reserved for synchronic comparisons of two or a limited number of co-existing systems of language usage (note the abstractions involved when contrasting ‘systems’). Furthermore, most of the time, such inclination stems from issues with teaching or translation. However, it is evident that contrastive pragmatics, in this sense, comprises a substantial part of what is commonly referred to as cross-cultural pragmatics. Cross-cultural pragmatics is a phrase that encompasses the phenomena studied by contrastive pragmatics, intercultural pragmatics, and interlanguage pragmatics.

It is important to remember that the contrastive paradigm implies a cross-language (cultural comparison), which undoubtedly contributes to understanding intercultural processes. However, comparisons are never enough for a complete understanding of the complexity of intercultural communication because the ‘systems’ that converge undergo adaptations in the process, so interactional data must also be studied directly.

5.2 Early Formulation of Contrastive Pragmatics

Pragmatics has expanded into new fields, including studying more than one language. The contributions use theoretical techniques such as politeness theory, Conversation Analysis, Appraisal Theory, grammaticalization, and cultural textology to address pragmatic issues such as speech actions, discourse markers, and modality in diverse language pairings. Discourse techniques and genres may also change among cultures, as evidenced by a study of TV news programs from several nations. The comparative study of pragmatic phenomena from a foreign language viewpoint is also included in contrastive pragmatics, a novel subject having implications for language instruction and intercultural communication (Aijmer, 2011).

As stated by Fillmore (1984), contrastive pragmatics begins from the following pragmatic views:

> The data for pragmatics is the connection of sentences with the settings of usage where ‘performances’ are welcome and suitable, as well as the assessment of the fit between the sentence and its contexts. Because the concept of ‘context’ encompasses variables, attempts to correlate specific linguistic choices with specific aspects of context are difficult.

To distinguish between ‘big facts’ and ‘small facts,’ Fillmore (1984) further characterized them as “things that need to be studied one by one.” He then decided to concentrate on only minor facts, i.e., ‘pragmatic practices that can be listed,’ some of which are not ‘translated’ well. He added an example of the following type:

- The Swedish usage of past-tense verbs in current-experience exclamations (e.g., the equivalent of It was chilly today stated while greeting someone outside on a frigid morning) would sound weird if carried over into English, where the present tense is anticipated.
- English formulations of suggestions as negative why-questions (for example, Why don’t we go to the opera tonight?) that, if uttered in a structurally identical way in German, would not communicate a suggestion but a (potentially reproachful and offensive) inquiry into reasons for a presumptive not-going to the opera.
- Japanese polite negative permission inquiries, such as *Gohan o moo sukosi itadakemasen ka?*. They sound sarcastic or impolite when it is immediately translated into English (Can’t we have some more rice?).
- Formulaic statements like “I assumed you would never ask” are playfully amusing in American English but might be quite insulting in other settings.

The last example is a famously tricky category of lexical items: particles. No matching particles in English render a German statement in (1). Thus English speakers must rely on the formula.

	German	**English**
(1)	*Ich bin ja dein Vater*	I am your father, you know
(2)	Ich *bin nämlich dein Vater*	You see, I am your father
(3)	*Ich bin doch dein Vater*	I am, after all, your father

Observing this contrast, Fillmore (1984) made a statement that goes in the direction of formulation of typological differences:

> A ‘major’ pragmatic truth about German is that it invites (say ‘requires’) pragmatic particles that indicate options among the multiple ways individual statements might be located in their discourse environment. The pragmatic points to be made here are (1) that the German particles correspond (however imperfectly) to fairly subtle parenthetical formulaic expressions in colloquial English, and (2) that these expressions, if used as frequently in English as they do in German, would produce very mannered speech. English contains a variety of similar idioms. However, the analogous forms in English cannot be formally merged into surface sentences. The German forms are ‘particles’ while the English forms are ‘formulas.’

He emphasizes that the reality of ‘small’ necessitates a contrastive examination since the entire contents of the ‘context’ box are frequent examples of ‘bigger’ practices in which two distinct languages are different.” Meanwhile, topics like these are difficult to convey in cultural conversations.

Oleksy (1984) advocated focusing on ‘communicative action,’ which includes a locution component (a proposition expressed in speech, not just sentences), an illocutionary component (traditional speech acts based on sincerity and its various forms of realization), a pragmatic-contractive component (community/culture-based restrictions on the use of elements of the speech act repertoire), and an interactive component. The general purpose is to “address issues concerning how cross-language speakers modify linguistic phrases to execute various societal functions.”

Different aspects of the contrastive pragmatic analysis contend for attention even at this early level, as seen in the following sections. Moreover, they continue to do so, as evidenced by the contents of several collective volumes published under contrastive pragmatics.

The study of distinct cultural styles of speaking is known as contrastive pragmatics. With rising interest in the notion of English as an International Language, it is necessary to examine the status of cross-

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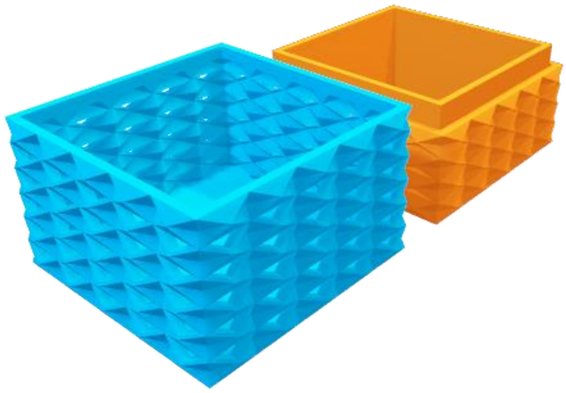
linguistic inequalities while broadening the scope of such study to include investigating the pragmatic systems of languages in cross-cultural contact (Intachakra, 2004).

5.3 Contrastive Pragmatics and Its Many Faces

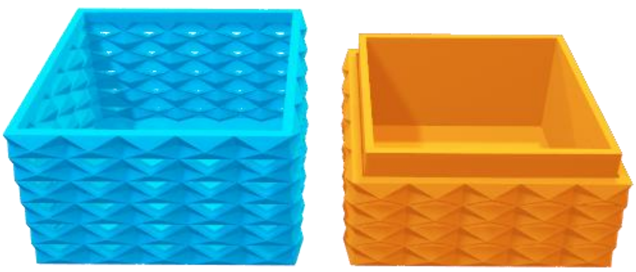
As previously said, contrastive pragmatics encompasses a wide range of issues. The presence of many facets of language life is the essence of this research branch's focus. As a result, numerous topics have emerged that may be examined using a comparative perspective.

The findings may differ from two distinct points of view and with various limitations. As a result, it is critical to recognize that contrastive versus pragmatics has several elements and points of view. Look at these illustrations to see how an object may provide varied results when seen from different angles.

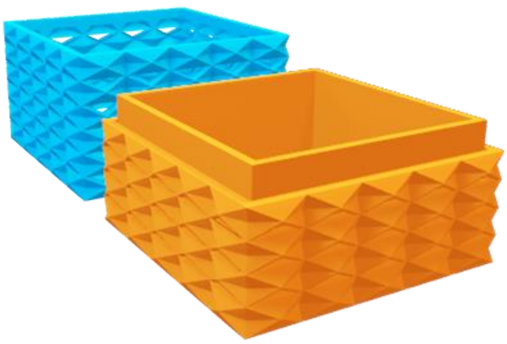
1. The blue box is more significant than the yellow box



2. The blue box is as big as the yellow box



3. The blue box is smaller than the yellow box



5.3.1 Contrastive Speech Act Studies

The concept of action theory, when discussing 'illocutionary', is an important starting point for attempts to construct pragmatic models of contrastive analysis (Oleksy, 1984; Riley, 1979). Given the prominence of Searle's (1969) speech act theory during the early years of the emerging area of contrastive pragmatics, it is not unexpected that a wide range of contrastive research evolved. Many of them are concerned with speaking acts. More specifically, several contrastive investigations of the nature of individual speech actions were published in addition to effortless speech acts or speech act types such as inquiries, requests, directions, approvals, or denials.

Such inquiries, at least in spirit, if not in approach, are analogous to the ethnography of speech. Herbert (1989) discovered differing calibrations of two opposed demands: agreeing with the speaker vs. avoiding self-praise when compared to American English and South African English data on praise replies. He attributed the difference in praising frequency and balancing acceptance with attempts to prevent self-praise to distinct 'value profiles' for the two cultural contexts, emphasizing greater equality vs. more elitism and the appropriate degree of need to establish unity.

On the other hand, the Cross-Cultural Speech Realization Project is the most significant initiative in contrastive speech act research (CCSARP). A multinational study team used CCSARP to explore cross-cultural and intralingual variability in two specific speech acts, apologies, and requests. Both were chosen because they form, according to politeness theory. However, both are practiced with distinct facial expressions.

Both are significant and complicated social tactics that are likely to differ amongst speech groups, both within and between languages. A request might interfere with the listener's freedom of action, whereas an apology jeopardizes the speaker's wishes. The apologies and its speech act realization patterns were compared with:

- A common but different language (American, British, or Australian English; Canadian French; Danish; German; Hebrew; Russian);
- Language discusses specific speech communities, such as between native speakers and non-native speakers. It aims to answer the question of universality by finding out what are the differences in aspects:
  a. Cross-cultural,
  b. Intracultural and situational, and
  c. Individual.

We need to know what differentiation to make to grasp the level (a-c). Furthermore, comparisons must be done while keeping ongoing societal restrictions in mind. The Discourse Completion Test is used for this purpose: subjects must complete 16 dialogues, each accompanied by a brief description of the situation (in terms of parameters related to setting [requires apology or apology], dominance [social power], and social distance [familiarity], but the gap that is expected according to the speech act in question is left open. The data was then evaluated and compared using a well-developed coding method for different inquiring and apologizing procedures.

The CCSARP project contributes significantly to the much-needed attempt to move away from the heavily Anglo-centric approach to speech conduct. The researchers could "reveal the systematic ways in which linguistic items are used to convey illocutions or, more specifically, how certain pragmatic functions are achieved using language-specific linguistics or by choice of a particular language from a particular structure" using controlled empirical data sets. Accessible in a variety of linguistic systems.

The key finding is that there cross-cultural variances exist in interactional styles. Hebrew speakers, for example, make more straightforward demands than German speakers. Furthermore, certain situational elements appear to lead to similar methods in some languages studied, while others appear to lead to dissimilar patterns.

It is also the weakness of the CCSARP Project. The project was criticized for using the Discourse Completion Test as the primary tool for data collection. The researchers themselves were completely unaware of the risks involved because the questionnaire was as helpful as the way it was described.

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Researchers need to be careful not to conclude that the findings from the questionnaire represent the actual distribution of linguistic forms, which occur in natural interactions.

5.3.2 Contrastive Discourse and Conversation Analysis

In the broad sense, contrastive discourse studies emerged after the initial exaggerated claims made on behalf of contrastive studies (in teaching and learning) were debunked. Contrastive investigations have thus been done for intrinsic reasons and to explain rather than a forecast. Expectations for them were likewise lower. On the other hand, discourse studies rekindled interest in contrastive study. Contrastive studies of discourse, on the other hand, are likely to offer us more information on the relationship between language and cultural/sub-cultural (institutional, disciplinary) values than other contrastive research. As a result, they have the potential to offer more of an understanding of communication breakdown and resolution than other comparative research.

Language is viewed as a dynamic medium of communication and social activity compared to a system in contrastive discourse. This viewpoint incorporates what is today known as the multimodal perspective, which is concerned with nonverbal, paralinguistic, and kinetic communication behavior, as well as the psychological perspective, which is concerned with intention and affective elements such as motivation and feelings. Their analytical interests primarily focus on attributing Finnish English speakers' communicative behavior to native speakers while triangulating with material from non-Finnish non-Finnish English speakers. Examples of typical observations from their work:

> If some native-language features interfere with the pronunciation of the foreign language, the student may apply the same cues when processing messages in the foreign language. For instance, a Finn may have difficulties learning the fortis/lenis distinction of English consonants due to the long/short distinction of Finnish vowels. What Finn regards as clarity in his pronunciation of English may mean a foreign accent and lack of fluency to a native speaker.

Although this may seem like a pronunciation problem at first glance, it is just a few steps from Gumperz's Discourse Strategy, in which the intercultural consequences of comparable forms of interference are analyzed. Indeed, a slight deviation from the expected pattern in pronunciation (for example, intonation) can lead to significant misunderstandings because it is processed based on the habit of mere interpretation.

Many additional researchers have written studies categorized as contrastive discourse or conversational analysis. House, for example, investigates the form, sequencing, and interactional purpose of starting and ending sentences in standard English and German dialogue, as well as British and German conversational motions accompanying speech, in expectation of a reply from conversation partners. A German/Danish contrastive examination of discourse management of 'gambits' (such as mm, yeah, right, you know) in their different functions, signal picking, turn picking, turn maintenance, turn to give, and so on, was undertaken in research. The PIXI project - Italian or British Cross-Cultural Interaction Pragmatics - is a vast comparison initiative with a scale equivalent to CCSARP. The study has a clear pedagogical goal of language but consciously moves away from using planned or written dialogue in teaching.

Ethnomethodology and the burgeoning subject of conversational analysis have both investigated daily encounters. Unlike CCSARP (which experiments with predefined and pre-interpretation situations and focuses on sentence-length speech units), PIXI seeks 'genuine' encounters and 'natural' data that are obviously in line with rising real-world issues. Discourse is viewed as a collaborative strategic activity. The information was collected in one type of public service meeting, namely a bookstore: On the inquiry desk, 150 meetings were recorded in the big Southern English bookstores, 150 in the central Northern Italian bookstores, and another 100 in the other four Italian bookstores; for comparison, some simulated interactions were collected from native speakers and non-native speakers.

Perhaps the most critical point to emerge from our work thus far is how the social identities of participants in service encounters are negotiated and ratified through the discourse process, in both personal and positional terms, as the institutional positional roles of customer and assistant are.

In other words, while each contact begins with definite presuppositions and expectations, they must be confirmed in the conversation and are frequently adjusted and enlarged. A shop assistant, for example, can serve as a counselor and a seller. It was also shown that non-native speakers had more difficulty managing social identification (through opening and closing routines, sequencing, questioning, hesitation, tone, laughing, and demonstrating influence) than native speakers.

Meanwhile, the dominant approach to the analysis of contrastive discourses has changed significantly due to rapidly developing research tools and techniques. Thus, they now tend to be very corpus-based (with parallel corpora) and methodologically mainly oriented from form to function (due to the searchability in the corpora). However, it is a collection that is again less dependent on this pattern. The book brings up papers that directly focus on pragmatic ideas such as discourse markers (with papers all demonstrating the importance of culture as a contextual variable), information structures, phraseologies, and registers or genres. The collection also contains several papers focusing on the pedagogical agenda, particularly concerning interlanguage aspects.

Conversation Analysis

A conversation is a spoken language action or occurrence involving two or more speakers who exchange information and maintain a positive relationship. To carry out spoken language activities between speakers, we must investigate and assess what components are required and how to manage conversational activities. The conversational analysis does not examine the substance of the discussion or how the material is presented. Discussion analysis will ask how one conversation is managed to fulfill the purpose of the conversation, which is various knowledge and various excellent relationships.

Conversations are a medium of social connection in formal and informal activities. The conversation has a consistent pattern in formal and informal linguistic activities, also known as conversational structure. This pattern is [*I talk-you talk-I talk-you talk*]. Conversational structure refers to everything thought to be well understood from past talks. This fundamental pattern of discussion stems from the earliest and most often used essential interaction (Yule, 1996).

In addition to paying attention to turn-taking, in conversation analysis, another thing that needs to be studied is the structure of preferences. Preference structure can be identified by first looking at the adjunct pair of each utterance. Adjacency pairs are pairs of speech types by speakers that require speech types from other speakers. This utterance occurs in pairs, consisting of the first and second parts. Preference structures show social structural patterns and do not refer to people’s attitudes or emotional desires. The preference structure is divided into two parts, namely: preferred social actions (no follow-up) and disliked social actions (no follow-up) (Levinson, 1983).

Moreover, conversational analysis has three assumptions:

1. Interactions are organized in a structured manner,
2. Contributions to interaction are contextually oriented, and
3. Both characters are in the details of the interaction so that not a single sequence detail can be missed.

Conversation analysis conventions are analyzed in terms of four main conversational features, which scholars have identified, namely:

a. Turn of speech,
b. Adjacency pairs,
c. Gaps, and
d. Overlapping.

One of the assumptions of conversational analysis is that interactions in a conversation are structurally organized. The organizational structure of conversation is closely related to the closest pair of words. The closest pair of words is a sequence of two utterances produced by different speakers. As for sharing opportunities to speak, it is divided into four types:

1. Automatic turn,
2. Arranged turn,
3. Snatched turn, and
4. Voluntary turn.

Automatic turns can be found in conversations involving two participants. When someone gives a greeting, the other person automatically replies with a greeting. Arranged turns are found in formal conversations. Speaking opportunities are rotated regularly in formal conversations arranged by a guide or moderator. Taken turns can be found in a fight or free discussion with a very heated situation. Meanwhile, the voluntary turn can be found in the exchange of opinions. Someone who fully understands the discussed issue will voluntarily take the opportunity to speak.

In a conversation, there are three kinds of parts, namely:

1. Opening stages

Opening stages are the initial part of a conversation that contains speech opening, such as greetings. In this section, the speaker gives an utterance that initiates the initial speech and information exchange. For example, greeting “Hi,” “How are you?”, “Hello” in telephone conversations. At the beginning or opening, there is also a greeting or opening greeting. When the speaker uses a greeting, the speaker puts his partner to participate in the interaction

2. Middle stages

The middle stages are part of the speaker developing a conversation by paying attention to his speech. Speakers explore the scale of use of switching patterns of speech, shift allocation, turn of speech, like and dislike responses, topic changes, requests for clarification, and conversation corrections.

3. Closing stages

The closing stages are parts where speakers give each other which speech will signal the end of a conversation. At the end of the expression, speakers such as “thank you for your attention” can signal the speaker’s ending of the conversation.

4. Repair Mechanism

The repair mechanism is based on two interrelated aspects: the participants who initiate and the initiation position. This mechanism can arise from speakers’ sources and the interlocutor who gives an unclear speech.

Example of the conversation between the customer and waiter below:

Waiter	:	Meow Meow Chinese Food. How can I help you?	(1)
Customer	:	Hi, I would like to order some meals.	(2)
Waiter	:	Is it for take-out or delivery?	(3)
Customer	:	Delivery, please.	(4)
Waiter	:	Could you please give me your name and address?	(5)
Customer	:	My name is Adam. I live on Flower Garden Street, number 20.	(6)
Waiter	:	Sorry, it is a bit noisy here. Could you please repeat this?	(7)
Customer	:	Sure. It is Adam Susilo. My address is Flower Garden Street, number 20.	(8)
Waiter	:	OK, Mr Susilo. What would you like to order?	(9)
Customer	:	I want special fried rice, chicken noodle, and Hainan chicken rice.	(10)
Waiter	:	Let me repeat. Your orders are one special fried rice, chicken noodle, and Hainan chicken rice.	(11)
Customer	:	That is right.	(12)
Waiter	:	Would you like spicy fried rice or medium?	(13)
Customer	:	The spicy one, please	(14)
Waiter	:	Noted, Sir. Anything else?	(15)

Customer	:	I think that is all. How much?	(16)
Waiter	:	It was $20.	(17)
Customer	:	How long will it be?	(18)
Waiter	:	It will be around 30 minutes, Mr Susilo. Are you in a hurry?	(19)
Customer	:	No, I am not. OK, I will wait for it. Thank you.	(20)
Waiter	:	You are welcome, sir.	(21)

Based on the conversation analysis, the findings showed that:

The **opening part** is started with a sentence (1) as uttered by the waiter, as follows:

Waiter: Meow Meow. Chinese Food, how can I help you?

The word "How can I help you." It means the waiter greets the customer who wants to order a meal.

The **closing part** is the sentences in (20) and (21), as follows:

Waiter: No, I am not. OK, I will wait for it. Thank you.

Customer: You are welcome, sir.

The word "OK, thank you," and "You are welcome, sir" means the end of the conversation between the waiter and the customer.

In this conversation, **turn-taking** is done by the waiter, who always asks the customer, and the customer only answers what the waiter asks.

Moreover, the adjacency pairs are in the sentence (1) and (2) as follows:

Waiter: Meow Meow. Chinese Food, how can I help you?

Customer: Hi, I would like to order some meals.

Also, in a sentence (3) and (4), as follow:

Waiter: Is it for take-out or delivery?

Customer: Delivery, please.

It can be called adjacency pairs as questions, and the second part of the customer answers what the waiter asked, or in adjacency pairs, it can be called an Expected answer.

For **preference organization**, it such in sentences (15) and (16):

Waiter: Noted, Sir. Anything else?

Customer: I think that is all. How much?

The word "I think that is all" sounds like a refusal because the customer refuses or does not want to re-order.

The **feedback** is in sentences (20) and (21). Feedback can be interpreted as the completion of a conversation or getting a solution or not.

Customer: No, I am not. OK, I will wait for it. Thank you.

Waiter: You are welcome, sir.

In this conversation, there is **no repair** or justification of a word or sentence made by the speaker or listener.

Another example of conversation analysis can be seen below:

Guest	:	Hello, I would like to reserve a hotel room.	(1)
Receptionist	:	That should be no problem. May I have your full name, please?	(2)

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Guest	:	My name is John Sandals.	(3)
Receptionist	:	Hello, Mr Sandals. My name is Michelle. What days do you need that reservation, sir?	(4)
Guest	:	I plan to visit New York from Friday, April 14, until Monday, April 17.	(5)
Receptionist	:	Our room rates recently went up. Is that OK with you, Mr Sandals?	(6)
Guest	:	How much per night are we talking about?	(7)
Receptionist	:	Each night will be $308.	(8)
Guest	:	That price is perfectly acceptable.	(9)
Receptionist	:	Wonderful! Do you prefer a smoking or non-smoking room?	(10)
Guest	:	No smoking, please.	(11)
Receptionist	:	Next question, is a queen-size bed OK?	(12)
Guest	:	That sounds fine.	(13)
Receptionist	:	OK, Mr Sandals. Your reservation is on our computer. All we need now is a phone number.	(14)
Guest	:	Indeed, my phone number is 626-555-1739.	(15)
Receptionist	:	Thank you, Mr Sandals. We look forward to seeing you in New York!	(16)

The opening part is a sentence (4), which is stated:

Receptionist: Hello, Mr. Sandals. My name is Michelle. What days do you need that reservation, sir?

The "What days do you need that reservation, sir?". It means the receptionist greets the guest who wants to reserve a hotel.

The closing part is the sentences in (14-16), as follows:

Receptionist: OK, Mr. Sandals. Your reservation is on our computer. All we need now is a phone number.

Guest: Certainly. My phone number is 626-555-1739.

Receptionist: Thank you, Mr. Sandals. We look forward to seeing you in New York!

The word "Thank you, Mr. Sandals. We look forward to seeing you in New York!" means the end of the conversation between the guest and receptionist.

In this conversation, talking is only done by the receptionist, who always asks the guest, and the guest only answers what the receptionist asks.

The **adjacency pairs** are in the sentences (4-5):

Receptionist: Hello, Mr. Sandals. My name is Michelle. What days do you need that reservation, sir?

Guest: I plan to visit New York from Friday, April 14, until Monday, April 17.

Also, in sentences (10-11):

Receptionist: Wonderful! Do you prefer a smoking or non-smoking room?

Guest: No smoking, please.

It can be called adjacency pairs as questions. the second part of the guest answers what the receptionist asked, or in adjacency pairs, it can be called an expected answer.

The preference organization is in the sentence (12-13):

Receptionist: Next question: Is a queen-size bed OK?

Guest: That sounds fine.

The word "That second fine" is included in Refusal because the guest refuses or does not want to be reserved again.

The feedback is in the sentence (14-16):

Receptionist: OK, Mr Sandals. Your reservation is on our computer. All we need now is a phone number.

Guest: Certainly. My phone number is 626-555-1739.

Receptionist: Thank you, Mr Sandals. We look forward to seeing you in New York!

In this conversation, the feedback can be interpreted as the completion of a conversation or getting a solution.

However, there is no repair or justification in this conversation, neither by the guest nor the receptionist.

5.3.3 Contrastive Textology

Comparative or contrastive discourse analysis in applied linguistics, taking a language-pedagogical perspective, and paying particular attention to translation problems, appears in the form of 'contrasting textology.' The main goal of Hartmann was to study parallel texts. He distinguishes three types or 'classes': Class A, which results from full-scale professional translation; Class B, "the deliberate adaptation of a message in the conventions of each of the two languages to convey identical messages to recipients who sometimes have very different cultural backgrounds"; Class C consists of unrelated texts, but triggered by the same circumstances. Schematically, the three classes are distinguished in the following Table.

Table 5.1 Hartmann's Three Classes of Parallel Texts

	A	B	C
Equivalence is achieved by	Translation	Adaptation	Similar context
Mediation is achieved by	Approximation	Reference to a common source	Comparison
Directionality	From source language (SL)	Simultaneous	Independent creation
	To target language (TL)	Formulation	
Some examples	Bible translation	Production of	Text samples from corresponding registers of the different languages.
	Literary and technical translation; conference interpreting	Advertising copy for different countries; authoritative multilingual versions of international law	

Without using the term textology, Enkvist also links contrastive linguistics with text linguistics. His view of variations at the textual level begins with a review of the different types of text linguistics, asking what kind of contrast problems each can overcome. Hence, sentence-based models allow the analysis of interactions between syntactic and information structures. In the words of Enkvist,

> Here we have an area where textual macrostructures govern, and interact with, syntactic microstructures. As the syntactic microstructures of different languages differ and often differ more than textual macrostructures, the syntactic exponent of information structure offers central topics for contrastive study.

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A prediction-based model (starting from a series of predictions and interpretation of semantic relationships – causal or temporal – and studying how they are contextualized by conjunction or insertion) Enkvist finds useful when contrastive work (e.g., for translation) forces us to look at manipulating the boundary between clauses and sentences (e.g., when a translation requires re-textualization). Cognitive models (starting from the collection of knowledge and experiences on which the predication is based) "will be needed when we suspect that cognition is arranged differently by speakers of the language we want to contrast"; here, references are made to differences in concepts, schemas, frames, or scripts. About interactional models (relating to interactional patterns of behavior, taking into account intention, directness/indirectness, literal/non-literal meanings, felicity conditions, faces, turn-taking, and the like), Enkvist observed that:

> Experience, particularly in anthropological linguistics, tells us that interactional considerations increase in importance when the contrasting languages are distant in culture, which often implies distance in space or time. However, interactional patterns may vary greatly even in closely related languages and different styles and sociolects within the same language. A good example is conventions of politeness: […].

Meanwhile, the typology that Li and Thompson show uses a variety of very different languages. Enkvist suggests that extending the approach too closely to related languages, in the tradition of contrastive linguistics, will also generate differences. For example, although English and Swedish have the same subject-verb-object base word order, Swedish also allows the initial pattern of the object, which is not allowed in English:

1. *Sin flicka älskade sjömannen*
   *His girl loved the sailor
2. *Osten åt rattan i går*
   *The cheese ate the rat yesterday

As you can see, contrastive analysis requires "resolving the tension between canonical forms such as language typologies, and the variations we find in the text" due to significant stylistic variations that must be considered. Enkvist ends with a plea to take a 'processual linguistics' perspective for contrastive analysis, taking into account strategies, plans, and processes:

> A strategy can be defined as a set of weighted principles for a goal-oriented, purposeful choice between alternative modes of action. When a strategy is concrete and adapted to a specific situation, it becomes a plan. Moreover, the modes of action themselves involve processes that change one state or structure into another." (p. 61)

It turns contrastive linguistics (text) into an utterly pragmatic attempt.

5.3.4 Contrastive Rhetoric

Several ideas have influenced the development of contrastive rhetoric studies. Applied linguistics, linguistic relativity, rhetoric, text linguistics, discourse kinds and genres, literacy, and translation are among the theories studied. Interdisciplinary methods to contrastive rhetoric studies have ranged from linguistics, education, discourse analysis, sociolinguistics, and psycholinguistics. Six strategies for studying contrastive rhetoric have been used. Reflective inquiry, quantitative descriptive research, prediction, and classification studies, sample surveys, case studies and ethnographies, and experiments are examples of these (Basthomi, 2007).

The analysis of contrastive discourse and contrastive textology in the general big bucket of 'contrastive functional analysis' is contrastive rhetoric. The contrastive rhetoric is very text-based. US international students show different ways of organizing texts, which often results in lower evaluations. The generalization of his conclusions (linking rhetoric to culture in a way that allows, for the organization of the text, claims about Anglo-American norms as linear arrows, with more deviations as standard features in the Roman and Russian styles, parallel structures as Semitic norms, and a spiral for the 'Oriental') have been adequately criticized. At the same time, they have also reappeared in a slightly more sophisticated.

Attention to the variability of rhetoric across languages and cultures has developed in two different directions. First, much of the current research focuses on the contrasting aspects of a particular genre. Secondly, there is also a shift from such aspects of text structure to more detailed phenomena related to ‘typological’ differences between languages. Below is a rhetorical effect on the level of discourse on the difference in the possibility of nominalization in Japanese and English. Consider (3) and the translation in (4).

(3)	*hi*	*ga nagaku natta*	***koto***	wa kakushi yoo	mo	naku. ===
	daytime	S long became	NOM	T hide	also	BE-NEG
(4)	= but the days had obviously grown longer					

Picture 5.2 Example of Contrastive Rhetoric

In (3), the nominalizer koto grammatically changes the clause *hi ga nagaku natta* into a nominal. At the same time, its translation equivalent, the days had grown longer, is the main clause of (4), turning the main clause of (3) into the adverb. A literal English equivalent to (3) could be something like “the daytime having become longer was not hidden” – a very cumbersome sentence. The suggestion is that, however difficult it may be to describe in detail, the availability of seriously different grammatical resources affects what the resulting discourse communicates.

When resources or expressive choices are similar, differences in usage can be attributed to rhetorical preferences, strategies, styles, and goals and thus can cause typological differences (almost) at the level of discourse, with effects on the generation of possible meanings. It is hard to explain, but it exists. A contrastive study between aspects of what they call ‘complex syntax’ in English, French, Hebrew, and Spanish. While simple syntax in a narrative would be the alignment of isolated clauses or stringing clauses through conjunctions such as and but (symmetrical parataxis), complex syntax consists of packaging clauses, presenting different phases of an event as a single ‘complex event.’ Such packaging relates clauses syntactically in various ways: asymmetric parataxis or dependent circuits (where the second clause can only be interpreted concerning the first without being subordinated to it, as in “The perspective is that ...”); hypotaxis or layering of clauses (such as relative clauses with who or which, or adverbial clauses with when or where), and nested clauses (such as “I am with him” appear in “One of the discussions I had with him happened two weeks ago”).

First, the number of clauses per clause package differs significantly between French (the lowest number, with an average of 3), Hebrew, English, and Spanish (the highest number, with an average of 5). Second, the preferred strategies for packing clauses vary widely, with, e.g., more hypotaxis in Hebrew (covering about half of the cases) than in Spanish, English, or French (where only more than a quarter of the cases of packing clauses are hypotaxis). Typological differences in preferential resources for specific language resources interact with rhetorical strategies in constructing discourse, then in the generation of meaning.

5.3.5 Contrastive Genre Studies

In applied linguistics, the notion of “genre” has become crucial. Genre, as described by genre analysts, is a language manifestation of some social activity.

Academic language has long been a favorite topic for studying contrastive genres. An examination of national variations (English, Norwegian, French) and specialized disciplines (medicine, economics, linguistics) in the academic prose genre. The participants argued that the genre is flexible and that significant individual differences should be allowed. For them, three critical questions are: How does the author manifest himself in the text? How are the voices of other authors reflected? How do authors present or promote their research? There are fewer differences between French and Norwegian medical articles than between French and linguistic articles. Although some of the differences are language-related (such as self-references with subject pronouns are unspecific, for example, which are much more familiar with French than English), their findings suggest that discipline is more important than language, culture, or nationality.

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Another favorite of all time is business communication of various types. Comparing the British and Italian meetings, Bargiela-Chiappini and Harris observed that the overall structure in the Italian meeting was generally looser than in the UK (i.e., there was a less clear line of demarcation between phases such as opening, debate, and closing), that the role of the Chairman was weaker in the Italian meeting than in the UK (in terms of the number and duration of interventions, with the whole group playing a more active role throughout), and – again in Italian meetings – the exploitation of higher hierarchical positions that often resulted in "a series of monologues, which went through the number "topic shifts" when speaking takes the form of successful interruptions.

Another genre-oriented tradition is contrastive media research. Among the many articles in this collective volume, we find a report on the systematic differences between local and international coverage of post-election violence in Kenya, focusing on patterns of representation and categorization associated with ideology. Contrasting media research does not necessarily require an international focus. Systematic differences in the use of metaphors signaled different perspectives between two British magazines (The Economist and The Guardian) in the transition period from Keynesian economics to monetarism, even when they derived resources from the exact conceptual domains such as health, conflict, and mobility. Both examples also illustrate the possibility of contrastive ideological research (Verschueren, 2016).

Finally, it is necessary to refer to the contrastive study on the message of public information, which indicates, i.e. that the availability of different language resources results in significant variations in what is intended to be the 'same' message. An example is the difference between Irish and German anti-smoking campaigns. The message is relatively straightforward: not smoking or quitting smoking. The Irish campaign used the standard expression 'breaking the norm.' Its subtle typographical core is the warning "Break the habit once and for all," followed by a broken V-shaped cigarette.

This V was then used in what appeared to be the main message, *Save A Fortune*, emphasizing the monetary value of the smoking cessation decision. An interesting phrase from the German campaign, on the other hand, is *Rauchen macht stark* (means "Smoking makes [you] strong"), followed by the subtitle "*Stimmt: Stark abhängig – hnlich wie Heroin*" ("True: Very addicted – like heroin"). The possibility of using stark as an adjective predicate and adverb makes the German message work, while the direct translation into English does not.

The result, in this case, is a complete emphasis on the quality of nicotine addiction. It does not mean that in English, one cannot send anti-smoking messages focused on addiction (in fact, this exists) or that one cannot use the symbol of a broken cigarette in the German anti-smoking campaign (in fact, its use occurs). However, then different resources, also language-specific, are included in the discussion.

5.3.6 Contrastive Sociolinguistics

Language variety is a variation of language use in a different society that is adapted to the situation and conditions of a particular society. It shows one of the many variations of language use in society. The variety of languages can be divided based on functions and situations, a speaker/writer, and usage.

First, in terms of speakers/writers, the variety of languages can be broken down based on:

1) Various regional languages are better known as accents or dialects. This variety can be called, among other things, Javanese, Balinese, Manado, and so on.
2) Variety the language is created because of the strong influence of the mother tongue of the speaker/writer.
3) The variety of languages in terms of the education of the speaker/writer can be divided into a variety of scholars and a variety of non-scholars. This distinction is based on the level of formal and non-formal education of the speaker/writer.
4) Language variety in terms of the attitude of the speaker/writer depends on the attitude toward the communication partner. This variety is influenced by: the subject of the conversation, the purpose and direction of the conversation, the attitude of the conversation, and others. It is these aspects that distinguish this variety into official and non-official varieties.

Second, in terms of usage, the variety of languages is broken down based on:

1) The variety of languages in terms of the subject matter of the relationship with the selected and

controlled environment depends on the extent of the association, education, profession, hobbies, experience, and others.

2) The variety of languages in terms of facilities is distinguished into spoken and written varieties. The use of each variety is considered based on the needs and background based on the underlying needs. It also relates to its function and usage situation.

3) The variety of languages in their use often occurs when there is a mixture of regional and foreign elements (vocabulary). Between regional languages, Indonesian, there is an active contact that affects vocabulary development and the influence of foreign languages on Indonesian.

The variety of languages is categorized into three (based on the different means, situations, and fields of language use). Regarding usage, the variety of language can be divided into the spoken variety and written variety. In the spoken variety, the language elements used tend to be incomplete as the language elements used in the written variety because the information conveyed orally can be clarified by using intonation, specific body movements, and the situation in which the conversation takes place. This kind of thing does not exist in various written languages. Therefore, for the information conveyed in writing to be clear, the elements of the language used must be complete. If the elements are incomplete, it is possible that the information conveyed is incomplete.

Based on the level of formality of the wearer's situation, the variety of language can be divided into the official variety or formal variety and the informal variety or informal variety. The official variety or formal variety is the language used in official situations. The official variety is marked by the use of linguistic elements that show a high level of standardization. In contrast, the informal or informal variety is characterized by linguistic elements that show a low level of standardization.

Based on the description above, the variety of languages can be divided into various aspects, namely based on terms of speakers (or writers) and their use and terms of formality. Meanwhile, aspects of cultural context must also be given because, in society, various formal and conversational forms must be understood by international students so that there are no errors in the use of language.

From the late 1970s onwards, all sociolinguistics are contrasted: it deals with variability throughout dimensions such as region, social class, gender, age, education, profession, and ethnicity. To identify comparable populations across languages, the parameter should be used for contrastive sociolinguistic analysis. The traits of linguistic minorities in different societies, or the comparison of plurinational language centers such as German and others), to more standardized sociolinguistic topics (such as language choice in multilingual societies, language inequality, pidgin, and creole). The types of cross-cultural issues that we discussed earlier are also a form of study of contraceptive speech acts or contraceptive discourse analysis.

5.3.7 Pragmatics Aspects of Contrastive 'Grammar'

In addition to the above trends or traditions, contrastive pragmatics also applies to the contrastive study of the pragmatic aspects of grammatical phenomena. Consider, for example, the following statement about the difference between passive in English and Dutch:

The Dutch passive is processual, and it evokes the idea of a causer: in the Dutch passive, the causer is always there, and it plays a central role in the meaning of the passive construction. In English, the passive is ambiguous between process and state. The causer is only necessarily evoked in a sub-category of all passives, i.e., in processual passives of transitive verbs. The causer, as a core aspect of the meaning of the passive, never spreads to all sub-categories, so it did not become a crucial part of the meaning of the construction.

References are made here to grammatical differences that should have a pragmatic effect in passive use in two languages. Another difference arises in comparing the German verb and its English equivalent. Consider the following example:

(5) a. *Keiner glaubt ihm.*

b. Nobody believes him.

(6) a. *Ihm wird nicht geglaubt.*

b. No one believes him.

A more general grammatical important point from a contrastive pragmatic perspective, the dative form of the object *glauben* (believing) in (5a) is maintained in the passive form in (6a). In contrast, the object he is in (5b) is transformed into the subject he is in (6b), thereby becoming a more active participant. They illustrate that contrastive pragmatics at the text level can go beyond comparing simple texts by systematically paying attention to the choices made in different languages of the various syntactic sources available for specific tasks. They do this by comparing two ways of connecting pairs of actions to each other in the instructions in English and French, namely through creating an automatic connection between two actions (as in "you flick the switch to turn on the light") versus focusing on how one action allows a person to perform the second (as in "You have to restart the computer to use the new software"). They conclude simply that:

> First, we saw that not all expressions could convey both relations: for example, temporally marked *avant, après*, before, and after expressions only appeared in the expression of enablement. We also saw what part of the relation, and the order in which it was presented, further limited the range of resources found to be appropriate in each language. At this point, we can look at how the choice of individual expressions in each functional role might be further determined.

Further research is suggested in ways in which preferential differences in cross-language syntactic choices can relate to the emphasis of variables on rhetorical relationships such as means, objectives, and results. Finally, contrastive pragmatic work has been carried out in developing grammatical theories such as construction grammar. One of the main questions is as follows:

If actual cross-linguistic comparisons at the constructional level are difficult to achieve, is it perhaps still possible to systematically identify and analyze equivalent constructions in closely related languages?

The analysis result of contrastive constructions undoubtedly allows the researcher to focus on the totality of what happens in the use of language: the symbolic correspondence between phonological, morphological, and syntactic properties on the side of 'form' and the semantic, pragmatic, and functional properties of discourse on the side of means-and-use.

5.3.8 Contrastive Other Pragmatic Phenomena

There are many contrastive studies on popular pragmatic topics such as metaphors, humor, and politeness. Only a few random references can be given in this context. For metaphors, contrastive analysis can be found for many language pairs, such as English and Spanish. Language pairs such as English and Spanish are usually the focus for politeness research. Contrastive studies of humor are popular in English and Chinese. However, they can also be found – among many others – in the Context of America vs India, and often humor is discussed as a translation problem.

Many jobs in this area are inherently contrasting. Many humor studies ask why something funny in one language is not necessarily the case or explain the phenomena observed by pointing to comparable ones in another language or context. Moreover, many theories about decency are based on explicit attempts to overcome differences by formulating universal principles (Brown & Levinson, 1987), or on the claim that differences are too fundamental for such universal formulations to be possible.

5.4 Methodological Questions

As indicated earlier, many contrastive pragmatic studies are driven by practical concerns, particularly with language teaching and translation. The similarity of these concerns is the question of the extent to which speech in different languages can be seen as equivalents. This observation immediately implies a primary methodological concern that needs to be addressed: how can equality be evaluated? In most cases, equality assessments require a standard or frame of reference used to 'measure' comparability. Unsurprisingly, most of the general discussion of contrastive research adds additional terms such as comparability, congruence, similarity, and the like.

For contrastive pragmatics, the comparison of the standard is functional. It is usually captured through a combination of formal and contextual elements. For example, the study of contrastive speech acts of the CCSARP type is centered around a type of speech act defined in terms of standard illocutionary forces and controlled through a standard narrative with limited contextual variables. The critical question is, of course, how a language- and culturally-neutral narrative can be created. That is why other researchers prefer a more ‘natural’ setting. Although this increases the number of uncontrolled variables, it is sometimes easier to establish a clear point of comparison.

A contrastive study of back-channel equivalence is sought in the sociolinguistic context in which the conversational data is produced. In both Japanese and American English, the social context has been defined and structured so that the participant behaves in a specific manner, thereby rendering the data obtained not only genre equivalent (casual conversation) but also type equivalent (dyadic casual conversation between same-gender speakers).

Other successful attempts to ‘control’ naturally occurring data make possible a contrastive (and perhaps even typological) analysis. In a dataset that is clearly ‘genre-equivalent’ in Maynard’s sense (spontaneous conversations between people who know each other very well, in a very familiar environment), they select phenomena for comparisons of functional importance (universally possible) in a well-defined sequential, and interactionally systematic manner. An example of them is an improvement initiated by others of the following types:

(7)	A: Can you give me that thing?	(= T-1)
	B: What?	(= T0)
	A: The small pot, can you give that to me?	(= T+1)

It can be defined […] as a sequence in which a turn T0 signals some trouble in a prior turn T-1 and is treated as making relevant the provision or ratification of a repair solution in the next turn T+1.

This type of conversational phenomenon can be realized in different ways, such as using question words, repeating the problem’s source with or without the question word, and understanding the candidate from the previous turn); cross-language comparability can be achieved by focusing on the stable properties that underlie several format types.

The other person-initiated definition of improvement above allows for two fundamental questions: (i) how does the initiation of the fixed point back to the problem in T-1, and (ii) what kind of response is relevant to T+1? Re-appointing can be done openly (not mentioning the problems experienced by the initiator of the fix) or on a more limited basis (making the problem more specific). Moreover, the relevant response can be either a specification or clarification (when the initiation of the fix is a type of request) or simply confirmation (when the fix offers one or more possible interpretations). This analysis leads to three basic types (open demand, limited demand, and limited supply), language-specific realizations that can be compared cross-language.

The question remains whether even such successful efforts guarantee the continued use of the idea of equality. In attempts to conduct pragmatic contrastive research, it is becoming more and more evident that equivalence as a whole is a relative concept, so references to ‘identity’ increasingly give way to the notion of ‘maximum similarity.’

Challenging to imagine without a contrasting point of view: the unspoken basic assumptions of discourse are hard to identify if one cannot find (or at least imagine) an alternative discourse. It means that different versions (in different languages or not) of the ‘same’ story are unequal, so the main problem is comparative.

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5.5 How to Apply Method and Theory

In order to get a better idea of the methodological issues involved in contrastive analysis, which beliefs in the idea of variability, one may look for inspiration in the analysis of variation:

> Variation analysis takes as its object of study differences in linguistic form with no apparent change in meaning or function. While other methods of linguistic analysis try to eliminate variation by finding structural or semantic contexts that disambiguate the choice of linguistic form, variation analysis seeks to understand variation by assessing which linguistic or social context dimensions correlate with the occurrence of a particular variant form.

In Walker's terminology, variations consist of "different ways of saying the same thing." An example is the different grammatical forms by which the functions of general discourse, such as references to the future, can be expressed: the use of the present tense (as in the Conference begun in ...), the use of aids (He will come on), periphrastic constructs (I will take a vacation). Nevertheless, this formulation immediately poses a stumbling block to pragmatics: how can variation be defined so that there is no change in meaning (function) if there is a correlation with a particular contextual phenomenon?

Variation analysis should a) identify all forms that convey the 'same' function, treat them as linguistic variables (in statistical terms, bound variables); b) limit contextual elements as free variables (in the case of factors such as 'male' and 'female' belonging to groups of factors such as 'sex'); c) formulate hypotheses for potentially meaningful explanations for observed variability (which can be operationalized in terms of factor groups); d) the code of each token of a linguistic variable in terms of one of the factors in each group of factors relevant to the hypothesis (in a complete and mutually exclusive way), and e) apply statistical methods to test hypothesis predictions.

Such a careful aspect of the procedure – including its quantitative angle – may also prove helpful and essential for contrastive pragmatic studies. Variation analysis has developed sophisticated procedures for dealing with even phenomena that resist operationalization in terms of factors that can be coded.

In some cases, hypotheses […] do not lend themselves easily to operationalization. For example, a common semantic hypothesis offered to explain the difference between futurate will and going to in English is that the former entails a higher degree of specificity by the speaker. Since we do not have direct access to speaker intent, we cannot test speaker specificity directly, though we may rely on indirect clues in the speaker's discourse.

Such indirect clues that reveal specificity about future actions may only include the appearance and specific adverbs (tomorrow) vs nonspecific ones (someday).

However, underlying this type of analysis of variations, there are theoretical assumptions about equality, which we felt were obligatory to question earlier, and which should be recast as relative notions. For pragmatics, differences in form are usually expected to bring differences in meaning, however subtle. The assumption of differences in meaning does not represent isomorphic beliefs of form-meaning. On the contrary, according to the rejection of forms-meanings or the relationship of fixed forms-functions, or with the acceptance of the fundamental negotiability of meanings, they are seen as the result of an adaptive process of contextual indexing. Therefore, different ways of saying the 'same' thing are expected in pragmatics and involve forms of variation that go beyond what variation analysis is designed to handle.

For example, one of the most basic universals of the use of language: all uses of language combine the form of explicit meaning with implicit meaning. However, the way implicit meaning is anchored in what is said explicitly differs between languages and perhaps even between (groups of) users of the 'same' language. That is why the different storytelling of the 'same' story may be very different, an observation that is particularly relevant when looking at discourse from an ideological point of view. However, linguistically and contextually, the variables involved are not limited in type and number. So, how does one begin to analyze this phenomenon systematically?

The issue of explicit vs implicit in this context is not a coincidence. As mentioned earlier, contrastive analysis has served, among other things, the practical purpose of translation and interpretation. In translation studies, explicitness has been treated as one of the 'universal' translations: a tendency that characterizes all translations. Thus, the translation is assumed to show a tendency to decipher meaning rather than leaving it implicit. The extent to which this assumption is correct depends on one's view of assertiveness.

A distinction must be made between only linguistic explicitness (achieved by improving the coding of the meaning component) and a definition of assertiveness in terms of linguistic forms that guarantee the most uncomplicated processing that allows an unambiguous interpretation of an utterance in a specific context (which is very often achieved by leaving the meaning component implied linguistically). Again, this phenomenon relies mainly on language and requires extensive contrastive pragmatic research.

5.6 Perspective: Towards Pragmatic Typology

It should be clear that contrastive pragmatics thrive on the tension between the aspects of the universality assumed. The variability observed in the aspects of language use, by placing a universal 'foundation' in terms of categories of meanings of the speaker (e.g., past-present, other self, desirable-undesirable) in combination with cultural differences (e.g., different formal signs to realize communicative actions, possible collocations and different sequences, different roles for verbal vs non-verbal aspects, the level, and manner of routine, the social dimension of power and distance).

Thus, it is assumed that there is not only cross-language diversity but also underlying patterns. In linguistics, the search for such a pattern is commonly called typology. However, most forms of contrastive pragmatics do not fit that label because, more often than not, only two or a few languages are compared, which is not enough to establish a pattern that would characterize the general use of language.

Typological work may not be out of reach even in less real domains, such as the calibration of explicit and implicit meaning variables. For example:

> The same interclausal relations (combination, contrast, cause, alternative) can indeed be expressed through different degrees of coding: they may be fully encoded (one connective for one interclausal relation, such as although for concessive relations), with little or no room for ambiguity and inferential enrichment, or they may be under coded, through general connectives that can be employed for many further relations.

As an example of under coding, they mention the Upriver Halkomelem, the Salish language of the northwestern United States, in which conjunctions and disjunctions are expressed through the same link, leaving disambiguation to conclude in context (with the context of epistemic specificity, as in the question, favoring disjunctive interpretation, and the context of relative epistemic specificity, as in statements, leads more easily towards conjunctive reading). The claim is not only that the degree of encoding of connections between clauses is subject to typological variations, but even this may be subject to diachronic changes in the same language (hence the typological-diachronic perspective).

For pragmatics, it may not even be so far-fetched to think that if computational techniques allow us to detect forms of group compliance (gender, age, and the like) based on language use, there may be 'typological' differences along with those dimensions as well. It could also mean that when thinking about pragmatic typologies, we may have to think in the context of some correlated configuration of use. There is still much work to be done.

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Understanding Task

Exercise 1. ***Find an international journal article about contrastive pragmatics, then fill in the following questions***:

The title ……………………………………
Background of the study
………………………………………………………………………………………………
Method and theory used in the study
………………………………………………………………………………………………
The results of the study
………………………………………………………………………………………………
Benefits that you get from the article
………………………………………………………………………………………………

Exercise 2. ***Please find the transcription of your favorite talk show, and then follow the instructions below.***

1. The transcription must be at least a series of the talk show
2. Identify the Cross-Cultural Speech Realization Project (CCSARP)
   a. Across cultures,
   b. Intracultural and situational,
   c. Individuals

Exercise 3. ***Please read the works of Robert Herrick with the title "Delight in Disorder" and Wina Bojonegoro with the title "Jejak" and then identify :***

a. How does the author manifest himself in the text?
b. How are the voices of the authors reflected?

Exercise 4. ***Please find the movie's subtitles and then follow the instructions below.***

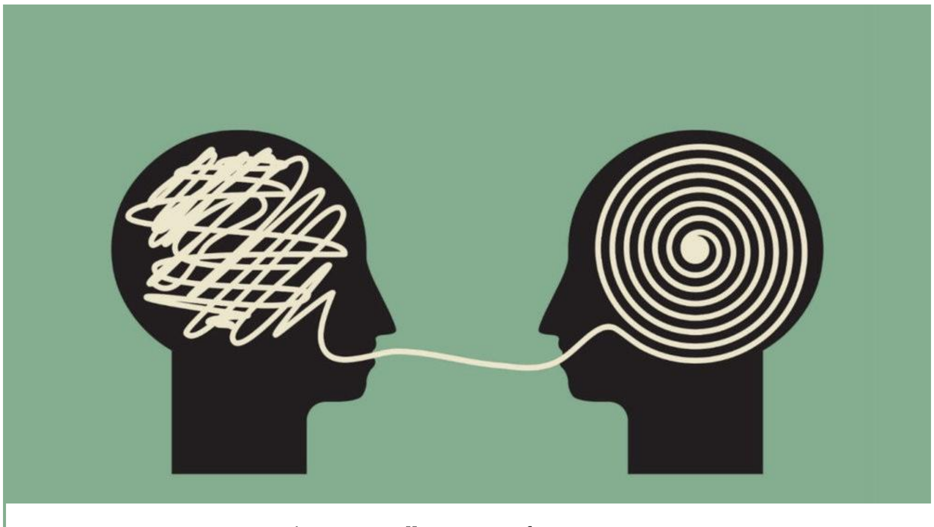
1. The transcription must be at least a series of the movie
2. Identify all forms that convey the 'same' function, and treat them as linguistic variables (in statistical terms, bound variables)
   a. Limit contextual elements as free variables (in the case of factors such as 'male' and 'female' belonging to groups of factors such as 'sex').
   b. Formulate hypotheses for potentially meaningful explanations for observed variability (which can be operationalized in terms of factor groups).

Chapter 6

Pragmatic Competence in Normal and Disordered Contexts

6.1 Pragmatic Competence

Pragmatic competence is an aspect that is considered necessary, primarily related to one's language ability. Hymes (1972) formulated pragmatic competence in several concepts indirectly related to one's sociolinguistic knowledge. These concepts are the rules of language use, components that allow language users to relate the meaning and intent of utterances to the context of their use, and actional capabilities (the ability to express and understand the intent or purpose of communication through the use of language functions and speech acts. Referring to Leech (1983), sociopragmatic ability includes using the language according to specific social contexts or conditions understood by speakers and hearers. The second is the ability to use specific linguistic forms by native speakers to express specific illocutions.



Picture 6.1 Illustration of Competence

Specifically, the concept of Communicative Competence from Hymes was further developed for the benefit of learning and teaching second or foreign languages by several experts. Canale and Swain (1980) divide competence in communicative competence into three:

a. Grammatical competence,
b. Sociolinguistic competence, and
c. Strategic competence.

Those three communicative competences and discourse competencies imply pragmatic competencies formulated in sociolinguistic competencies. Implicitly, pragmatic competence is sociolinguistic competence because language skills must be based on understanding socio-cultural rules. A language user uses his socio-cultural competence for the acceptability or appropriateness of the use of speech related to the components of communication events (communicative events).

Communicative competence formulates linguistic competence and strategic and psycho-physiological mechanisms. These competencies include illocutionary knowledge, namely the ability to understand the wishes or intentions of language speakers communicated through speech acts, and sociolinguistic knowledge, namely the ability to understand the meaning of language variations such as dialects, registers, or others—also, the ability to interpret implied meanings, such as in language figurations. Linguistic competence consists of two aspects of language knowledge: the competence of organizing pragmatic information. Thus, referring to the concept of communicative competence proposed by Bachman, pragmatic competence is a stand-alone competence, namely the ability that allows language users to connect linguistic aspects relevant to their use context.

In contrast, the previous concept of communicative competence is a unified competency consisting of five aspects of competence: discourse, linguistic, socio-cultural, strategic, and actional. In this model, discourse competence is a core competency that connects other competencies. Discourse competence includes knowledge of cohesion and coherence, deixis, generic discourse structure, conversational structure, and others.

Canale and Swain (1980) defined sociolinguistic competence as actional and socio-cultural. Actional competence is the ability to express and understand the interlocutor's intent or purpose, implied in the language function and speech acts. This competency also describes the ability to use language functions (functional knowledge), a sub-component of pragmatic knowledge. Socio-cultural competence is the ability of language speakers to express the purpose/intention of communication properly and acceptably in the socio-cultural context involved. Rueda (2011) stated that pragmatic competence lies in the ability of:

1. Speaker to use language for different purposes;
2. The listener's ability to pass through the language and understand the speaker's intent (including those in the form of indirect speech acts, irony, and sarcasm); and
3. It understands the existing norms for creating discourse by mixing utterances.

6.2 Interlanguage Pragmatics

The concept of Interlanguage (IL) was first put forward by Selinker (1972) to explain the psychological aspects that underlie second language learning. IL is a language variation that results from second or foreign-language learners' efforts to use the language they are studying. Three characteristics underlie interlanguage:

a. Permeable. the linguistic system in IL is unstable, and the system is easily changing from time to time.
b. Dynamic. IL develops continuously in line with the development of language learner knowledge.
c. The concept of 'fossilization' is a psycholinguistic process that gives rise to aspects, rules, and linguistic subsystems of the mother tongue or first language in IL, even though it has been taught. It is different from the mother tongue system and the language being studied.

Furthermore, in the concept of IL, five types of psycholinguistic processes underlie language use behavior:

1. Language transfer. A process of the first language's emergence rules the use of the second or foreign language being studied.
2. Transfer of training, namely the emergence of linguistic, grammatical, and linguistic aspects of the mother tongue or first language in il as a result of training or teaching a second or foreign language.
3. Strategies for the second language. The learner's approach to learning a second or foreign language.
4. Strategies for second language communication. The approach used by students to communicate with native speakers of a second or foreign language, and

5. Over-generalization of the target language material, namely the process of generalizing language rules and semantic features of the language they are learning.

In principle, the concept of interlanguage is the same as that of Idiosyncratic dialects (ID). ID has three characteristics:

1. Regular
2. Systematic
3. Meaningful.

ID is a set of patterned language rules that language learners master. These rules are studied and developed by language learners from the social dialect of the target language (target language). Two reasons why ID is considered a dialect variation of the target language:

a. ID has grammar.
b. The grammar rules are similar to the target ones and similar to ID.

Interlanguage is also similar to the concept of the approximative system, namely the language version resulting from the language learner's efforts to apply or use the second or foreign language he has learned. The approximative system is a contrastive analysis theory of language that includes three concepts:

1. Speech produced by language learners at a specific time is the product of a patterned language system called the approximative system, a different language system: the first language or source language and the target language, namely the language being studied.
2. The approximative system is in a specific position in a series of stages of language learning development.
3. Different learning experiences shape the same level of approximative system proficiency achieved by several language learners.

The concept of interlanguage becomes the basis for explaining the ability to master linguistic aspects developed by second or foreign language learners (e.g., interlanguage grammar). It is the grammatical ability of foreign language learners developed through accommodation and assimilation with native speakers of the target language. Interlanguage pragmatics (ILP) is the pragmatic ability of second or foreign language learners.

ILP is defined as language learners' understanding and use of language functions. ILP is also defined in various concepts. Based on the interlanguage characteristics. ILP is pragmatic knowledge of second or foreign language learners that is unstable, deficient, and permeable. ILP is the imperfect pragmatic knowledge of foreign language learners. Meanwhile, Schauer (2019) defines ILP as language learners' understanding, acquiring, and using second/foreign language pragmatics.

As the newest branch of the study of second language acquisition, ILP has two primary studies:

a. Second language use examines how language learners understand and use second language pragmatics.
b. Second language learning examines how language learners acquire pragmatic knowledge and develop pragmatic abilities.

As a second language use study, most ILP research focuses on the pragmatic abilities of non-native speakers rather than on the development of pragmatic abilities of language learners. ILP research in this branch generally examines the pragmatics of language learners compared to the pragmatics of native speakers of the target language. Thus, ILP research in this branch is more of a cross-cultural pragmatics study. ILP research in this branch is generally related to the ability to use speech acts by language learners compared to the ability to use speech acts by native speakers of the target language.

The research findings generally state that language learners' pragmatic abilities differ significantly from native speakers of the target language. Although these studies have revealed differences in the pragmatic abilities of second or foreign language learners compared to the pragmatic abilities of native speakers of

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the target language, these studies cannot explain the factors causing the differences, so their practical use for foreign language learning and teaching is limited.

In pragmatic interlanguage studies, the development of pragmatic competence of foreign or second language learners is a recent topic that focuses on several research topics, including what aspects were developed by language learners. First, how to develop it, is there a clear route for these developments, whether specific speech acts easier or more difficult to learn than other speech acts, whether the learning setting determines pragmatic development, whether linguistic abilities affect the development of pragmatic abilities, whether age also affects pragmatic development, whether teaching can develop pragmatic abilities and so on. For this reason, ILP is currently developing the study of second language learning, which focuses on developing the pragmatic abilities of second or foreign language learners.

In the study of second language acquisition, several pragmatists have urged ILP research to focus on the issue of pragmatic development by second or foreign language learners. To strengthen the direct relationship between ILP and second language acquisition studies, ILP research that focuses on developing pragmatic interlanguage systems should be carried out. It is because much ILP research so far has only focused on using sociopragmatics and pragmalinguistics by non-native speakers compared to the pragmatic abilities of native speakers. Although many studies on the development of pragmatic abilities have been carried out previously, these studies are more focused on the factors that influence the development of pragmatic abilities, not the pragmatic aspects developed by language learners. These factors include linguistic ability, pragmatic input, teaching methods, length of exposure to pragmatic input, and pragmatic transfer.

6.3 Complaints

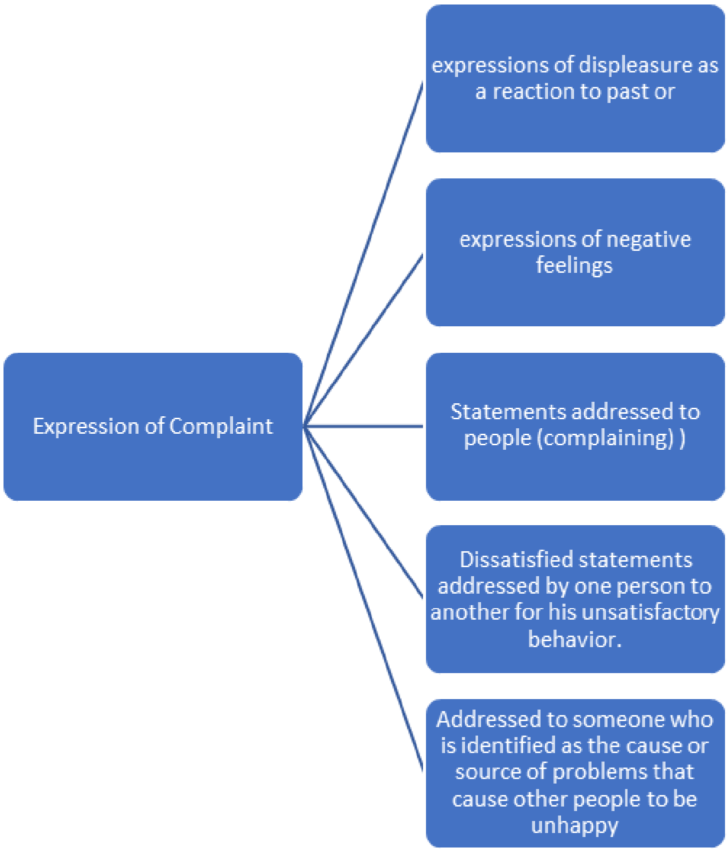
Complaints, in general, are expressions of displeasure expressed by the complainer to the complainer. Researchers specifically define complaint speech acts as:

1. Expressions of displeasure are a reaction to past or ongoing actions by others. It may cause a person to feel uncomfortable.
2. Expressions of negative feelings (unhappy, sad, or angry.) Towards actions taken by other people whom the complainer considers as something that can cause them to complain of annoyance.
3. Statements addressed to people (complaining) responsible for violations that result in other people being responsible for these violations.
4. Dissatisfied statements addressed by one person to another for his unsatisfactory behavior. Complaints are also addressed to someone identified as the cause or source of problems that cause other people to be unhappy.
5. Statements containing violations or wrongdoing by someone have become a source of trouble for others.

A complaint can be said as a speech act that can threaten the face of the intended person. When making a (direct) complaint, the complainer can threaten the complainer’s positive face because he gives or expresses a negative evaluation of the behavior or actions that the complainant has carried out. The speaker can also threaten the complainer’s negative face because the complaint addressed to him may contain demands to correct the resulting situation. Because complaints usually contain expressions that threaten the partner’s face or complain, complaints can worsen the relationship between the speaker and the hearer. See **Picture 15** to know expressions of complaints.

Therefore, frankness in disclosing a complaint must be considered when one is about to do so. The speaker must control the level of the directness of complaints by using specific verbal and non-verbal expressions that can reduce the threat to the face of the speech partner so that the speaker will still sound polite and the speech partner does not feel threatened.

Complaint speech acts are generally grouped into two types, namely direct and indirect complaints. A direct complaint is an expression of displeasure made by the speaker to the interlocutor for his unpleasant behavior. In the direct complaint type, the complainant addresses his complaint directly to the person responsible for the problem, and the complainant is present or in the immediate situation in which the complaint was made. The complainant generally carries out direct complaints by showing an error or violation committed to the problem or violation that is the complainant's direct responsibility. Direct complaints can also be made by pointing out the mistakes made by the complainant, asking rhetorical questions, and with a question-and-answer process.



Picture 6.2 Complaints Expressions

The complainant makes indirect complaints against a third person who was not present when the complaint was made. However, indirect complaints can also be in the form of statements regarding unpleasant things to the complainant or a third person who was not present when the complaint was made. Complaints like this resemble the report told by the complainer to the interlocutor, who acts only as a listener, not the person responsible for the complaint raised by the complainer. The concept of indirect complaints, which is the same as the activities of "confessing" or trouble-telling, serves as a way to get sympathy from the speech partner for what happened to the speaker or other people involved in the situation. which is not fun. Boxer divides direct complaints into three, namely complaints directed at (1) oneself, (2) specific situations, and (3) others.

Complaints to oneself are complaints made by giving a negative evaluation of the speaker. In this case, the speaker usually complains about his abilities, behavior, actions, and abilities or physical condition. While complaints about specific situations generally include things that do not involve speakers and other people, such as time, money, food, weather, crime, fatigue, or others.

Complaints to others are usually complaints addressed to others who were not present when the complaint was made or a third-party complaint or a complaint to a third person.

Several previous studies have shown that second language learners use different complaint strategies from native speakers in terms of strategy selection, use of pragmalinguistics, and perceptions of the seriousness of the problem.

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By comparing the complaint strategies of language learners with native speakers, the research findings revealed that second-language learners use solidarity markers more often than native speakers. Second-language learners tend to be less candid when they make complaints. Although second language learners and native speakers usually start a complaint with an apology, language learners use it more often than native speakers.

Similarly, by comparing the complaints strategy used by Sudanese English learners and native English speakers, the findings described the differences in the complaints strategies used by the two language users. Although native speakers and English learners use the same complaint semantic formula, their pragmalinguistic features are very different. For example, when complaining to a friend, English learners tend to use statements that express obligation (obligation statements). They also use short utterances of a complaint or rarely use long utterances as used by native speakers. Complaints made by English learners are more confrontational and frank when compared to the strategies of native English speakers. They also tend to be less polite, especially regarding complaints made to strangers. When they complain to people of higher social standing, native English speakers use apologies more often than English learners.

A pragmalinguistics comparison of complaining speech acts by Hebrew native and non-native speakers. The results showed that non-native Hebrew speakers used longer and more convoluted utterances when complaining to close friends. Compared to native Hebrew speakers, Hebrew learners tend to use inappropriate complaints and markers of complaint intensity so that the complaints make the sound more direct and harsh.

An interlanguage study of asking, complaining, and apologizing for speech acts by Danish language learners and English native speakers. The results showed that native English speakers use the indirect complaint strategy, especially when they complain to speakers of higher social status. Unlike native English speakers, Danish speakers tend to use very few complaint modifications and make impolite complaints because Danish speakers often express complaints explicitly and rarely use downgraders to reduce the directness of complaints made.

The complaint strategies used by English native speakers and non-native speakers (e.g., Arabic, Chinese, Persian, French, Greek, Japanese, Korean, Nepali, Portuguese, Russian, Spanish, Thai, Tagalog, Tigrigna, and Vietnamese), the findings showed that the two groups of participants have different complaint strategies according to the social relations of the speakers. In complaints addressed to friends, native speakers are more implicit and use longer utterances, while non-native English speakers use more explicit and shorter utterances. When complaining to strangers, native speakers start the complaint by using [excuse me], while non-native speakers use [I am sorry] and [please], followed by imperative sentences that sound more direct. They also use “please” as a sign of politeness (politeness). When they complain to people of higher social status, native English speakers use various formal language and indirect complaint strategies. In contrast, non-native English speakers expressed their complaints more frankly and more confrontationally, which sounded like criticism.

Complaint strategy used by English (American) native speakers and Chinese, Haitian Creole, Korean, Polish, Russian, Serbia, Spain, and Thailand speakers, the findings show that native English speakers and non-native English speakers use the same type of semantic formula, even though they use it with different frequencies. When making complaints to people who have different social statuses, non-native speakers tend to use confrontational and frank complaints that are considered less in line with the strategies used by native speakers. Moreover, the utterances they use are longer than the strategies used by native English speakers. When complaining to people with the same social position or friends, non-native speakers complain by stating the urgency of their interests. In contrast, native speakers rarely show urgency regarding their interests.

Aboriginal native speakers in Australia are making complaints using a set of particle and clitic uses. The differences in the complaints’ strategies used by Japanese and Americans. The findings show that Japanese people avoid confrontation or conflict and even avoid using complaints. It happens because the Japanese uphold and maintain harmony in life. On the other hand, Americans tend to express their grievances frankly by expressing what they do not like openly or not covered up. It shows the values of western culture that give each freedom to express opinions.

Malaysian culture emphasizes the aspect of harmony, which causes people to tend to guard themselves when they are in social conflict. Thus, speech acts of the complaint are rarely performed and tend to be avoided. Although complaints can also occur in many situations and topics and are carried out by various speakers from different social backgrounds, complaints are generally used as a tool to show solidarity between speakers and hearers.

In the context of learning English in Indonesia, EFL learners tend to use English harshly when they complain. The researcher claims that the use of harsh English is influenced by the characteristics of the speech acts of complaints which are intrinsically inclined to be rude, and the lack of knowledge of politeness strategies by English language learners. Students tended to use the bald-on-record politeness strategy, which tended to be rude when they did the act of saying complaints. However, these studies did not formulate the politeness found because these studies focused on politeness strategies used by language learners. It is this background that underlies the proposal of this research.

Brown & Levinson (1987) stated that complaints are speech acts threatening the hearer's positive face. This speech act generally involves impoliteness. Impoliteness will be further discussed in the following sub-chapter.

6.4 Impoliteness

The concept of impoliteness is defined differently according to the point of view of several previous researchers. In general, the concept of impoliteness is distinguished based on the purpose of its use and the context behind it. Based on the purpose of its use, impoliteness is seen as an act that is intentionally intended to damage interpersonal relationships or attack the face of the interlocutor intentionally.

In this case, Culperer and Haugh (2014) assert that impoliteness is the opposite of politeness, namely "the use of strategies that are designed to have the opposite effect-that of social disruption." There are several factors behind the use of this type of impoliteness:

1. A social relationship between the speaker and listener. Politeness will occur if the social relationship between the speaker and the listener is very close or intimate. The more familiar they are, the more likely there is impoliteness.
2. Power imbalance or the speaker's social power. Speakers with greater social power will tend to be rude to their interlocutors with less social power. The third factor is the desire of the speaker, who deliberately does not want to keep the face of the interlocutor, which may be because they have a conflict of interest.

Impoliteness strategies are the opposite strategy of the politeness strategy, which are bald on record impoliteness, namely a strategy of impoliteness that is deliberately carried out frankly without considering the face of the speech partner; positive impoliteness is a strategy that intentionally threatens the speech partner's positive face; negative impoliteness is a strategy that intentionally threatens the speech partner's negative face; sarcasm or mock politeness, this strategy is carried out using a politeness strategy that is intentionally made up, and withhold politeness.

A. Bald on record impoliteness

Bald on-record politeness can be done in an urgent or critical situation so that speakers do not need to use strategies to keep the face of the interlocutor. In this strategy, impoliteness occurs because the speaker intentionally does not want to cooperate with the speech partner or does not want to maintain good relations with the speech partner. The intentional factor of not wanting to maintain good relations with the interlocutor distinguishes it from bald-on-record politeness.

B. Positive impoliteness

The speaker uses this strategy to damage the positive face of the interlocutor. The positive face in question is the desire of each individual to be respected, appreciated, wanted, and needed by others. Here are some of the sub-strategies:

1. Ignoring others – that is, the way the speaker ignores the interlocutor when they are in the same setting. Ignoring it can also be in the form of not allowing speaking, not wanting to respect the other person's opinion, and so on.
2. Isolating others. This strategy is almost the same as strategy No. 1, but in this strategy, the speaker deliberately limits himself so that the speech partner is not involved in communicating with him.
3. Withdrew or separated from the speech partner who did not have the same opinion as himself or his group, for example, denied, did not want to admit the opinions of others.
4. Shows or expresses disinterest, indifference, and displeasure.
5. Using inappropriate designations or epithets to the interlocutor or calling the interlocutor with an insulting name or nickname.
6. Using jargon or slang so other people outside the group cannot understand the conversation.
7. Make other people feel uncomfortable with the language they use.
8. Using taboo words, swearing, or abusive language.

C. Negative impoliteness

Unlike negative politeness, which serves to protect the negative face of the interlocutor, namely to keep them from being disturbed, negative politeness aims to damage the negative face, which is to interfere with the desire not to be disturbed. An example is as follows:

1. Scare - instill confidence that bad things will happen to the interlocutor.
2. Ridicule, criticize, or ridicule – the speaker demonstrates his superiority with this strategy, including criticizing, blaming, and pointing out the weaknesses of others.
3. Insulting others and treating them arbitrarily.
4. Belittling or demeaning others.
5. Violating personal space (infringement of personal space) in a literal or metaphorical sense, for example, eavesdropping on other people's conversations, reading other people's archives/documents that are not their rights, forcing the speech partner to talk about something intimate or personal that is inappropriate.
6. Explicitly linking speech partners with negative things.
7. Make other people seem indebted to the speaker.
8. Mock politeness

In this strategy, the speaker performs pseudo-impoliteness. This impoliteness occurs when speakers use politeness, but they use it for other purposes, for example, to make fun of and partly.

D. Withhold politeness

In this case, impoliteness occurs because of negligence or intentionality, and the speaker does not use the politeness that should be needed. For example, they do not express gratitude when assisted and do not seek permission before using other person's belongings, or do not want to answer greetings.

The second concept is relative impoliteness, which occurs due to the socio-cultural context behind it. This type of impoliteness occurs when an utterance is used that is not following the social context of its use. Even though impoliteness threatens the face of the interlocutor, impoliteness is not intentionally used by the speaker to attack the face of the hearer. In this concept, speakers give impoliteness as an assessment of the interlocutor's behavior that is not following proper social behavior or can be said to violate specific norms.

A negative attitude towards specific behaviors occurs in specific contexts. In this case, impoliteness occurs because specific attitudes or behaviors are not following the expectations, desires, or beliefs of an organization or specific community groups. Based on this definition, impoliteness is not contained in specific utterances or linguistic markers but depends on specific social contexts. We often consider specific utterances to be impolite because these utterances are judged based on the conditions/conditions that underlie politeness. No sentence is inherently polite or impolite.

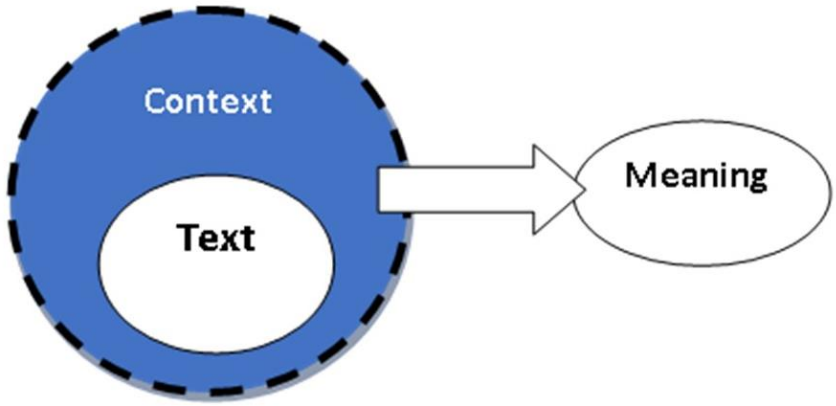
Based on the discussion above, it can be concluded that impoliteness is not contained in specific sentences or expressions. However, it arises from the context and incompatibility with specific social norms. Thus no utterance is intrinsically impolite. "What is perceived to be (im)polite will thus ultimately rely on participants' assessments of social norms of appropriateness that have been previously acquired in the speech events in question."

6.5 Context

What is the context? Context has a significant role in understanding the meaning of speech or text. In the author's view, context is very influential for speakers in producing texts and for speech partners, listeners, or readers in understanding the text. When the speaker or text maker produces a text, he will think of everything that will be used as a reference for the text.

He will think of the texts that existed before; who is invited to speak; or who the readers are. He will consider what references can be used. In his opinion, the speaker also has access to or knowledge of these references, so the interlocutor makes the text understandable. For example, when person A talks to person B, A will look at the close relationship, vertical relationship, and level of formality to determine later language. He will also look at his interlocutor's place, time, and knowledge so that his partner can understand the text produced.

Thus, it can be said that the context is very complex, not just a matter of place and time, more than covering knowledge that is known to be shared between the speaker and the hearer. From the results of exposure to context, it can be said that context is a conceptual framework for everything used as a reference in speaking or understanding the meaning of speech. The framework referred to here is a set of roles and relationships that are part of forming meaning. Conceptual means that it is in the human mind and is used to understand the results of thought, experience, or the result of perception from the human senses. When visualized, the description of the context is:



Picture 6.3 Illustration of Context

The meaning of the text (in **Picture 6.3**) is obtained through a combination of text and context. Context is depicted in a larger circle wider than the text. The dotted line shows that the context is not in the text. It is not written or spoken in the text. Context has complexity because the concept tends to be "fluid." Many factors determine the context, including the human mind, time, place, and environment. Saifudin divides context into two, namely linguistic and non-linguistic.

Linguistic context refers to a text or previously spoken utterance, such as "What you said has made him wonder." The word is obtained from the speech that has been spoken by the speech partner before. The type of non-linguistic context concerns a broader reference because the reference can be anything outside the language in which the text occurs. The types of non-linguistic contexts are:

1. The physical context

This context relates to where the communication occurs, what objects are there, and what activities are taking place. In other words, the physical context is a reference that can be perceived directly by the human senses because it is present around the speech. The speech participants can know the reference by seeing, hearing, smelling, feeling, touching, and so on. For example, "We'll meet there tomorrow at eight." The sentence has a place and time reference.

2. The psychological context

Knowledge of the psychological condition of speech participants is very important to understand, explain, and predict speech. This context is related to the condition of the speech participant's feelings when the speech is used in communication. Feelings of happiness, pleasure, anger, disappointment, and sadness will affect the speech spoken. For example, "Amazing!". The meaning of the sentence depends on the speaker's feelings.

3. The social context

It relates to the speech participants' social attributes and the speech's setting (formality). The result of understanding the social context is using appropriate registers or even choices of appropriate language based on their use in society. The choice of language or register is based on the reference to the vertical (high and low status) and horizontal (familiarity) relationships of the speech participants and formality.

The first two things are the consideration of who is speaking, who is being spoken to, who is present, and who is the perpetrator of the activities. Then the last one, namely formality (related to procedures and regulations), is a consideration of places, events, and speech topics. There is a difference between speech in places of worship and markets, at meetings, and while chatting in cafes, or differences in speech between serious and non-serious topics. For example, the sentence "Are you willing to attend our interaction event?" is polite and formal, while "Can you come, bro?" is a sentence that is not polite/familiar and informal.

4. The shared knowledge context

The context of shared knowledge is the core of the context in pragmatics. It is a set of background assumptions shared by the speaker and the addressee (Saifudin, 2019). This context is obtained through experience and then stored in the human mind (memory). Through this experience, the speaker can make utterances that his interlocutor can understand. On the other hand, the speech partner can also understand the speaker's intention because they have the same experience or knowledge. Thus, the speaker and the speech partner must share knowledge of the background spoken. If it is only owned by one party, it will not be useful in understanding the meaning of the speech. For example:

Father: What time is it?

Mother: The children are asleep, Hon.

I understand the meaning of your question as a question. This conversation between father and mother is an example that can explain the contribution of the context of shared knowledge. Although the mother's answer seems to have no relevance to the father's question, both have common knowledge of the meaning of their respective speeches.

6.6 Pragmatics and Language Learning

Pragmatics and Language Function The field of "pragmatics" in linguistics is starting to get the attention of researchers and linguists, including in Indonesia. This field tends to study the function of speech or language rather than its form or structure. In other words, pragmatics is more inclined to functionalism rather than formalism. Pragmatics is the study of language use or the study of language and functional perspectives. This study tries to explain aspects of language structure concerning non-language influences and causes.

The main function of language is as a means of communication. In communication, one purpose or function can be expressed in various forms of speech. For example, a teacher who intends to ask his students to get chalk at the office can choose one of the following utterances:

1. Give me the chalk!
2. No chalk.
3. I want the chalk.
4. Okay, this class does have no chalk, am I right?
5. So, there is not any chalk, isn't there?
6. Why don't you give me some chalk?

Thus, "ordering" someone to do an action can be expressed by using imperative sentences such as speech (1), declarative sentences such as speech (2-4), or interrogative sentences such as speech (5-6). Pragmatically, the news sentence (declarative) and interrogative sentence (interrogative) function to report or ask questions.

At the end of the 20th century, a new wave of interest was learning a second or foreign language using a communicative approach. The ultimate goal of this approach is to be able to communicate with native speakers. The focus of attention in teaching is speaking and listening skills, writing for special communication purposes and reading original texts. This communicative language teaching movement is an important principle of the theory of language behavior.

The concept of language proficiency is different from the concepts of grammatical competence and communicative competence in several respects, namely:

a. The concept of language proficiency is interpreted not based on knowledge or competence, but based on performance, namely how the language is used.
b. The concept of language proficiency is interpreted based on the situation, task objectives, and specific communicative activities, such as using conversation for direct interaction, listening to lectures, or reading college textbooks.
c. The concept of language proficiency refers to the skill level in carrying out tasks, which refers to the notion of effectiveness.
d. The concept of language proficiency refers to the ability to use the various components of sub-skills (such as to select different aspects of grammatical and communicative competence) in order to be able to carry out different types of tasks at different levels of effectiveness.

Further, about pragmatics and grammar, Rueda (2011) mentioned that two claims had been made about the relationship between the development of pragmatics and grammar. One states that L2 speakers cannot learn pragmatics without the grammar to express it, and the other affirms that learners can manage to be pragmatically appropriate without a command of the grammatical structures that native speakers expect.

The grammar, then Pragmatics claim disregards the fact that adult L2 and FL learners are already pragmatically competent in their L1 and consequently able to transfer this ability from their L1 to the L2/ FL. This claim also ignores the existence of universal pragmatic competence, by which L2 and FL learners distinguish principles and practices of turn-taking and repair, discriminate between ordinary and institutionalized speech, differentiate acts of speaking and writing, as well as specific communicative acts, recognize conversational implicature and politeness conventions, identify major realization strategies for communicative acts and routine formulae for managing recurrent communicative events.

A grammatical platform is a mandatory prerequisite for pragmatic development by displaying advanced L2 learners, employing perfect TL grammar pragmatically non-target-like fashion. Through universal pragmatic competence, speakers can notice sociopragmatic variability and make linguistic choices accordingly, recognizing the role of discourse in the construction of social identities and relations. The dependence of pragmatics on grammar can take three forms:

1. Learners demonstrate knowledge of a particular grammatical structure or element but do not use it to express or modify illocutionary force.

2. Learners demonstrate knowledge of a grammatical structure and use it to express pragmalinguistic functions that are not conventionalized in the TL. Learners demonstrate knowledge of a grammatical structure, and its pragmalinguistic functions yet put the pragmalinguistic form-function mapping to non-target-like sociopragmatic use.

Despite the Grammar claim, pragmatics considers grammar competence independent from pragmatic competence. A restricted interlanguage grammar does not necessarily prevent pragmatic and interactional competence from developing, especially when language learners acculturate to the TL community.

ESL children addressed polite requests with ungrammatical forms to adult recipients. The result demonstrated that when L2 or FL learners do not have the grammatical resources available to act the TL, they rely on a pragmatic mode, which points to the perspective that pragmatics precedes grammar.

Notwithstanding the contradictory character of these two hypotheses, they can be reconciled when considering them under a developmental perspective in which adult L2 or FL learners initially rely on L1 pragmatic transfer and pragmatic universals to communicate linguistic action in the TL, even with a limited command of the TL grammar. As their interlanguage development progresses, their learning task changes. They start figuring out the primary functions of the TL grammatical forms they have achieved and their secondary meanings, so the order reverses, and form precedes function. This discussion offers valid viewpoints to consider that the development of pragmatic competence must be central for teaching an L2 or FL in the early proficiency stages.

Understanding Task

Exercise 1. ***Below are two texts that you need to analyze. Please read and follow the instructions carefully.***

In this unit, texts A and B are language samples dependent on knowledge of the context for their full meaning. Text A, about an interview with T.S. Elliot, shows a breakdown in communication due to cultural background knowledge wrongly assumed to be shared. Text B, from *Pride and Prejudice*, contains intertextual references in an interpersonal context.

Text A

T.S. Eliot's Nobel Prize

The following anecdote is taken from *The Cassell Dictionary of Anecdotes*, edited by Nigel Rees (1999). This tale was told by Philip French in the *Observer* (17 April 1994).

> When it was announced that T.S. Eliot had been awarded the Nobel Prize for literature in 1948, he was making a lecture tour of the United States. A Midwestern reporter asked him if he had been given the prize for his great work *The Waste Land*. 'No', replied Eliot, 'I believe I have been given it in recognition of my whole corpus.' accordingly, the journalist wrote: 'in an interview with our airport correspondent this morning, Mr Eliot revealed that the Swedish academy had given him the Nobel Prize not for *The Waste Land* but for his poem *My Whole Corpus*'.

The text above, **Text A**, is written for those with little cultural background knowledge of T.S. Elliot's work. It shows a breakdown in communication.

a. The breakdown occurs because the speaker implies one thing and the hearer infers another. Explain it in terms of background knowledge.
b. Would you agree that this humorous piece of writing invites readers to share the writer's attitude and laugh at those who know less than them, or do you think the humor lies in something more complex? To what extent is this type of joke, anecdotes, and comedy general? Can you think of any examples?

Answer Box

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Text B (excerpt of *Pride and Prejudice*) contains intertextual references in an interpersonal context.

Text B

Elizabeth and Darcy declare their love

This is an excerpt from Jane Austen's book *Pride And Prejudice* ([1813] 1962). Elizabeth had loved Darcy for a long time but had always kept a distance because she had found him proud and supercilious. She had rejected his advances in the past because she had heard rumours about his being cruel to her sister's fiancé. Just before this excerpt, she learns that he had not in fact been cruel and that he had secretly helped her sister out of serious financial difficulties. This scene takes place at the end of the book. They walk through the grounds of their estates and, finally alone, open their hearts for the first time.

Now was the moment for her resolution to be executed; and, while her courage was high, she immediately said –

'Mr Darcy, I am a very selfish creature; and for the sake of giving relief to my own feelings, care not how much I may be wounding yours, I can no longer help thanking you for your unexampled kindness to my poor sister. Ever since I have known it, I have been most anxious to acknowledge to you how gratefully I feel it. Were it known to the rest of the family, I should not have merely my own gratitude to express'.

'I am sorry, exceedingly sorry', replied Darcy, in a tone of surprise and emotion, 'that you have ever been informed of what may, in a mistaken light, have given you uneasiness. I did not think Mrs Gardiner was so little to be trusted'.

'You must not blame my aunt. Lydia's thoughtlessness first betrayed to me that you had been concerned in the matter; and, of course, I could not rest until I knew the particulars. Let me thank you again and again, in the name of all my family, for that generous compassion which induced you to take so much trouble, and bear so many mortifications, for the sake of discovering them'.

'If you *will* thank me', he replied, 'let it be for yourself alone. That the wish of giving happiness to you might add force to the other inducements which led me on, I shall not attempt to deny. But your *family* owe me nothing. Much as I respect them, I believe I thought only of *you*'.

Elizabeth was too much embarrassed to say a word. After a short pause, her companion added, 'You are too generous to trifle with me. If your feelings are still what they were last April, tell me so at once. *My* affections are unchanged; but one word from you will silence me on this subject for ever'.

Elizabeth, feeling all the more than common awkwardness and anxiety of his situation, now forced herself to speak; and immediately, though not very fluently, gave him to understand that her sentiments had undergone so material a change since the period to which he alluded, as to make her receive with gratitude and pleasure his present assurances. The happiness which this reply produced was such as he had probably never felt before, and he expressed himself on the occasion as sensibly and as warmly as a man violently in love can be supposed to do. Had Elizabeth been able to encounter his eyes, she might have seen how well the expression of heartfelt delight diffused over his face became him; but, though she could not look, she could listen, and he told her of his feelings which, in proving of what importance she was to him, made his affection every moment more valuable.

In **Text B,** Elizabeth and Darcy finally refer to their intimate interpersonal context.

a. Can you find examples of intertextuality? How are they expressed?
b. We have said that people who are close make vague and implicit references to entities and events in their interpersonal context. Is this true of Elizabeth and Darcy? Why or why not?
c. Do they have a shared attitude to conventions in their common socio-cultural context?

Answer Box

Please watch a movie or a TV series, and record it if you can. Choose a ten-minute section of it with a substantial amount of dialogue, and make notes on the references to the situational, cultural, and interpersonal background context.

a. Out of the three contexts, which one is referred to most?
b. How often are two or more context types assumed to be known simultaneously?
c. How much knowledge of the three contexts does a viewer have? How does the scriptwriter play on this?

Answer Box

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Exercise 2. ***Please read and follow the instructions below.***

Neil Murray writes that the teaching of pragmatics has been a case of presenting learners with lists of useful expressions and dialogues offering pragmatically inaccurate models for them to memorize and telling learners what the case [X is appropriate in Y situation] is but not why. Does this sound like a situation that you are familiar with? Discuss it!

1. Exchange views on the advantages and disadvantages of the [let it pass] principle.
2. Explain the empirically based, inductive and deductive strategies fully, and provide examples.
3. Murray muses, *we need not and perhaps should not teach any particular pragmatics*.
    a. Examine the strategies and examples in the article to see which areas of pragmatics Murray targets: conversation analysis, speech act theory, cooperative principle, politeness theories, or critical discourse analysis.
    b. Discuss why you think that some areas are easier to take to the classroom than others.
    c. Decide whether you agree that *we need not and perhaps should not teach any particular pragmatics*.
4. Do you believe in hybrid pragmatics and intersociety? Tell your colleagues why or why not.
5. Discuss whether there are any circumstances in which hybrid pragmatics would not be appropriate. Say whether any purposes would not be achieved if NNS interlocutors used intersociety ELF pragmatics.

Moving on now to the second article, according to **Marta Gonzáles-Lloret**

a. Why does the writer say that *bringing pragmatics into the classroom is not an easy mission*?
b. Why is TBLT particularly useful in L2 pragmatic instruction?
c. What is the difference between target tasks and pedagogic tasks?
d. *The goal of TBLT is to promote not only communicative competence but also language acquisition in three dimensions of language use – fluency, accuracy, and complexity.* What fourth dimension needs to be added to the TBLT model?
e. What is your opinion of these four points of the TBLT model? Do you agree?

Think of tasks you could do in your classroom for learning sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic features based on some aspect of speech acts, cooperative principle, politeness, corpus analysis, or critical discourse analysis. Each task should do one of the following:

a. *Engage L2 learners in doing something with the language with an authentic application outside the classroom.*
b. Use *technology-mediated tasks to promote the learning of pragmatic features*, such as text and video-based computer-mediated communication (CMC), virtual environments, simulations, and games.
c. Focus on task modality to reveal differences between oral and written tasks and how these tasks promote L2 learning.
d. Be structured.
e. Be collaborative and interactive.
f. Have complex resource-directing variables promoting attention to form-function mappings.

Exercise 3. ***Find an international journal article about pragmatics competence in normal and disordered contexts, then fill in the following questions***:

The title ……………………………………

Background of the study

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

Method and theory used in the study

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

The results of the study

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

Benefits that you get from the article

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

Exercise 4. ***Please find the transcription of the tour guide in the tourism places, and then follow the instructions below.***

1. The transcription must be at least an hour of speaking.
2. Identify the competencies below:
   a. Grammatical competence
   b. Linguistic competence
   c. Sociolinguistic competence
   d. Strategic competence

Exercise 5. ***Please find the transcription of the action movie, and then follow the instructions below.***

1. The transcription must be at least half of the movie.
2. Identify the points below:
   a. Expressions of displeasure as a reaction to past or ongoing actions by others that cause a person to feel uncomfortable
   b. Expressions of negative feelings
   c. Statements addressed to people (complaining) responsible for violations that result in other people being responsible for these violations. Dissatisfied statements addressed by one person to another for his unsatisfactory behavior.

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Glossary

Pragmatic Terms

A

→ **Addressee**

Definition:

A person we are talking to, or is any speaker's immediate intended receiver. It is expressed in second-person morphemes.

→ **Adjacency Pair**

Definition:

A conversational unit consists of two speakers exchanging one turn each. The turns are functionally connected, so the first turn necessitates a specific type or range of the second turn.

→ **Anaphora**

Definition:

An expression refers back to the antecedent. It occurs when a word or phrase refers to something mentioned earlier in the discourse. It is frequently used.

Example: *A well-dressed man* was speaking; *he* had a foreign accent.

[The pronoun *he*'s related to a well-dressed man's noun phrase.]

→ **Antecedent**

Definition:

A substantive word, phrase, or sentence is referred to by a pronoun that usually follows the substantive.

Example: *The boy* who pitched the game is worn out. [*The boy* is the antecedent of *who*]

→ **Anticipatory Illocution**

Definition:

An illocutionary act has the direct illocutionary force of an investigation into the necessary circumstances for the appropriateness of another illocutionary act.

→ **Anthropolinguistics**

Definition:
A study concerned with the cultural and social significance of language.

→ **Applied Linguistics**

Definition:
A wide variety of actions include solving a language-related problem or resolving a language-related concern and, in other words, understanding how language and communication work and the ability to communicate effectively in all situations.

B

→ **Background Knowledge**

Definition:
The knowledge enables the reader to form expectations about the text and assists in comprehension and interpretation.

→ **Background Knowledge Context**

Definition:
What they know about each other and the world, including cultural and interpersonal general knowledge.

→ **Bounded Deixis**

Definition:
Spatial deixis with a meaning component suggestive of a boundary. For example: *out there / in there*

C

→ **Cataphora**

Definition:
Coreference with another expression comes after it. In short, an expression that "refers" to another expression. For example, a towel is in the top drawer if you need one. [The word *one* refers to *a towel*]

→ **Coherence**

Definition:
The connection between meanings in discourse and a text makes sense to the listener and hints at how the content should be perceived. Lexical cohesiveness is the most prevalent sort of coherence.

→ **Cohesion**

Definition:
How words in the text relate to one another, referring backward or forward to other words.

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→ **Communicative Acts**

Definition:

Descriptive terms for various speech acts refer to the speaker's communicative intention while making an utterance.

→ **Complaint**

Definition:

Demonstrations of annoyance in response to previous or current behaviors by others that make a person feel uneasy. Complaints are also directed against someone recognized as the source of problems causing other people to be dissatisfied.

→ **Conjunctive Illocutionary Act**

Definition:

A complex illocutionary act consists of executing two or more illocutionary acts in a single speech.

→ **Context**

Definition:

The most important component is understanding how individuals communicate and how to evaluate intentions.

→ **Contrastive Pragmatics**

Definition:

The study of different cultural ways of talking.

→ **Conventional Implicature**

Definition:

An implicature that is part of the recognized meaning of a lexical item or expression rather than formed by language use norms is not required for the item's or expression's truth.

→ **Conversation Analysis**

Definition:

A method of studying natural conversation to identify the following: 1) Turn-taking strategies, creating sequences of utterances spanning turns, recognizing and fixing issues, and using gaze and movement 2) How dialogue works in many traditional situations.

→ **Conversational Implicature**

Definition:

An implication is based on the addressee's assumption that the speaker is adhering to the conversational maxims or, at least, the cooperative principle.

→ **Conversational Maxim**

Definition:

Four guidelines indicate that a speaker is presumed to contribute: quantity maxim, quality maxim, relation maxim, and manner maxim.

→ **Cooperative Principle**

Definition:

Grice 1975 presented a conversation principle in which players anticipate each other to provide a "conversational contribution such as is needed, at the stage at which it happens, by the recognized purpose or direction of the talk exchange."

→ **Coreference**

Definition:

A reference in one expression to the same referent in another expression.

Example: *you* said *you* would come. [both *you*'s have the same referent]

→ **Co-text**

Definition:

A linguistic component of the environment that contains a referring statement.

→ **Co-textual context**

Definition:

What they know about what they have said.

→ **Critical Discourse Analysis**

Definition:

An ideological method analyses how language functions in the social context and reveal how discourse reflects and determines power relations.

→ **Cross-cultural Pragmatics**

Definition:

A study concerned how language acquires meaning through the embedded context and socio-cultural.

→ **Cultural Schemata**

Definition:

Generic idea schematic representations are dispersed among cultural members.

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D

→ Deference

Definition:

It demonstrates awareness of another’s face when the other looks socially distant.

→ Deixis

Definition:

The use of common terms and phrases in context to refer to a specific time, place, or person. Typically, it is extralinguistic context, such as who is speaking, where they are speaking, the speaker’s gestures, and their present place in the discourse.

→ Direct Speech Act

Definition:

A category of speech act when there is a direct connection between the structure and the communicative function of an utterance, it is considered a direct speech act.

→ Discourse

Definition:

An instance of language usage may be characterised according to variables such as grammatical and lexical choices and their distribution in: primary vs. supporting elements; theme vs. style; and the framework of knowledge and expectations within which the addressee perceives the speech.

→ Discourse Deixis

Definition;

A discourse section related to the speaker’s present “position” in the discourse. It is also known as Text Deixis.

→ Discourse Analysis

Definition:

A study of language in terms of the social and psychological factors influencing communication.

E

→ Ellipsis

Definition:

It is also known as zero anaphora, described as “returning” to an expression that provides the information needed to comprehend the gap. It can also refer to eliminating repeated phrases for efficiency or impact.

Example: Akmal likes sweets**;** Lala, noodles. [the semicolon replaces the word “likes”

→ **Essential Condition**

Definition:

It addresses that someone intends to establish a responsibility to perform as promised by making a promise.

→ **Exophora**

Definition:

An expression's direct reference to an extralinguistic referent. The referent does not require the use of another term to be understood. It is also known as an exophoric reference.

F

→ **Face wants**

Definition:

The concept of face as the public self-image shapes a speaker's personality and how others perceive him or her. The notions of the positive and negative face will be examined, leading to a division between negative and positive politeness tactics. These negative and positive face-threatening activities (FTAs) are further classified as acts that harm the hearer's face and acts that harm the speaker's face.

→ **Felicity Condition**

Definition;

General criteria that must be achieved for good communication.

→ **First Person Deixis**

Definition;

A deictic reference refers to the speaker or referents grouped with the speaker.

→ **Flouting Implicature**

Definition:

A conversational implicature is predicated on the addressee's notion that the speaker is purposefully violating (flouting) a conversational maxim while remaining cooperative.

→ **Frame**

Definition:

Fixed patterns of how we expect things to be.

H

→ **Hedges**

Definition:

Words or phrases convey that we are not quite specific and that what we express is correct or comprehensive.

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I

→ Ideology

Definition:

A set of ideas, beliefs and symbolic practices concerning politics and social activities.

→ Illocutionary Act

Definition:

A full speech act performed in a typical utterance comprises 1) the delivery of the utterance's propositional content (including references and a predicate) and 2) a specific illocutionary force through which the speaker affirms, recommends, demands, promises, or vows.

→ Illocutionary Force

Definition:

→ Illocutionary Force Indicating Device

Definition:

It is abbreviated as IFID(s), any linguistic feature that shows or restricts an utterance's illocutionary power.

→ Implicature

Definition:

Intended meaning or implied information within utterances is inferred from a speech but is not a prerequisite for validity.

→ Impoliteness

Definition:

An act committed with the goal of intentionally harming interpersonal connections or attacking the interlocutor's face.

→ Indexical

Definition:

A standard signal is used to connect the speaker and the listener.

→ Indirect Speech Acts

Definition:

An indirect relationship between the form and the function of the utterance.

→ Inference

Definition:

The process of determining the pragmatic meaning of a communication.

→ **Interlocutor**

Definition:

A person who actively engages in discourse or chat.

→ **Interlanguage pragmatics**

Definition:

A pragmatics sub-discipline should be entirely based on language instruction or second language acquisition.

L

→ **Linguist**

Definition:

An investigator of why we have language, how it functions, the limitations of linguistic variety, and how language evolves.

→ **Linguistics**

Definition:

A multidisciplinary approach to determining the relevant components of specific languages.

→ **Linguistic Context**

Definition:

It relates to the context of the conversation, namely the interaction between words, phrases, sentences, and even paragraphs.

→ **Locutionary Act**

Definition:

The act of saying utterances with semantic significance (i.e., as the physical act of speaking).

→ **Logical Presupposition**

Definition:

Using one form with its proclaimed meaning is usually construed as implying that another (unstated) meaning is understood.

M

→ **Macro-linguistics**

Definition:

An interdisciplinary study connects language to its non-linguistic factors (i.e., the use of language in society).

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→ **Manner Implicature**

Definition:

A conversational implicature is based on the addressee's assumption that the speaker is following or disobeying the conversational maxim of manner.

→ **Meaning**

Definition:

A semantic idea is frequently stated as having two parts: reference and sense.

→ **Micro-linguistics**

Definition:

A branch of linguistics study focuses on the internal structure of language.

→ **Mitigating device**

Definition:

A direct statement followed by such expressions [for example, please, would you?] to soften the request

→ **Morphology**

Definition:

A discipline focuses on morpheme and word formation.

→ **Mutual Knowledge**

Definition:

A shared set of beliefs and assumptions demonstrates that they belong to the same group.

P

→ **Performative Utterance**

Definition:

The utterance is generated under particular traditional conditions in order for it to have the intended illocutionary force.

→ **Performative Verb**

Definition:

A verb referring to an illocutionary force in a performative is used to do an illocutionary act with that force.

→ **Perlocutionary Act**

Definition:

A speech act that results in an impact, whether intended or not, in an addressee as a result of a speaker's statement, such as convincing, insulting, persuading, and so on.

→ **Perlocutionary Effect**

Definition:

An activity or state of thinking caused by or as a consequence of stating something.

→ **Personal Deixis**

Definition:

Deictic reference to a referent's participatory role, such as the speaker, the addressee, and referents who are neither speaker nor addressee.

→ **Phonology**

Definition:

The study of how sounds in natural languages are arranged and used.

→ **Physical Context**

Definition:

The talk's setting, what items are present, and what activities are taking place.

→ **Politeness**

Definition:

Social deixis expresses a lack of unity between the speaker and the listener.

→ **Politeness principle**

Definition:

It is to foster a sense of community and social relationships.

→ **Politeness strategies**

Definition:

Some ways in which someone expresses herself/himself politely.

→ **Power**

Definition:

The language of power is frequently employed to emphasize and broaden one person's influence to dominate others.

→ **Pragmalinguistics**

Definition:

Rather than the social environment, the study of characteristics of language usage is connected to speakers' understanding of the structure and expressive capacity of the language itself.

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→ **Pragmatics**

Definition:

The investigation of meaning and language usage characteristics depends on the speaker, the addressee, and other aspects of the utterance context.

→ **Pragmatic Competence**

Definition:

The ability to perceive and assemble proper terms for the sociological and civilizing state of affairs in which knowledge is communicated through speaking.

→ **Presupposition**

Definition:

An implicit assumption made by the listener about a specific setting within an exchange.

→ **Preparatory Condition**

Definition:

The speaker must assume a state of affairs while applying a specific illocutionary force, which is an essential condition for the non-defective use of that force.

→ **Propositional Content Condition**

Definition:

The locution must include regularly used terminology for constructing the relevant speech act. For example, a promise and a warning require that the future occurrence be a future act of the speaker.

→ **Projection Problem**

Definition:

A basic presumption is that a simple statement's premise will be valid when paired with a more elaborate one.

→ **Psycholinguistics**

Definition:

The investigation of the relationship between linguistic and psychological elements.

Q

→ **Quality maxim**

Definition:

This maxim requires each participant to provide true information.

→ **Quantity maxim**

Definition:

This principle asks you to provide adequate but not excessive information.

R

→ **Reference**

Definition:
The act of using words to refer to items in the context.

→ **Referring Expressions**

Definition:
Several ways in which a speaker might be deemed to refer. It is usually in the form of a noun phrase.

→ **Referent**

Definition:
Words are used to represent real or imagined objects and experiences. The same thing or experience can be described using various words. A prepositional phrase, yet has a specific place.

→ **Referential realm**

Definition:
Whatever a person may discuss, real or imaginary.

→ **Relevance Theory**

Definition:
An investigation of how the presumption of relevance binds texts together meaningfully.

S

→ **Scalar Implicature**

Definition:
An implicature adds an implicit meaning to an utterance that goes beyond the explicit or literal meaning, implying that the utterer had a reason for not employing a more informative or stronger phrase on the same scale. It is also known as amount implicature.

→ **Schema**

Definition:
Knowledge patterns of situations.

→ **Scripts**

Definition:
More dynamic types of schemata.

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→ **Second Person Deixis**

Definition:
A deictic reference to a person or people known as the addressee.

→ **Semantics**

Definition:
A discipline focuses on the meaning of language.

→ **Sense**

Definition:
Reference to a word, phrase, or sentence.

→ **Sincerity Condition**

Definition:
Where the speaker genuinely intends to carry out the future action.

→ **Situational Context**

Definition:
The immediate physical co-presence is the setting where the encounter occurs at the speaking time.

→ **Speech Acts**

Definition:
The actions participants engage in conversation.

→ **Speech Event**

Definition:
An activity in which participants interact via language in some conventional way to arrive at some outcome.

→ **Social Context**

Definition:
The social relation between speakers and hearers.

→ **Social Deixis**

Definition:
It represents someone's social status and relationship.

→ **Sociolinguistics**

Definition:
The study of language and society.

→ **Sociopragmatics**

Definition:

Knowledge of contextual features, interaction norms, and social conventions associated with a communicative situation.

→ **Solidarity**

Definition:

It demonstrates similar awareness when the other person is socially close.

→ **Spatial Deixis**

Definition:

Where the relative location of people and things is being indicated.

→ **Syntax**

Definition:

A discipline that focuses on phrases, clauses, and sentences.

T

→ **Theoretical Linguistics**

Definition:

A linguistic learning process that is limited only to the study of theories.

→ **Temporal Deixis**

Definition:

A type of deixis that is related to the time of utterance, not the time of the most recently stated event.

U

→ **Utterance**

Definition:

A physical and clear unit of meaning that provides information in the contribution through; a) words used, b) sentence structure, c) setting of the conversation within the location where it is used, d) senses of the start in a specific context, and e) use of gesture to convey meaning.

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