School of Education

Faculty of Humanities

Politeness Strategies in Cross-Cultural Thesis Supervision Sessions:

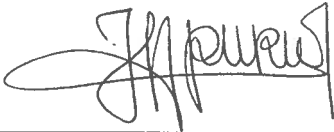**L1 Speakers of Javanese and L1 Speakers of Minangkabaunese**

Indah Tri Purwanti

This thesis is submitted for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

of

Curtin University

April 2016

Declaration

To the best of my knowledge and belief this thesis contains no material previously published by any other person except where due acknowledgement has been made. This thesis contains no material which has been accepted for the award of any other degree or diploma in any university.

Signature: _____

Date: _____12 / 04 / 2016_____

Abstract

Researchers on politeness in the area of interlanguage pragmatics (ILP) have concentrated their efforts on the comparison of first language (L1) and second (L2) or foreign language (FL) production. In spite of that, there has not been any study that focuses on L1 speakers of Javanese and Minangkabaunese in intercultural interactions of thesis supervision sessions.

The present study investigated the politeness strategies employed by the Javanese and the Minangkabaunese in thesis supervision sessions in English with their academic supervisors who were L1 speakers of English, in an Australian context. The politeness strategies in these interactions were compared to those used in thesis supervision sessions conducted in Javanese and in Minangkabaunese, two heritage languages in Indonesia. The aim of the comparison was to identify whether the different L1s influenced the choices of politeness strategies in the L2 or FL. The results of this study provide a basis for further investigation of other Indonesian heritage languages, intercultural interactions, or pragmatic features.

The data were naturally-occurring interactions recorded from the thesis supervision sessions from two universities in Indonesia, and some universities in Australia. The politeness strategies were explored through the pragmatic features involving backchannels, other-repetitions, overlaps, address terms, and request speech acts. The data were examined using the notion of 'nextness' procedure of conversation analysis, and analysed using the integrated analytic approach and Brown and Levinson's politeness theory. The findings showed that there were commonalities and differences in the politeness strategies used by the Javanese and Minangkabaunese in their intercultural interactions due to the nature of their L1s and the way the Javanese and Minangkabaunese use their L1 in their culture.

The findings of this study will provide assistance for educational policy-makers for ESL/EFL instruction, curriculum development, and ESL/EFL textbook writers regarding the need for incorporating pragmatic awareness or cultural awareness in ESL/EFL teaching and learning.

Acknowledgements

Table of Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

List of Abbreviations and Symbols

Add	address term
Apo	apologetic marker
App	appealer
App+add	appealer and address term
AskH	asking the hearer's opinion
Bac	overlapped backchannel
BI	Bahasa Indonesia/Indonesian
CA	conversation analysis
Caj	cajoler
Clau	clause bound/clause boundaries
Cond	conditional clause
Cons	consultative device
Conv	conventionally indirect
Nconv	non-conventional indirect
CP	Cooperative Principles
CCP	cross-cultural pragmatics
CCSARP	Cross-Cultural Speech Act Realisation Projects
Decl	declarative question
DCT	discourse completion task
Dis	overlapping to express disagreement
Down	downtoner
Dquest	direct question
EFL	English as a foreign language
ESM	exchange structure model
ESL	English as a second language
Exa	exact repetition
Exp	expanded repetition
FL	foreign language
FN	first name
FTAs	face-threatening acts
HDR	Higher Degree Research
Grad	gratitude

Grou	grounder
Hes	hesitation pause
ILP	interlanguage pragmatics
Impr	imperative
Inq	inquiry
J	L1 speakers of Javanese
JSE	L1 speakers of Javanese speaking English
L1	first language/native language
L2	second language
M	L1 speakers of Minangkabaunese
MSE	L1 speakers of Minangkabaunese speaking English
Mod	modified repetition
NS	native speaker
Need	need statement
Ngo	ngono/ngenten (how it is like/like this)
Nlex	non-lexical item question
Npro	neutral proposal
Obl	obligation statement
Olex	overlapping lexical/phrasal items
PC	pragmatic competence
Perf	performative
Polm	politeness marker
PP	politeness principles
Prepa	preparator
RQ	research question
Redu	reduced repetition
Ris	rising intonation
Sp	supervisor
Subj	Subjectiviser
Und	understater
Tflo	taking-floor overlap
WDCT	written discourse completion task
Ykn	you know

Chapter 1: Introduction

This chapter presents the background and the context of the study. It describes its purpose and significance, the research questions, and the organisation of the thesis.

1.1 Background and Context of the Study

In communication, linguistic politeness is always taken into consideration. It can be understood as "a continuum of appropriate communication" (Bowe & Martin, 2007, p. 26). It is also perceived as "behaviour which actively expresses positive concern for others, as well as non-imposing distancing behaviour" (Holmes, 1995, p. 5). Linguistic politeness is a "means of expressing consideration for others" (Holmes, 1995, p. 4). Politeness is accomplished in social interaction based on standard shared knowledge or norms in the society. Politeness can be expressed by using a range of different ways that conform to the standard norms (Reiter, 2000, p. 3). All cultures recognize politeness and it is reflected in the use of appropriate language. However, politeness is performed differently in different cultures. Each culture has different strategies/ways to express similar aspects of politeness. Politeness becomes a speaker's concern when there is the possibility of losing face in the interaction.

In intercultural interaction, when the speaker and the addressee are from different cultural backgrounds, politeness is more demanding than in intracultural interaction. In intracultural communication, the language and cultural values are shared knowledge. However, in intercultural interaction challenges emerge not only in terms of the language, but also in understanding the norms of the situations where the intercultural interaction occurs. Being polite in intercultural interaction does not mean transferring what is considered to be polite from the norms of the first language (henceforth, L1) into the second or foreign language (henceforth, L2/FL), but L2/FL speakers may need to have a deeper understanding of the L2/FL cultural norms to prevent being perceived negatively, such as being inadvertently offensive by the addressee (Haugh, 2010, pp. 142-143). Sifianou (1992, p. 216) maintains that people from different cultural backgrounds are more like to have communication breakdowns resulting from the disparities in "the tacit agreement among native speakers as to which forms are conventionalized, which forms carry what degree and what kind of

politeness". Research has shown that different cultures perceive what is considered to be polite and to what degree it is deemed to be polite, differently. This difference may be a source of misunderstanding in intercultural interaction (Yu, 2011). For example, requests in a bald-on record are perceived as impolite in English, but they seem to be appropriate in Modern Greek (Economidou-Kogetsidis, 2002). The frequent use of backchannel responses by the Japanese in Cutrone's (2005) study was perceived to be impositive and an indication of impatience by the British participants, while the Japanese perceived the backchannels as an expression of empathy and being supportive.

Intercultural interaction in the academic setting of thesis supervision sessions, may be challenging for the students who are L2 or FL speakers of English. Through their language, the students do not only communicate to impart matters to do with their research to the supervisor, but they also interact to maintain the student-supervisor relationship. For that purpose, they should be conscientious with their L2/FL production with respect to the preservation of face. Brown and Levinson (1987, p. 61) argue that people communicate with the consideration that each participant in the interaction is cooperative in maintaining each other's face: preserving the negative and positive face. By doing so, the other's face and one's own face are maintained during the interaction. The act of maintaining face and behaving politely, is considered to be universal, even though it may look different in different communities or cultures (Brown & Levinson, 1987). The different cultural value of what is considered to be polite may influence the L2/FL speakers in expressing politeness in their interactions. As L2/FL speakers of English, the students may apply politeness strategies that may conform either to their own L1 norms or the L2/FL cultural norms.

Speakers' use and acquisition of the L2/FL in intercultural interaction is the purview of interlanguage pragmatics (henceforth, ILP) (Kasper, 1996). Research on the use and acquisition of L2 pragmatics has been the purview of several subjects involving

(i)   The operationalisation of pragmatic competence that focuses on

        production

(ii)   The development of pragmatic competence that focuses on

        production

(iii)   Transfer

(iv)   The relationship between grammatical and pragmatic competence

(v)   The role of routines in use and acquisition

(vi)   The influence of context

(Barron, 2012, p. 44).

Most ILP research has focused on the production of speech acts that involve quite different languages and different data collection. Such studies, for example, have involved requests, complaints, and apologies by Danish learners of English with role-play data (Trosborg, 1995); refusals by Japanese learners of English with role-play data (Houck & Gass, 1999); the 'how are you' sequence by Iranian non-native speakers of German (Taleghani-Nikazm, 2002); compliments of Chinese learners of American English with ethnographic data collection (Yu, 2011); requests by Greek learners of English with written discourse completion tasks (henceforth, DCT) and a situational assessment questionnaire to collect the data (Economidou-Kogetsidis, 2010); requests by Cantonese learners of English with DCT data collection (Lee, 2011); requests by Turkish-German bilinguals with DCT data collection (Marti, 2006); directives by Austrian-German L2 speakers of English with audio-recordings and fieldnotes data collection (Dalton-Puffer, 2005); speech acts of American learners of Spanish (Koike, 1989); Iranian speakers of English with DCT and interview data collection (Sharifian & Jamarani, 2011); requests by Australian learners of Indonesian with role-play data collection (Hassall, 2003); requests by Minangkabau speakers of Indonesian with questionnaire and interview data collection (Manaf, 2005); refusals by Javanese learners of English with DCT data collection (Wijayanto, 2013). Of these samples of ILP research focusing on speech acts, request speech acts seems to be the most targeted subject matter. Similarly, of the data collection used, naturally-occurring data appears to be the least employed.

Researchers on politeness in the ILP area have focused their investigations on comparing L1 and L2/FL speakers' production of other pragmatic features, even though the number undertaken is relatively small. Backchannel is one of the pragmatic

features examined. These studies involved, among others, backchannelling in dyadic interaction between Japanese foreign language learners and the Japanese native speakers (Iwai, 2007), backchannelling in the interaction of bilingual German speakers (Heinz, 2003), listener response in dyadic interactions by Taiwanese Spanish foreign language learners (Pérez, 2014), and listener responses by L1 speakers of English who were learners of Spanish (Shively, 2015).

Another pragmatic feature investigated is other-repetition. Research on other-repetition has involved, among others, allo-repetitions in the interaction of Mexican Spanish (Dumitrescu, 2008), repetition by Turkish L2 speakers of Norwegian (Rydland & Aukrust, 2005), repetition by second language speakers of Finnish (Lilja, 2014). The other pragmatic feature studied is overlap and includes studies of overlaps in the multi-party talk of advanced learners of French (Guillot, 2012), and overlaps in Japanese L2 speakers of English (Itakura, 2001).

Address terms have been another focus in ILP research on politeness. The use of address terms by L2 speakers of English in email intercultural interaction (Clyne, 2009), and address terms utilised by Australian learners of Indonesian (Hassall, 2013) are among those studies that focused on address terms in ILP or intercultural interaction. Most of the data of these pragmatic features used naturally-occurring data as they are features of natural interaction.

These studies of politeness in the area of ILP have shown that, among other things, L2/FL speakers/ learners with higher proficiency used internal modifiers to a greater degree (Trosborg, 1995), there was transfer from L1 (Houck & Gass , 1999; Taleghani-Nikazm, 2002; Yu, 2011; Lee, 2011; Hassall, 2003; Hassall, 2013; Wijayanto, 2013; Heinz, 2003), the choice of directness was related to the perception of social relationships (Economidou-Kogetsidis, 2010), there was infrequent use of internal modifiers in requests (Lee, 2011), the preference for indirectness was influenced by the L2 (Marti, 2006), L2 learners used forms that did not match the L1 or L2 forms (Koike, 1989), L1 cultural schemes were a source of misunderstanding in intercultural interaction (Sharifian & Jamarani, 2011), there was a preference for query preparatory (Hassall, 2003), and, there was frequent use of on record with redressive action (Manaf, 2005). Other findings showed that some pragmatic phenomena are culturally

specific (Iwai, 2007). These results are characteristics of L2/FL speakers' production and are phenomena that may emerge in the study of intercultural interaction.

The studies above commonly focused on one pragmatic feature such as requests, apologies, backchannelling, or overlaps. None of them has focused on politeness strategies by examining some pragmatic features used in the interactions. Furthermore, none of them used naturally occurring data that involved both L1 speakers of Javanese and Minangkabaunese, heritage languages of Indonesia, in thesis supervision sessions in the Australian context. There has been a little research on academic settings such as academic advising sessions (Bardovi-Harlig & Harford, 1990) in general, but the nature of the academic advising session and the thesis supervision session are quite different. This study, by investigating the politeness strategies used by Javanese and Minangkabaunese speaking English in natural interactions, examined on a turn-by-turn basis, provides insights into some previously unexplored elements in the studies of politeness in the area of ILP.

The present study investigated the politeness strategies employed by Javanese and Minangkabaunese in thesis supervision sessions in English with academic supervisors who were L1 speakers of English, in the Australian context. Javanese and Minangkabaunese Indonesian students undertaking research degrees at Australian universities face intercultural interactions in many situations, and one of them is the thesis supervision session. The politeness strategies used in the interactions in these thesis supervision sessions in English were compared to those conducted in Javanese (J) and in Minangkabaunese (M), thus providing intracultural and intercultural settings and the three different cultural contexts (Javanese, Minangkabaunese, and English) were chosen to provide comparisons and contrasts. This study examined the politeness strategies for the pragmatic features used that involved backchannels, other-repetitions, overlaps, address terms, and request speech acts. It investigated whether the politeness strategies used in the L1 influenced the choices of politeness strategies in the L2/FL interactions. The analysis of the naturally occurring data for this study were analysed on a turn-by-turn basis.

1.2 Languages in Indonesia

Indonesia is a country that has diverse ethnic groups, languages, and cultures. There are about 726 languages (Marti, Ortega, Idiazabal, Barrena, Juaristi, Junyent, & Amorrortu, 2005; Riza, 2008, p. 9) and 300 ethnic groups in Indonesia (Acciaioli, 1985). Each different ethnic group has its own language and cultural heritage. The languages spoken in Indonesia can be classified into three categories: (i) Bahasa Indonesia (hereafter, BI) or Indonesian; (ii) heritage languages; and (iii) foreign languages. BI is the state language of Indonesia. An Indonesian learns to speak BI formally from school and/or informally from the community. All citizens are required to learn BI. The regional languages are commonly the first language of most Indonesians and are employed in informal communication in the home and in communication with members of the same ethnic group. Of the regional languages, thirteen of them have a million or more speakers including Javanese (75,200,000 speakers), Sundanese (27,000,000), Malay (20,000,000), Madurese (13,694,000), Minangkabaunese (6,500,000), Batakese (5,150,000) and Bugisnese (4,000,000) (Riza, 2008, p. 93). Javanese, then, has the greatest number of L1 speakers, and they can be found all over Indonesia. Most Indonesians are multilingual i.e. they are able to speak BI and their regional language side by side. Furthermore, it is common for Indonesians to speak more than one regional language. Foreign languages, especially English, are also learned at school. English has been taught from primary school to university level in Indonesia since 1995 (Berns, 2010, p. 87). English and other major languages are employed in international communication, diplomacy, business, and cultural exchange.

Bahasa Indonesia or Indonesian is the national language of Indonesia as stated in Article 36, Chapter XV of the 1945 Constitution. As the national language, BI functions as the only official language in Indonesia. All regional languages have sub-national status and the Indonesian government has decided on a policy whereby the regional languages will stay at a sub-national status (Montolalu & Suryadinata, 2007). As a national and official language, therefore, all official business has to be carried out in BI. As well as this, BI is used as a medium of instruction in schools and in other formal educational settings. This derives from the Education Act No. 30, 1989 which is concerned with determining language as a medium and/or subject of study (Montolalu & Suryadinata, 2007). Besides, all national media, as well as other forms

of communication, are conducted in BI. Furthermore, BI has become a language that unifies various ethnic groups in Indonesia, and the most important identity for Indonesians of various ethnic groups. BI is also employed as a means of communication between different ethnic groups in Indonesia. Thus, BI is used for inter-group communication.

1.3 Research Questions and Purpose of the Study

The overarching objective of this research was to investigate the choice of politeness strategies employed by English speaking Indonesians in thesis supervision sessions. To this end, the research questions addressed were:

1. What are the politeness strategies employed by research students who are L1 Javanese speakers in interactions with academic supervisors who are also L1 Javanese speakers in thesis supervision sessions conducted in Javanese?
2. What are the politeness strategies employed by research students who are L1 Minangkabaunese speakers in interactions with academic supervisors who are also L1 Minangkabaunese speakers in thesis supervision sessions conducted in Minangkabaunese?
3. To what extent do these differing L1s influence the use of politeness strategies employed by these speakers in thesis supervision sessions in English with academic supervisors who are L1 speakers of English?

This research was an interlanguage study that investigated the choice of politeness strategies observed in the interactions between the students and their supervisors in thesis supervision sessions. It was designed to examine the politeness strategies used in the thesis supervision sessions both in the L1 and the L2/FL interactions. The L2/FL data were examined to determine the politeness strategies used by the L1 speakers of Javanese and the L1 speakers of Minangkabaunese when they were interacting with their supervisors who were L1 speakers of English. The L1 data were examined to identify the politeness strategies employed by the L1 speakers of Javanese and the L1 speakers of Minangkabaunese. The politeness strategies revealed from the L1 interactions were compared to those investigated in the L2/FL interactions. Thus, the purpose of this study was to describe

(i)   the politeness strategies of L1 speakers of Javanese,

(ii)   the politeness strategies of L1 speakers of Minangkabaunese, and

(iii)   the choices of politeness strategies of L1 speakers of Javanese and L1 speakers of Minangkabaunese speaking English with L1 speakers of English.

In addition, this study also compared the politeness strategies used in L1 Javanese, in L1 Minangkabaunese, and in English as L2/FL. The aim of the comparison was to identify whether the different L1s influenced the choices of politeness strategies in L2/FL.

In the thesis supervision sessions, the supervisor and the students have a mutual understanding of their status. In this context, maintaining each other's face through accepted behaviour is important to keep the relationship between the supervisor and the supervisee running well.   In the interactions, politeness can be displayed through the use of various pragmatic features. The politeness strategies in this study were investigated through the pragmatic features involving backchannels, other-repetitions, overlaps, address terms, and requests. These pragmatic features frequently occur in naturally occurring interactions, and they characterise the flow of talk in natural interactions. The exploration of politeness strategies through these pragmatic features in natural interactions provides a new perspective on how politeness can be investigated from different perspectives in a discourse.

Politeness studies in the area of ILP have usually explored a single pragmatic feature such as other-repetition or requests. There have been no studies of politeness strategies that involve these components:

(i)   L1 speakers of Javanese in interactions with academic supervisors who are also L1 Javanese speakers in thesis supervision sessions conducted in Javanese;

(ii)   L1 speakers of Minangkabaunese in interactions with academic supervisors who are also L1 speakers of Minangkabaunese in thesis supervision sessions conducted in Minangkabaunese;

(iii)   L1 speakers of Javanese and Minangkabaunese in thesis supervision sessions in English with academic supervisors who are L1 speakers of English;

      (iv)   The pragmatic features involving backchannels, other-repetitions, overlaps, address terms, and requests.

The results of this study provide a basis for further investigation of other Indonesian heritage languages, intercultural interaction, and pragmatic features.

1.4 Significance of the Study

This study has demonstrated new ways of viewing politeness strategies and interlanguage pragmatics by integrating politeness strategies of two L1 speakers of heritage languages of Indonesia: L1 Javanese, and L1 Minangkabaunese. As such, it has provided a new perspective on politeness theory and interlanguage pragmatics. Besides, there are very few studies on Indonesian pragmatics, specifically Javanese and Minangkabaunese and there is a lack of interlanguage research or pragmatic research investigating Indonesian speakers of English in Australian setting, L2 English setting. So, this study has filled a gap in the literature by examining the politeness strategies of L1 speakers of Javanese and Minangkabaunese in interaction with their supervisors who were L1 speakers of English in the thesis supervision sessions in the Australian context.

This study is also significant with respect to ESL teaching in Australia and elsewhere, as it is useful to understand that Indonesian students may have different communicative styles which are a function of their L1, not necessarily their shared language. This study provides a contribution to the growing research in the area of English as an academic lingua franca. So far, there has not been any research in this context in the area of English as an academic lingua franca. It also provides insights into L2/FL teaching in Indonesia, as it describes how the L2/FL was used in the intercultural interaction. Thus, it will inform language teachers, curriculum writers, and book writers.

There are an increasing numbers of Indonesian students undertaking research degrees at Australian universities, and supervision sessions are very important for students' progress, and lecturers' professional credibility. Mutual motivation is necessary until the completion of the research. For Indonesian research students and Australian supervisors who face the reality of intercultural communication, this study is valuable as it portrays the sorts of communicative styles needed for mutual understanding.

Besides, the understanding of various factors involved in intercultural communication is important to the development of better understanding generally in a global world.

1.5 Organisation of the Thesis

This thesis comprises seven chapters. Chapter One is the introductory chapter that contextualises the study: the research background, the purpose of the study, its significance, and the research questions. The background of the study describes the languages in Indonesia as well as linguistic etiquette of two specific heritage languages in Indonesia (Javanese and Minangkabaunese). Chapter Two provides a review of the literature relevant to the topic under study including pragmatics, interlanguage pragmatics (ILP) involving ILP studies on backchannels, other-repetitions, overlaps, address terms, and Bahasa Indonesia and heritage languages of Indonesia. It also describes the literature on speech act theory, directive speech acts, requests, and recent studies on requests across cultures, politeness theory, and conversation analysis in relation to politeness.

Chapter Three presents the research methods used in the study relating to the research approach, an overview of the research, data collection, and the integrated analytical framework for data analysis. Chapter Four reports two main findings from the intracultural interactions. First, it reports on the strategies of L1 speakers of Javanese in their interactions with their academic supervisors who were also L1 speakers of Javanese in the thesis supervision sessions conducted in Javanese. The second presents the strategies of L1 speakers of Minangkabaunese in their interactions with their academic supervisors who were also L1 speakers of Minangkabaunese in their thesis supervision sessions conducted in Minangkabaunese. Chapter Five reports two main findings from the intercultural interactions. First, it describes the strategies of L1 speakers of Javanese in their interactions with their academic supervisors who were L1 speakers of English in the thesis supervision sessions conducted in English. The second reports on the strategies of L1 speakers of Minangkabaunese in their interactions with their academic supervisors who were L1 speakers of English in their thesis supervision sessions conducted in English. Chapter Six compares the strategies used. It also discusses the main findings of the study regarding backchannels, other-repetitions, overlaps, address terms, and requests. Chapter Seven draws some

conclusions, outlines the limitations of the study, and discusses its theoretical and practical implications, and makes recommendations for future research.
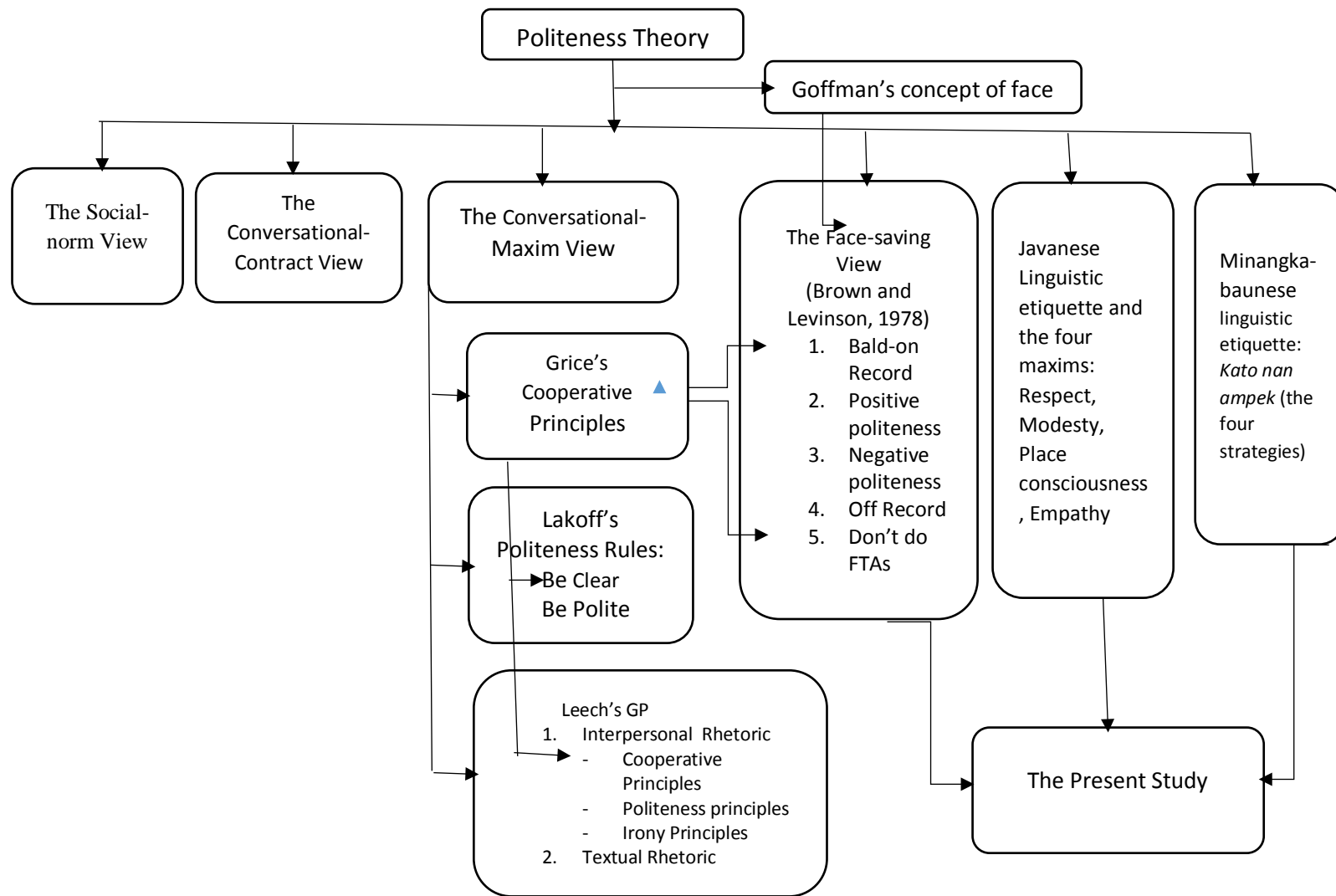
Figure 1 Conceptual framework

The conceptual framework in Figure 1 shows the conceptual framework for this study tracing the various theories used. It begins with the four main theories of politeness, the social-norm view, the conversational-contract view, the conversational-maxim view, and the face-saving view. The first views politeness occurring when it conforms to the social norms of a culture. This view is rarely used by scholars as a framework for politeness investigations. The second one views politeness in terms of the rights and obligations of the interlocutors in the course of interactions. The conversational-maxim view is mainly grounded on Grice's (1975) Cooperative Principle (CP) that consists of four maxims: Quantity, Quality, Relation, and Manner. Inspired by Grice's CP, Lakoff (1973) proposed two main rules: be clear and be polite. The first rule corresponds to Grice's PC. These rules are considered inadequate to embrace the full notion of politeness (Sifianou, 1992). Grounded in Grice (1975) and Lakoff (1973), Leech (1983) developed a model called 'general pragmatics' that consists of two approaches: Interpersonal Rhetoric and Textual Rhetoric. The Interpersonal Rhetoric comprises three sets of maxims of which one is the Cooperative Principle (Grice's CP). The conversational maxims initiated by Grice (1975) and expanded by Lakoff (1973) and Leech (1983) offer regulations to account for linguistics politeness. However, Grice's CP is considered to be imprecise, and intersecting, while the frameworks proposed by Lakoff and Leech encounter problems in their applications in an interaction. These theories have made valuable contributions to politeness theory and research, despite their flaws and vulnerability to critiques from a Critical Discourse Analysis perspectives (Fairclough, 1989, pp. 7-10).

Brown and Levinson's (1987) face-saving theory of politeness originated from Goffman's (1967) concept of face and their model of politeness was built on a Gricean approach. Brown and Levinson proposed five strategies: bald-on record, positive politeness, negative politeness, off record, and don't do face-threatening acts (FTAs). Although the face-saving theory has been challenged for not being universal, this theory has been extensively used for politeness investigations as their theory is still relevant and the most universal to date. For that reason, this study employed Brown and Levinson's face-saving theory together with Javanese and Minangkabaunese linguistic etiquettes to analyse the politeness strategies in the interactions between the students and their supervisors in thesis supervision sessions.

Chapter 2: Theoretical and Methodological Background

This chapter describes the theoretical and methodological background for this study. The areas chosen are based on the following reasons. First, this study focused on language use in cross-cultural communication, specifically on politeness strategies utilised in the interactions between the supervisors and supervisees in academic settings. Secondly, this study involved speakers with different first language (L1) backgrounds (Javanese and Minangkabaunese) using English and investigates whether the cultural background of the supervisees' (L1) influences the politeness strategies used in interactions with their supervisors whose L1 is English. Therefore, it is essential to overview pragmatics, and especially interlanguage pragmatics (ILP), and politeness theory. Furthermore, as this study focused on politeness in cross-cultural communication it looks at the roots of politeness, that is, how the participants use their language in their interactions. Thus, speech act theory was also a fundamental theoretical background for examining speech acts employed by the students in this study.

Theoretical and empirical works related to the research questions are discussed in this chapter that consists of six main parts. The first part presents pragmatics as a theory of language use. The discussion of pragmatics provides a theoretical background for ILP. The second part deals with ILP. In this part, there is an overview of interlanguage studies on backchannels, other-repetitions, overlaps, address terms, and Bahasa Indonesia (BI) and heritage languages of Indonesia as well as Australian English including reviews of the research on the languages involved in this study. The third part looks at speech act theory, *directive* speech acts including request speech acts, as well as recent studies on request speech acts across cultures. The fourth part examines the perspectives on politeness that involve the conversational-maxim view, the social-norm view, and the conversational-contract view. The fifth part overviews Brown and Levinson's politeness theory as well as the critiques of the theory. The sixth part addresses conversation analysis and politeness strategies. Finally, there is a summary of the main points presented in this chapter.

2.1 Pragmatics: Definition

Language as an action is the main driver of the concept of linguistic pragmatics. Pragmatics is defined by Levinson (1983, p. 5) as "the study of language use". He maintains that his definition makes it parallel with semantics and syntax. Crystal (1985, p. 240) defines it as "the study of language from the point of view of users, especially of the choices they make, the constraints they encounter in using language in social interaction and the effects their use of language has on other participants in the act of communication", while Mey (2001, p. 6) maintains it "studies the use of language in human communication as determined by the condition of society." Leech (1983, p. 1) states that pragmatics is "how the language is used in communication". Bardovi-Harlig (2010, p. 219) defines it as "the scientific study of all aspects of linguistic behaviour". Kasper and Blum-Kulka (1993, p.3) propose an 'action-theoretical' view for the definition of pragmatics and define it as "the study of people comprehension and production of linguistic action in context". Thomas (2013, p. 22) embraces all these definitions of pragmatics in a short phrase "meaning in interaction" and further explicates that it:

> reflects the view that meaning is not something which is inherent in the words alone, nor is it produced by the speaker alone, nor by the hearer alone. Making meaning is a dynamic process, involving the negotiation of meaning between speaker and hearer, the context of utterance (physical, social and linguistic) and the meaning potential of an utterance. (p. 22)

Crystal's definition underlines language use in social interaction and its effect on the addressee. Mey also highlights that language use is dependent on society. Mey takes into account the role of community in a communicative event. Similarly, Leech, Bardovi-Harlig and Kasper and Blum-Kulka accentuate language in use in which, as Thomas stresses, is a process of negotiation of meaning. Thus, these definitions emphasise that pragmatics focuses on language use in social interaction and is concerned with how utterances function in the context of the interaction. The analysis of the utterances involves both the speaker and the addressee in the interaction. Furthermore, the meaning of an utterance should be examined by looking at who participated in the interaction, and the context of the utterances. In other words,

pragmatics is about how the speaker and the addressee construct and make sense of the language in the context of their interaction.

The speaker's pragmatic competence is considered to determine the success of the interaction as it allows him/her to produce and interpret the language used. Bialystok (1993) states that pragmatic competence refers to the range of ability possessed by discourse participants in using and interpreting the language in their interactions. These abilities involve the capability of using the language for diverse functions to comprehend the real intention of an utterance, and having knowledge of discourse rules (p. 43). Thomas (1983, p. 92) states that a speaker's pragmatic competence refers to the speaker's "ability to use language effectively in order to achieve a specific purpose and to understand language in context". For the purpose of her study, Barron (2003) had an operational definition of pragmatic competence as:

> knowledge of the linguistic resources available in a given language for realizing particular illocutions, knowledge of the sequential aspects of speech acts and finally, knowledge of the appropriate contextual use of the particular languages' linguistic resources. (p.10)

All these definitions consist of components of pragmatic competence: pragmalinguistics and sociopragmatics. The speakers of the language should possess this competence in order for them to use and make sense of the language appropriately in their interaction.

The principal components in the study of pragmatics involved at least the study of deixis, presupposition, speech acts, and conversational implicature (Levinson 1983, pp. 9 – 10). The area of pragmatics may involve those components, such as address terms (Stalnaker, 1972), that are under the scope of sociolinguistics. Mey (2001) groups the core elements of pragmatics into two general fields, micropragmatics and macropragmatics. The study of reference, implicature, and speech acts belongs to the areas micropragmatics whereas discourse analysis and metapragmatics are included in the areas of macropragmatics. Bardovi-Harlig (2010, p. 219) explicates that the aspects studied in pragmatics include "patterns of linguistic action, language functions, types of inferences, principles of communication, frames of knowledge, attitude, and belief, as well as organizational principles of text and discourse", whereas the purpose of analysis orients to meaning in the context of interaction. Leech (1983), as well as

Thomas (1983) identified two components of pragmatics: pragmalinguistics and sociopragmatics. Pragmalinguistics refers to "the particular resources which a given language provides for conveying particular illocutions" (Leech, 1983, p. 11). So it is more about the linguistic means used in the interaction including pragmatic strategies. Sociopragmatics refers to the effect of social perceptions on participants, e.g., social status, and social distance, both in terms of performance and of interpretation (Leech, 1983, p.11). Thus, what is uttered varies according to the social context. Leech's (1983) and Thomas's (1983) division of pragmatics show that there are two elements to be focused on in an interaction - the linguistic devices chosen to convey the message and the knowledge and skill of sociocultural aspects incorporated in the selection of the language used. This means that a language user needs to possess both pragmalinguistic competence and sociopragmatic competence to be pragmatically competent.

In an interaction, a speaker displays his/her pragmatic competence. It becomes more significant when the interaction involves L1 and L2 speakers as pragmatic failure is more likely to occur. Thomas (1983) maintains that L1 speakers may find grammatical errors on the part of L2 users annoying and put constraints on their interaction. They may perceive this only as a lack of ability. However, pragmatic failure is more critical as it may be understood as being disrespectful, unpleasant, and even offensive. In other words, L2 speakers may need to use the language very considerately so that they will be successful in communicating in their L2, especially when they communicate with L1 speakers of their L2 or foreign language. They should be able to choose the appropriate utterances suitable to the given context.

This study, that focused on naturally-occurring interaction across languages and cultures: Javanese and Minangkabaunese using English with L1 speakers of English, covered the areas of both micropragmatics and macropragmatics as it concentrates on politeness strategies by examining the pragmatic features involving backchannels, other-repetitions, overlaps, address terms, and the request speech acts used in the interactions. The broad area of this study is ILP, which is discussed in Section 2.3 below.

2.2 Interlanguage Pragmatics

Interlanguage pragmatics (ILP) has been defined in various ways. Kasper and Dahl (1991) define it as "the performance and acquisition of speech acts by L2 learners" (p. 216). Kasper and Blum-Kulka (1993, p.3) view it as "the study of non-native speakers' use and acquisition of linguistic action patterns in a second language". Kasper (1992, p.207) views interlanguage pragmatics as L2 speakers' comprehension and production of the L2 and the acquisition of L2 pragmatic knowledge. Kasper and Schmidt (1996, p. 150) define it as "the study of the development and use of strategies for linguistic action by non-native speakers". The definition given by Kasper is the broadest of all, and Kasper and Schmidt's and Kasper and Blum-Kulka's definition of ILP is broader than that of Kasper and Dahl's (1991) definition. Their definition incorporates linguistic actions, so the focus is not merely on speech acts. In 1996, Kasper defined ILP as the study of the development and use of L2 linguistic strategies, and its purpose is to spell out the production of the L2's pragmatic knowledge. These definitions point out that the focus of ILP is L2 speakers or learners dealing with their comprehension, production, and acquisition of L2.

As a 'direct off-shoot' of cross-cultural pragmatics (hereafter, CCP), most of ILP's concepts, methods, and research questions originate from CCP (Barron, 2003, p. 27). Therefore, the central concerns of ILP are very similar to those of CCP. ILP focuses on politeness (strategies and linguistic forms used), the universality of the strategies, the effect of contextual variables on the speaker, the contextual distribution of realisation patterns, and the difference of contextual variation across cultures (Kasper & Schmidt, 1996).

There have been many different areas of research under the heading of interlanguage pragmatics. Kasper's (1996: 146) recommendations for research included:

> non-native speakers' perception and comprehension of illocutionary
>
> force and politeness; their production of linguistic action; the impact of
>
> context variables on choices of conventions of means (semantic
>
> formulae or realization strategies) and forms (linguistic means of
>
> implementing strategic options); discourse sequencing and

conversational management; pragmatic success and failure; and the

joint negotiation of illocutionary, referential, and relational goals in

personal encounters and institutional settings. (p. 146)

ILP research is concerned with investigating the cross-cultural pragmatic behaviour of L2 learners regarding the use, perception, and acquisition of L2 pragmatics involving linguistic and pragmatic devices, and speech act strategies both in second and foreign languages (Kasper & Schmidt, 1996; Alcon-Soler, 2008, p. 22). Barron and Black (2015, p. 113) report that ILP research in telecollaboration has investigated pragmatic features including "pronouns of address, modal particles, sentence-final particles, hedging devices, refusals of invitations, backchannel signals and reactive expressions".

Many studies have investigated ILP over the last two decades. Most of the research has focused on performance, and not on learners' language development because the central orientation of ILP has been empirical pragmatics, particularly cross-cultural pragmatics (Kasper & Schmidt, 1996, p. 150). Research on pragmatic features and L2 speech act realisation has been carried out in only a few languages. Languages such as Arabic, Danish, English, German, Hebrew, Japanese, Russian, and Spanish have been chosen when investigating learner populations with different linguistic and cultural backgrounds (Trosborg, 1995). Recent studies on ILP involve Chinese (Kasper & Schmidt, 1996; Lee, 2011; Yu, 2003), Greek (Georgalidou, 2008), Persian (Shariati & Chamani, 2010), Cantonese (Lee, 2011), and ethnic varieties of New Zealand English (Holmes, Marra, & Vine, 2012). These studies focused on speech act realisation. ILP research has also investigated other pragmatic features including the use of backchannels, other-repetitions, overlaps, and address terms and these are presented in sections 2.2.1 – 2.2.4.

The present study investigated politeness strategies by examining the pragmatic features used as devices to express politeness that is built into the interaction of thesis supervision sessions. ILP studies focusing on politeness provide illustrations of how politeness has been investigated from different perspectives involving speech act production, requests, and other pragmatic features such as backchannels, other-repetition, overlaps, and address terms used in the interaction. The following section

describes ILP studies focusing on the pragmatic features used and speech act production.

2.2.1 ILP Studies of Backchannels

Some scholars have focused their ILP studies on the use of backchannel responses in an interaction. Backchannels are short verbal responses from the listener such as *uh-huh*, *mmhm*, *yeah* or non-verbal responses such as head nods (White, 1989, 59). Yngve (1970, in Yazdfazeli & Motallebzadeh, 2014) was the first person who coined the term backchannel to describe these tokens. They are commonly provided by the recipient, listener/addressee, as a response to the talk that makes it a joint construction (Gardner, 2001). Lambertz (2011, p. 12) used the term 'engaged listenership' to refer to backchannelling and defines it as "the desire of the listener to portray active, supportive and polite listenership". Gardner (2001, p. 2) states that some of the functions of backchannels include: "continuers that function to hand the floor back to the immediately prior speaker (e.g. *mm hm, uh huh*); acknowledgements that claim agreement or understanding of the previous turn (e.g., *mm, yeah*)". Similarly, White (1989) argues that the use of backchannels in interaction show that the addressee agrees with what has been said by the speaker and that the addressee gives a signal to the speaker to continue the talk. Maynard (1997, p. 46) categorises the functions of backchannels as continuer, understanding, agreement, support, strong emotional answer, and minor additions.

In his study of the Japanese backchannel a*izuchi*, White (1989) showed that the Japanese did not only employ *aizuchi* to agree with the speaker, but also to show empathy to the speaker. Using frequent backchannels in Japanese interaction is perceived to be polite as they show the addressee's interest and attention in what the speaker is saying. Cutrone (2005) showed that Japanese EFL speakers (JESs) showed politeness by using backchannels even though they did not understand and agree with what the speaker had said. According to the participants in his study, the frequent use of backchannels facilitated the interactions with harmonious atmosphere that accentuated the interlocutor's positive face. Cutrone (2014) revealed that, in the intercultural interaction between JESs and native English speakers, JESs used a greater number of backchannels because this helped them to feel comfortable in their role as listeners. They sometimes pretended to understand or to agree with the speaker as a

way of maintaining the conversation's pleasantness. Kitamura (2000) states that in interactions the participants play their role, and when they are actively involved in the interaction, they enliven the interaction. By showing engagement or involvement by using short responses in the interaction, the participants comply with the speaker to satisfy their positive and negative face. Svennevig (1999) maintains that the speaker and hearer are being polite in the interaction by showing attentiveness and alignment using short responses.

There have been a large number of studies of backchannels, however, there are only a few ILP studies of them. Scholars have investigated listener responses in telecollaborative interactions between German native speaker learners of English and Irish English speakers (Barron & Black, 2015). Cutrone (2005) examined the use of backchannels in dyadic interaction between Japanese and British. Another study from Cutrone (2014) examined the use of backchannels in the interactions of Japanese English foreign language learners of English and Americans. Suprapto (2012) investigated *aizuchi*, short responses in Japanese, used by Indonesian L2 speakers of Japanese. White (1997) examined differences in the use of backchannels, repair, pausing, and private speech between American and Japanese. Tao and Thompson's (1991) study examined backchannels involving Mandarin speakers with English as the dominant language and Mandarin speakers with Mandarin domination. Heinz (2003) studied backchannel behaviour of American English, monolingual Germans and bilingual Germans. Stubbe (1998) investigated backchannel behaviour of Maori and Pakeha ethnic groups in dyadic interaction in New Zealand English. Yazdfazeli and Motallebzadeh (2014) examined Iranian EFL learners' backchannel performances.

An ILP study conducted by Tao and Thompson (1991) investigated backchannels in Mandarin conversations in which the subjects were Mandarin speakers with English as the dominant language and Mandarin speakers with Mandarin domination. The results showed that there was language transfer or inference from the second language to the first one. The Mandarin with English dominant language speakers frequently used backchannels that did not exist in the interactions of Mandarin speakers with Mandarin domination. They used backchannels more frequently both during and at the end of the other party's speaking turn, and their use of backchannels was predominantly as continuers. Mandarin speakers with Mandarin domination used

backchannels, especially at the end of the speaker's turns and they infrequently used backchannels in overlap with the speaker's turn. They used them to show understanding, confirmation, and acknowledgment of agreement. Another study on backchannels was conducted by Heinz (2003). She investigated the differences in the behaviour of American English and German speakers in using backchannels and the behaviour of monolingual Germans and bilingual Germans. Her study revealed that backchannel responses and overlapped backchannels were less frequently produced by monolingual Germans than those by monolingual Americans. A pragmatic transfer occurred when the bilingual Germans communicated in German; they used backchannels and overlapped backchannels more than the monolinguals.

Similarly, Suprapto (2012) investigated *aizuchi*, short responses in Japanese, used by Indonesian L2 speakers of Japanese. The data were gathered from natural interactions between Japanese and Indonesians. The findings showed that the frequency of using *aizuchi* by Indonesian L2 speakers of Japanese was less than that of L1 speakers of Japanese. The functions of *aizuchi* involved showing information receipt, continuers, support, agreement and strong emotional response. *Aizuchi* was also used to ask for information, to add information, and to provide a correction. In using *aizuchi*, there was less lexical variation, low frequency of use, and irrelevant moments of producing *aizuchi* that made the Japanese counterpart confused. Suprapto argued that cultural norms influenced the way Indonesian L2 speakers of Japanese used *aizuchi*.

These three studies show that different cultural backgrounds may produce similar and different uses of backchannels. The speakers' first or second language may influence the way they use backchannels. Backchannels may also be culturally specific.

2.2.2 ILP Studies of Other-repetitions

ILP studies have also addressed the use of other-repetitions in native/non-native speakers. Other-repetitions are the repetition of the other speaker's preceding utterance (Johnstone, 1994). Similarly, Pérez-Pereira (1994, p. 323) defines other-repetition as "the complete or partial reproduction of a preceding utterance produced by another speaker". These definitions show that other-repetition occurs in a dyadic or multi-party interaction. There have been some different terms used to refer to other-repetition.

Tannen (1987) uses the term allo-repetition. Murata (1995) calls it two-party repetition. Perrin, Deshaies, and Paradis (2003) use the term diaphonic repetition.

The functions of other-repetitions in dyadic and multi-party interactions have been examined by some scholars. Tannen (2007, p. 61) claims that repetitions not only have the function of creating meaning in an interaction, but they also have other functions at the interactional level. According to Tannen (2007, p. 61), the interactional functions of repetitions include:

> getting or keeping the floor, showing listenership, providing backchannel response, stalling, gearing up to answer or speak, humour and play, savouring and showing appreciation of a good line or a good joke, persuasion, linking one speaker's ideas to another's, ratifying another's contributions.

Furthermore, Tannen (2007, p. 61) explains that repetitions work as interpersonal involvement in the interaction. Repetitions provide "a resource to keep the talk going, where talk itself is a show of involvement, of willingness to interact, to serve positive face" (p. 61). The functions of repetition proposed by Perrin et al. (2003) are narrower than those of Tannen. Perrin et al. (2003, p. 1849) classify four functions of diaphonic repetition involving "a taking into account function, a confirmation request function, a positive reply function, and a negative reply function". Johnstone (2008) states that repetition displays the addressee's attentive listening, comprehension, and agreement to what the speaker has said. Tannen's (2007) interactional functions of other-repetitions seem broader and more complete than the others and cover the notion of politeness in producing other-repetitions in the interaction.

Regarding the forms of repetitions, Pérez-Pereira (1994) classifies forms of repetition as exact, reduced, modified, and expanded. Tannen (2007, p. 63) classifies repetition using three parameters: first, whether it is self-repetition or allo-repetition; second, whether the repetition is exact or a paraphrase; and the third, the temporal scale of the repetition. The repetitions in this present study are other-repetitions in dyadic

interaction. The forms of repetition follow those classified by Pérez-Pereira (1994), as they were applicable to the data in the present study.

Research on other-repetitions has been conducted by scholars since it was initiated by Tannen in 1987. There has been a large number of investigations into other-repetitions since then. For example, Dumitrescu (2008) examined the roles of interrogative allo-repetitions to convey politeness from the corpus of oral Mexican Spanish. The results showed that the attitudinal allo-repetitions may cause the addressee to lose face as they harm the addressee's positive face. Allo-repetitions performing repair task seemed to have disaffiliative function and they were impositive and threatened the addressee's face. Allo-repetitions with disaffiliative functions were high in sociolinguistic interviews. Allo-repetitions for faulty turn and 'dilatory' interrogative allo-repetitions appeared to have affiliative and solidarity functions that express a positive politeness strategy. However, there are only a few ILP studies focusing on other-repetitions. Some ILP studies on other-repetition involve the interactions between L1 speakers of British English, L1 speakers of Japanese, and Japanese speakers of English (Murata, 1995), native/non-native speakers of Norwegian (Svennevig, 2003), in the interactions of EFL learners (Sawir, 2003), native Norwegian clerks and non-native clients in institutional encounters (Svennevig, 2004), native/non-native speakers of Finnish (Kurhila, 2001), Turkish L2 speakers of Norwegian (Rydland & Aukrust, 2005) and interactions between Japanese learners of English (Greer, Andrade, Butterfield & Mischinger, 2009), among others. There is also a study of other-repetitions that involved Indonesian, Vietnamese, and Japanese L2 speakers of English (Sawir, 2003).

Murata's (1995) cross-cultural study of repetitions involved L1 speakers of British English, L1 speakers of Japanese, and Japanese speakers of English. He focused on both self- and other-repetitions. The results showed that the immediate or other-repetitions were used to decrease the threat and to show solidarity or cooperation in the interaction. The immediate repetitions were more frequently used in English interactions both in those of the L1 speakers of British English and the Japanese speakers of English. The immediate repetitions were used to show solidarity in Japanese exchanges, while they seemed to threaten the interlocutors' territoriality in English interaction. However, they were counter-balanced by using silence-avoidance and hesitation repetitions that showed respect. It was claimed that the use of these

conversational features was related to the different values in the context of the interaction. Another study on other-repetitions was conducted by Svennevig (2003). She investigated echo answers in the institutional interaction of native/non-native speakers of Norwegian. The results came from the analysis of twelve video recordings in various contexts. The findings showed that the use of echo answers seemed relevant to asymmetrical relationships in the interactions and appeared to have a specific role in the interactions between native and non-native speakers. Repetition in the repair sequences characterised both native and non-native interactions. Transfer or inference in the form of repetition from the first language of the participants was also revealed in the data. When the non-natives repeated the expression of a hearing check, they used self-correction as their learning strategy.

Another study on other-repetitions related to feedback was carried out by Kurhila (2001). Her research focused on the correction done by L1 speakers to the L2 speakers' linguistic expressions. The findings came from using conversation analysis (henceforth, CA) with a corpus of naturally occurring data of native and non-native speakers in non-pedagogic contexts. The analysis showed that the corrective actions were conducted depending on the types of environments of the deviations. It was also revealed that the corrections were made when the deviations occurred in the slot of repetition. The L1 speakers corrected the deviation without repeating the source of the trouble, but the correction was provided directly.

Sawir (2003) focused on allo-repetition used in dyadic interactions involving Indonesian, Vietnamese, and Japanese L2 speakers of English and L1 speakers of English. Nine videotapes of the interactions were transcribed and analysed. The findings showed that the allo-repetitions were used to show listenership and surprise, to request for confirmation and clarification, and to hold over while thinking what to say. The repetitions also showed solidarity and involvement strategies. Intonation was considered to play a role in determining the function of allo-repetitions. Sawir argued that repetitions to ensure correctness were more frequently used in intercultural communication than those in intracultural interaction.

These ILP studies of other-repetitions show that there may be differences in the use of repetitions in L1 and L2, and there may be inference from the L1. The use of repetitions

may be related to the different cultural values of the participants, problems of understanding or linguistic encoding, and the possibility of the frequent use of other-repetitions in the intercultural interactions.

2.2.3 ILP Studies of Overlaps

Scholars have also undertaken ILP investigations of overlapping talk. Overlapping talk is related to the sequential organisation of talk. It refers to simultaneous speech (Bargiela-Chiappini & Harris, 1996, p. 272), that is, when a speaker and the interlocutor are talking at the same time. This occurrence is considered as a violation in conversation as there should only be one speaker speaking at a time (Sacks, Schegloff, & Jefferson, 1974). The occurrence of simultaneous talk results in hesitation, and overlap or interruption (Cogo & Dewey, 2012).

Scholars have distinguished different types of interruptions associated with interactional consequences. Goldberg (1990, p. 890) classified interruptions as relationally neutral interruptions (affiliative), relationally power and rapport interruptions (non-affiliative). Affiliative interruptions are those dealing with the speaker's immediate needs of the interaction. Power interruptions refers to overlaps aimed at taking over the floor or changing the topic of the speaker's ongoing utterance. In contrast, rapport interruption refers to overlaps intended to support or encourage the speaker's ongoing utterance. Murata (1994) and Li (2001) distinguished between interruptions that are intrusive and those that are cooperative. Intrusive interruptions involve overlaps that take over the floor, change the topic, and disagree with the speaker's on-going utterance. Cooperative interruptions include overlaps that show collaboration and encouragement with the speaker's talk. Cogo and Dewey (2012, p. 142) classify overlaps as cooperative or competitive. Cooperative overlaps refer to those that do not seek to take over the floor, while competitive overlaps refer to those that make the current speaker relinquish the floor. Bargiela-Chiappini and Harris (1996, p. 276) categorised interruptions based on their pragmatic features. The first category is facilitative overlaps that refer to supportive propositions involving topic continuity and backchannelling. The second is interruptive overlaps that entail competitive or conflictual propositions and topic shifts. Murata's (1994) classification of interruptions was adapted for use in this study.

In dyadic or multi-party interactions, overlaps or interruptions are perceived in a different way. Tannen (2005, p. 98) claims that interlocutors interrupt to get actively involved and to participate enthusiastically in the interaction, to show interest in what the speaker is saying, and to show solidarity. Cogo and Dewey (2012) maintain that overlaps show active involvement in the interaction, support, and listenership. Interruptions may convey rapport, cooperation, or camaraderie. This rapport appears to be triggered by the interlocutor's enthusiastic interest and active involvement in the interaction (Bargiela-Chiappini & Harris, 1996). Konakahara (2015) maintains that overlapping questions have the function of showing the interlocutor's comprehension of what is being said, or make clear uncertain points. In ordinary interactions, interruption is commonly perceived to be inherently impolite (Leech 1983, p. 139; Brown & Levinson, 1987, p. 67). However, Hutchby (2008) viewed it in a different way. In his study he investigated the impoliteness of interruptions from the standpoint of conversation analysis (CA). The data involved naturally occurring data from various contexts including ordinary conversations, and broadcast talk. The results showed that what was sequentially interruptive was not perceived as interruptive by the participants of the interactions. Overlapped talk did not always constitute interruptive actions, it was the moral dimension of the interaction that determine whether it was interruptive or impolite. Impoliteness in talk-in-interaction should be taken into account when the participants oriented to actions as impolite or when the participant talked about the impolite action encountered in the interaction.

ILP studies on overlapping talk have investigated the occurrence of overlaps in the interaction between L1 speakers of English and Japanese L2 speakers of English (Murata, 1994). Speicher (1993) investigated overlaps in the interaction of Filipino-American students. Guillot (2012) focused on L1/L2 speakers of French and L1/L2 speakers of English, and in 2011 she investigated multi-party talk in advanced L2 French. Li (2001) examined overlaps in the intercultural interaction of Chinese and Canadians, and Itakura (2001) explored overlaps in the English and Japanese interaction between L1 Japanese and Japanese L2 learners of English. Overlaps were also examined in the dyadic interactions of Chinese and Canadians (Li, Yum, Yates, Aguilera, Mao, & Zheng, 2005), and in the casual conversation between international students who used English as a lingua franca in British university settings (Konakahara, 2015).

An ILP study on overlapping talk conducted by Murata (1994) investigated interruptions in cross-cultural interactions involving the interactions of L1 speakers of English, L1 speakers of Japanese, and Japanese speakers of English. The study involved seven Japanese learners of English and two Japanese speakers taking postgraduate courses which became conversational counterparts in Japanese-Japanese interactions. Two British postgraduate students became the partners in Japanese speaking English interactions, and another two British postgraduate students participated for the native speakers of English interactions. The results showed that the frequency of interruptions in general, and intrusive interruptions in particular, increased in the interactions of the Japanese speaking English. The rise of the frequency in Japanese speaking English interactions was due to their adjustment to the conversational style of the L1 speakers of English. The different occurrences of interruptions reflected the different cultural conversational styles in the two cultures.

Overlap investigations were also undertaken by Guillot (2012). She investigated conversational management in multi-party talks of advanced L2 French speakers to examine the cross-cultural differences of overlaps. The data were recorded from multi-party simulated television discussions involving L1 and L2 French and L1 and L2 English speakers. The participants were all university students. The data were analysed both quantitatively and qualitatively. The quantitative analysis showed that L1 English speakers were consistent in terms of the percentage in all interactions, L2 French speakers had a lower count, while L1 French speakers had the highest percentage of all. This meant that overlapped speech was a more frequent verbal feature in French speakers' interaction than that in English speakers. The qualitative analysis showed that the nature of overlaps by L1 French speakers was affiliative, while in L2 French speakers it was non-affiliative. Overlaps by L2 French speakers tended to be employed as a turn-taking strategic device.

Another study by Li (2001) also focused on interruptions. Li examined the role of culture in interruptions used in simulated medical conversations between doctors and patients. Eighty-four participants were recruited involving Canadian and Chinese who were graduate students at the University of Victoria, Canada. An experiment was conducted and the participants worked together with a partner either from the same culture or from a different culture to form forty conversations. The interruptions were

classified as intrusive or cooperative. In the Chinese-Chinese interactions, cooperative interruptions were more often used than intrusive ones. In the intercultural interactions, intrusive interruptions were more frequently used. There was no difference in the frequency of interruptions in both kinds of interruptions in the interactions of doctor-patient role with the Chinese participants. However, in the same situation with Canadian participants, there was a significant difference; the doctors did not employ cooperative interruptions. Interruptions in the intracultural interactions had more successful interruptions than those of the intercultural ones. In the intracultural interactions, the Chinese participants alternated their cooperative interruptions with intrusive ones. It was considered that convergence occurred in the way the Chinese participants used interruptions in their intercultural interactions.

It can be concluded from these studies that intrusive interruptions increased in the intercultural interactions. Convergence to the conversational style of L1 speakers of English may occur in intercultural interaction. The differences in interruptions may be related to the different cultural conversational styles. The overlapped talk may be related to the power and status of the participants.

2.2.4 ILP Studies of Address Terms

ILP research has correspondingly examined the use of address terms in interactions. DuFon (2010) claims that address terms are essential in interactions as the way a person addressed shows how the speaker perceives their relationship with the addressee. Inappropriate choice of address terms may result in the addressee avoiding action to cooperate. DuFon maintains that pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic competence are essential as terms of address are complex systems. Terms of address are claimed to be a prominent component in intercultural pragmatics and have become matters of interest in ILP studies (Trosborg, 2010, p. 14). Address terms seem almost ordinary matters, but a speaker needs to pay attention to their influential power in interaction (Ilie, 2010).

Studies on address terms initially began with Brown and Gilman (1960) who claimed that power and solidarity are the essential factors that determine a speaker's choice of a linguistic item to address the interlocutor. The power relationship between the speaker and the addressee results in the use of non-reciprocal address terms. However,

reciprocal address terms are also used when there is no status difference between the speaker and the addressee (Brown & Gilman, 1960, pp. 256-260). Solidarity is a "scale of perceived like-mindedness or similar behaviour disposition. These will ordinarily be such things as political membership, family, religion, profession, sex and birthplace" (Brown & Gilman, 1960, p. 258). Power is the result of the differences between the speaker and the addressee in relation to age, status, knowledge, gender, and other related sociological factors (Brown & Gilman, 1960). In choosing an address term, a speaker should take into consideration his/her relationship with the addressee. The speaker should be able to present him/herself using the address practices appropriate in the context of the interaction. The speaker may reflect his/her stance toward the addressee by showing closeness or distance in the choice of address terms, "polite friendliness and polite formality" (Brown & Levinson, 1987, p. 238).

The use of address terms in intracultural encounters may not cause misunderstanding as the speaker and the addressee share the same cultural backgrounds. However, in intercultural interactions, different values and norms may give rise to the potential for misunderstanding (Bargiela, Boz, Gokzadze, Hamza, Mills, & Rukhadze, 2002). In intercultural interactions, the speaker does not only have to be able to communicate in the language used in the communication, but he also has to have the knowledge to understand and appreciate the addressee's cultural background. Both the speaker and the addressee have to make an adjustment in the use of the address terms that correspond to the norms of the community (Brown & Gilman, 1960). DuFon (2010, p. 309) states that the speaker's knowledge of social power, social distance, and the weight of the imposition determine the choice of an address term from a range of address terms available in the language of the interaction.

ILP studies on the use of address terms have come up with different findings. L2 learners were found to be able to use the same address terms as the L1 speakers when the L1 and L2 had a similar way of using them (Pérez-Sabater & Montero-Fleta, 2014; Hassall, 2013). This may be due to the L1 transfer in the use of address terms (Hassall, 2013; Clyne, 2009). Afful and Mwinlaaru (2012) found that L2 speakers of English used address terms to show deference in educational non-native English environments. Pérez-Sabater and Montero-Fleta (2014) conducted an experiment involving teaching both a powerful and powerless language. The study showed that, after the treatment,

the students were able to acquire strategies implying polite manners that involved address terms and polite forms. The participants employed formal addresses and polite forms effortlessly as these forms were used in a similar way in both the L1 and L2. Since the study did not use naturally occurring data, they stated that the results of real interaction could be diverse as status differences could be greater. Another study by Hassall (2013) investigated how Australian L2 speakers of Indonesian acquired address terms during their sojourn in Indonesia. This study involved twelve Australian undergraduate students of Indonesian. A multi-method approach was used to gather the data. The findings showed that the participants had considerable development in the use of Indonesian kin address terms in vocative positions, probably facilitated by the similar function of English address terms. However, the students only had a slight development in the pronoun slot and used the pronoun *anda* 'you' frequently regardless of the status of the addressee. This seemed to be due to their use of the address terms in the pronoun slots being influenced by their L1, an overgeneralisation of their L2 training, and the difference in the use of address terms in the pronoun slot between the L1 and the L2. This study showed that pragmatic development may occur in a short-study abroad context.

Different from Hassall, Clyne (2009) investigated the change of address modes in email communication in an intercultural context. The data were a sub-corpus of emails involving communication with 16 publishers and journal assistants with various L1 backgrounds, 14 unfamiliar graduate students with different cultural backgrounds, and 17 academic colleagues with different cultural backgrounds. The communication with publishers and journal assistants was in English and the results showed that the three Australians directly used first names (FN). An English woman also directly employed FN due to a pre-existing personal relationship. The use of FN in the interaction did not always modify the use of address terms on the part of the addressee. It was argued that the address Mode Accommodation principle was not applied due to the consideration of threat to both of the interactants. The communication with academic colleagues was conducted in English and the results showed that four of them directly employed FN due to personal relationships and/or professional solidarity. Three others altered the terms of address they used after the use of the T-like mode was initiated. The communication with graduate students showed that the address mode switched to FN and the T-familiarity principle. Others responded using FN, but it was not reciprocated.

The use of address terms in the intercultural interactions was considered to be influenced by the participants' cultural norms which may be mismatched with the mode of address in English. Knowing the mode of address of the interlocutor was important in these intercultural interactions. These studies showed that the use of address terms was related to the social relationship between the speaker and the addressee. The speaker's cultural norms may influence the use of address terms in intercultural interactions.

2.2.5 ILP Studies of Bahasa Indonesia and Heritage Languages of Indonesia

There are a variety of pragmatic features relevant to Indonesia that have been examined. Linguistic politeness used by L2 learners of Indonesian during their sojourn there was explored by DuFon (2000). Hassall conducted several research studies on BI: modifications used by Australian L2 learners of BI (2001b), the expression of *thanks* by Australian L2 learners of Bahasa Indonesia (BI) (2001a), the production of requests by Australian L2 learners of BI (2003), request modifications by Australian learners of Indonesian (2012), and the acquisition of Indonesian address terms by L2 learners of BI when in Indonesia (2013). Indonesian scholars have also undertaken investigations involving BI or Indonesian people. Suprapto (2012) investigated Indonesian L2 speakers of Japanese in using *aizuchi*, short responses in Japanese. Sawir (2003) focused on allo-repetition involving Indonesian, Vietnamese, and Japanese L2 speakers of English and L1 speakers of English. Other scholars examined refusal strategies in English and Indonesian (Nadar, Wijana, Poedjosoedarmo & Djawanai, 2005), response strategies of refusal involving Australian English and BI (Adrefiza & Jones, 2013), refusals by Indonesians from different first language backgrounds such as Indonesian, Javanese, Sundanese, Minangkabaunese, Batakese (Aziz, 2000), the directive strategies in Indonesian employed by Minangkabauness (Manaf, 2005), and the ILP of Javanese learners of English in refusals (Wijayanto, 2013).

Some of these studies focused on BI and/or L2 learners of English. For example, Nadar et al. (2005) examined refusal strategies in English and Indonesian. A corpus of 390 refusals in English and 390 refusals in Bahasa Indonesia was analysed using Brown and Levinson's politeness strategies to determine the number of speech acts used for each refusal. The findings showed that some of the refusal strategies

corresponded to those of Brown and Levinson's. However, they also found that the number of speech acts used was different in the refusals in Indonesian and English. They maintained that English refusals tended to have only one or two speech acts while Indonesian refusals were likely to be three or four combinations of speech acts. Furthermore, they found that Indonesian refusals employed terms of address as markers of group identity and deference that were not available in English refusals. Another research study involving Australian English and Bahasa Indonesia speakers was conducted by Adrefiza and Jones (2013). They investigated response strategies of apology related to situation and gender. Oral discourse completion tasks with three apology situations were used to gather the data that were in the form of 360 recordings of responses. The findings showed that indirectness and mitigation were used in apology responses in the two languages. Furthermore, they did not find any difference between males and females in responding to apologies. Another prominent finding was that the Indonesians were more direct than the Australians in responding to apologies. They claimed that this finding was contrary to the results of previous research. These studies displayed three different tendencies: people from different cultures have different preferences; there was a preference for the indirectness strategy by the Australians; and a preference for the direct strategy by Indonesians.

ILP research embracing heritage languages in Indonesia has been explored as well, even though the amount of the research is relatively small. Aziz (2000) focused his study on refusals by Indonesians. 163 subjects of different first language backgrounds (Indonesian, Javanese, Sundanese, Minangkabaunese, Batakese, etc.) were involved in the research that used three types of DCT to gather the data. The study showed that Indonesians preferred indirect strategies in making refusals. The types of responses were classified into acceptance, refusals, and silence. A request with high ranking imposition would possibly be accepted. This strategy was used to maintain good relationships (harmony) between the co-participants. In a different way, Manaf's (2005) study examined the directive strategies in Indonesian employed by Minangkabaunese. The subjects were Minangkabaunese speaking Indonesians. Besides the subjects' utterances, questionnaires, interviews, observations, and documents were used to gather the data. Brown and Levinson's politeness theory was used to analyse the data. It was revealed that the participants most frequently used on record strategies with redressive action. Different from Azis and Manaf, Wijayanto

(2013) investigated the ILP of Javanese learners of English. He examined strategies of refusal employed by British L1 speakers of English (NSE) and Javanese learners of English (JLE). Discourse completion tasks were used to gather the data from 20 NSE and 50 JLE. As baseline data, 35 L1 speakers of Javanese were also recruited. The data showed that the refusal strategies employed by JLE were influenced by *sopan* and *santun* strategies in Javanese. *Sopan* and *santun* refer to the manners, general etiquette and linguistic etiquette in Javanese culture. These studies on heritage languages in Indonesia showed the preference for indirect strategies, the use of on record strategies with redressive action, and the influence of L1 cultural norms.

Even though these studies address ILP focusing on pragmatic features such as the use of certain speech acts, backchannels, and other-repetitions by English speaking Indonesians, L2 learners of Indonesian, and L1 speakers of heritage languages in Indonesia, none of them focused on the languages, Javanese and Minangkabaunese in ways similar to this research study. Aziz's (2000) research involved different ethnic groups including Javanese, Batakese, and Minangkabaunese, but his instrument was in the form of a discourse completion test (DCT), and he did not analyse and discuss the different strategies used by the different ethnic groups in his study. Moreover, none of the studies above addressed politeness strategies in thesis supervision sessions comparing politeness strategies of English speaking Javanese and English speaking Minangkabaunese in an Australian context. Besides, none of them employed CA procedures in their studies despite the fact that their data were naturally-occurring, such as Manaf's (2005) and DuFon's (2000) studies. Furthermore, this study investigated politeness strategies by examining the pragmatic features used involving backchannels, other-repetitions, overlaps, address terms, and request speech acts.

As discussed above, one of the central issues in the research of ILP is the examination of speech acts. Speech act theory was central to this study because it was used to investigate politeness strategies in which speech acts were the focal element.

2.3 Speech Act Theory

Speech act theory, developed by Austin and published posthumously in 1962, suggested the idea of language as action. Austin perceived that not all statements can be verified by their truth or falsity value. Statements do not merely describe the world,

but they execute particular actions. Austin (1962) acknowledged that when making an utterance, a speaker is actually "doing things with words", that is, language is used to accomplish actions such as requesting, apologising, or refusing. In other words, through the use of language a speaker does something or has something done to him/her. The term *performatives* was employed by Austin to represent linguistic features that show that the action is being executed through an utterance.

According to Austin (1962, p. 108 - 109), when producing an utterance, a speaker constructs three acts (i) the *locutionary act*, the act of uttering (phonemes, morphemes, sentences) and also referring to and saying something about the world; (ii) the *illocutionary act*, the speaker's (S) intention is realised in producing an utterance, e.g. a request, a compliment; and (iii) the *perlocutionary act,* the intended effect of an utterance on the hearer (H), e.g. to make the H do something (Barron, 2003; Bowe & Martin, 2007; Shariati & Chamani, 2010, pp. 102-103). Searle (1969, p. 24) emphasises that these three acts are not disconnected or unrelated but mutually dependent sub-acts of the whole act which are uttered at once. In other words, when a speaker performs an utterance about the world (*locution*), s/he correspondingly executes an act (*illocution*) that is expected to have an impact on the hearer (*perlocution*).

It is the illocutionary act, commonly described as the 'speech act', which is the core of speech act theory (Levinson, 1983, p. 236; Barron, 2003, p. 12). Austin (1962, p. 150) differentiates five general types of speech acts in accordance with their illocutionary force, namely: *verdictives, exercitives, commissives, behavitives*, and *expositives*. A *verdictive* is an act that consists of giving a verdict, e.g. convict, analyse, assess. An *exercitive* is an act of "giving a decision in favour of or against a certain course" (p.155), e.g. name, order, command. A *commissive* is an act by means of which the speaker commits him/herself to a particular course of action, e. g., promise, covenant, declare. A *behavitive* is an act that expresses a reaction or attitude toward people's behaviour, fortunes, or conduct, e.g. apologise, thank, compliment. An *expositive* is an act that expounds views, conducts arguments, and clarifies usages and references. Austin noted that the last two classes are the most problematic because they are very varied and abundant (Austin, 1962, pp. 151 - 161).

Building on Austin's speech act theory, Searle (1969, 1979) put forward five categories of speech acts. According to Barron (2003), Searle's speech act classifications are considered to be general. *Performatives*, which Austin (1962) claimed have no truth value but execute actions and rely on felicity condition, are further developed by Searle and Vanderveken (Vanderveken, 1990, p. 22) into five different categories of speech acts: *assertives, directives, commissives, expressives, and declarations.* An *assertive* is an act by means of which the speaker commits her/himself to the truth of the proposition of the utterance. A *directive* is an act by means of which the speaker makes an effort to get the hearer to do something. A *commissive* is an act by means of which the speaker commits him/herself to a future act. An *expressive* is an act by means of which the speaker expresses his/her psychological attitude towards a state of affairs. A *declaration* is an act that leads to correspondence between the propositional content of the speech act and the reality (Yu, 2011, pp. 12-20).

2.3.1 Directive Speech Acts

Directive is one category of the illocutionary acts proposed by Searle (1979, pp. 13-14). *Directives* are defined as speech acts that are intrinsically face-threatening acts (FTAs) and threaten the negative face of the hearer. It is argued that *directives* challenge the hearer's autonomy because these speech acts are used to stimulate behaviours that the hearer would not have accomplished. However, the threat of *directives* is governed by three factors: power, distance, and rank of imposition. These will shape the kind of politeness strategy a speaker uses in a particular situation (Brown & Levinson, 1978, pp. 70 - 83). *Directives,* as well as the other speech acts, range from the most explicit, direct forms, to the most implicit, indirect forms (Searle, 1979). Direct ways are rarely used because they convey the 'awkward' consequences of control and domination (Searle, 1979). Brown and Levinson (1987) argued that uttering a *directive* intention off record reduces the threat of that directive to the hearer's face wants (the want for autonomy and self-determination) and both the speaker's and the hearer's positive face wants (the desire to have one's social identity respected and upheld). In contrast, Ervin-Tripp's (1976) study showed diverse strategies for uttering *directives* varying from entirely explicit ones such as *imperatives* to completely implicit ones such as *hints*. Directness or indirectness may be provoked by various situational factors (familiarity, rank, territorial location, and so forth).

Similarly, Blum-Kulka's (1990) findings indicated that *hints* are in general not favoured across cultures.

Research on *directives* is significant due to their sensitivity to social issues (Ervin-Tripp, 1976). Searle (1979, p. 36) argues that, of all of the indirect illocutionary acts, *directives* are the most valuable to investigate because standard conversational requirements of politeness typically make it uncomfortable to deliver flat imperative utterances. It is, therefore, necessary to try to get indirect means for our illocutionary ends. In investigating Greek children's preference for the formation of *directive* speech acts, Georgalidou (2008) found that they were quite direct and imposing when they addressed other children. However, conventional politeness markers were employed when the teacher was the addressee. So, they were counteracted by strategies that integrate a degree of indirectness that showed that the children were concerned with the parameters of adult culture. Skewis' (2003) study of *directive* speech acts and politeness in the eighteenth century showed that the overall preference then was direct strategies. The data did not correspond to what is claimed in politeness theory viz. that the use of indirectness increases when the social distance and the power of the addressee increases. Dalton-Puffer (2005) investigated the realization of *directives* in naturalistic classroom discourse in Austria. Her findings showed the extensive use of indirectness and large varieties in the use of *directive* speech acts. She argued the interactive style of the L1 culture should be taken into account as an explicatory factor.

2.3.2 Request Speech Acts

One of the speech acts under the group of directives is a request. Requests were chosen as the focal speech acts in this study because they are frequently used in everyday interactions. In the thesis supervision sessions, the participants cannot take avoidance action to not use requests. In their examination of the language of advising session, Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford (1993, p. 280) found that speech acts that correspond to the student's status are requests for advice, information, and permission. Besides, the occurrence of speech acts in naturally-occurring data is unpredictable. So, choosing speech acts that are frequently employed in communication is a rational approach. Ellis's (1994, p. 168) rationale for why requests frequently become the focus of speech act studies is firstly, requests are face-threatening acts; secondly, the realisation of

requests is clearly recognised; and thirdly, that requests are linguistically different across cultures.

Requests are regarded as directive acts and pre-events that make the first move of the negotiation of face (Johns & Félix-Brasdefer, 2015). According to Searle (1979, p. 13), requests refer to an "attempt by the speaker to get the hearer to do something". The use of requests intrudes into the addressee's territory. Using a request is closely attached to politeness theory as the speaker needs to comply with the hearer and take avoidance action if threatening the hearer's face (Fukusima, 2003). Brown and Levinson (1987) consider that requests are inherently face-threatening acts that threaten the negative face of the addressee, while Leech (1983) considers requests are intrinsically impolite. Brown and Levinson's (1987) model of politeness shows that a request may be linguistically realized using strategies such as on record without redress (direct requests), on record with redress, and off record. They claim that the indirectness level implies the degree of politeness.

The form of a request consists of the head act (the nucleus of the speech act) and the peripheral elements. The head act refers to the one that can operate the act of requesting by itself (Blum-Kulka & Olshtain, 1984). The head acts may be preceded or followed by peripheral elements such as supportive moves (Blum-Kulka, House, & Kasper, 1989a). Based on prior studies of speech acts and politeness theory, Blum-Kulka et al. (1989a) classify the directness level of request head acts into three categories: the most direct, the conventionally indirect level, and the non-conventionally indirect level. These three directness levels were subdivided into nine request strategies used as the basis for their coding scheme in the Cross-Cultural Speech Act Realisation Projects (CCSARP) (Blum-Kulka & Olshtain, 1984). Trosborg (1995) also proposed a similar framework, while Hassal (1999) offered a framework for requests for information. As the realisation of head acts may be naturally face-threatening, supportive moves may be used to lessen the force of the request. Internal and external modifications may be employed to mitigate and aggravate the imposition of the requests. The coding manual of CCSARP also offers a scheme for classifying internal and external modifications that are commonly used in request investigations (Blum-Kulka et al., 1989b). This study used Blum-Kulka et al.'s (1989a) directness levels to classify the requests in this study.

2.3.2.1 (In)directness of Head Acts Used by L1 and L2/FL Speakers

Scholars have focused their studies on comparing L1 and L2 speakers' requestive behaviour by examining the directness level of the head acts used by L2 speakers. They are related to the way L1 speakers construct the head acts and those of the L2 speaker. Some scholars have found that the L2 speakers, or the learners, used different strategies for their production of the head acts. L2 learners and speakers used direct requests (Kasanga, 2006), more direct strategies within a particular situation and bald-on-record strategies (Economidou-Kogetsidis, 2005, 2010), more direct strategies to request for information (Dalton-Puffer, 2005), and preferred more *want statements* than those used by L1 speakers (Hassall, 2003). Economidou-Kogetsidis (2010) addressed L1 and L2 speakers of English requesting behaviours in relation to situational and cultural factors. A written discourse completion test was used to gather the data. The study involved 92 speakers of British English and a hundred L1 speakers of Greek who were L2 speakers of English. A coding scheme based on Blum-Kulka et al's (1989) was developed to analyse the directness level of the requests. The data showed that power, familiarity, and rank of imposition were interrelated with cultural and situational factors. The groups were different in their particular choices within each situation. In a tuition fees situation, Greek L2 speakers of English were more indirect, whereas, in an assignment situation, they were more direct than their counterparts. The choice of directness of the requests seemed to be related to cultural aspects.

In a different context, Dalton-Puffer (2005) investigated the realisation of requests in content-and-language-integrated classrooms (CLIL). The data were six recordings of content lessons in CLIL. Blum-Kulka et al.'s (1989) and Trosborg's (1995) coding schemes were used to analyse the requests. The results showed that the teacher used indirect and modified requests. Students' requests for information were mostly direct, while requests for goods and actions were indirect. The use of the pronoun *we* was frequently used in the interaction. CLIL classrooms provided very limited chances for the students to explore the social components such as power, distance, and imposition. Since the interaction was an Austrian-German environment, the English interaction was considered to be influenced by the cultural values of the L1. These studies showed that the realisations of requests were related to cultural and situational factors that may influence the choice to be direct or indirect. The choice of directness was considered

to be related to the types of request goal. These two ILP studies on request speech acts showed that the context of the situation and the requestive goal may influence the choice of being direct or indirect. The choice of directness was related to the L1 cultural norms.

The directness of the request has also been investigated in relation to the proficiency level of the learners or L2 speakers. Such studies were conducted by Rose (2000, 2009) who found that learners with low proficiency levels mostly relied on direct requests. Owen (2001) showed that higher proficiency learners had almost similar choices as those of the native speakers. Göy, Zeyrek, and Otcu (2012) revealed that the beginner level students used syntactic modifiers in a limited selection that was gradually developed in terms of complexity and frequency at intermediate levels, and Félix-Brasdefer's (2007) results showed that, in all situations, beginners consistently had higher frequencies of direct requests. A similar study was conducted by Li (2014). Li examined the influence of proficiency levels on the production of L2 Chinese requests. This study involved American learners of Chinese of which 15 were in intermediate level, and 16 others were in an advanced level. A computerised oral discourse completion test was employed to gather the data. The findings in terms of request strategies showed that their use displayed non-native like changes gradually. The use of willingness and permission queries increased, but the forms that they used were not those preferred by the L1 speakers. The L1 speakers used the forms in 'friend' scenarios while the learners used the forms in 'professor' scenarios.

Focusing on requests of FL speakers of Greek, Bella's (2012) work was on the developmental patterns of foreign language learners of Greek in employing requests in diverse situations. Her study involved L1 speakers of Greek and FL speakers of Greek, who were from nine different L1 backgrounds. An open DCT was utilised to scrutinise the head acts and modification methods applied by the participants from three different proficiency levels. Retrospective verbal reports were completed to get the information on how the participants perceived the social and cultural aspects of the discourse situation. The results revealed that when the learners' proficiency level increased, the use of directness decreased. The intermediate level frequently used direct requests in imperatives that had been influenced by the complexity of the morphology of the imperatives in Greek, which is considered to be difficult at lower

proficiency levels. In conclusion, learners' proficiency levels were in line with the use of directness to conventional indirectness with both external and internal modification devices.

2.3.2.2. Internal Modifications Used by L1 and L2/FL Speakers

Research on requests reveals differences in the use of internal modifications by L2 learners and speakers compared to those used by L1 speakers. Scholars have found that internal modifications were infrequently used by L2 speakers or learners (Barron, 2003; Hassall, 2001). And further, that learners used fewer syntactic modifications (Faerch & Kasper, 1989), lexical and phrasal modifiers were preferred more than syntactic modifiers, and that tense and aspects were infrequently used (Woodfield, 2012). Compound internal modifiers were infrequently used (Johns & Félix-Brasdefer, 2015; Hassall, 2001b, 2012) and the politeness marker *please* was overused (Faerch & Kasper, 1989; Barron, 2003; Nadar, 1998; Beltrán, 2014). Hassall (2012) investigated the use of request modifiers by Australian learners of Bahasa Indonesia (BI). This study involved 20 L1 speakers of Australian English taking an undergraduate degree in BI at an Australian university. Interactive oral role-play was used to collect the data. The focus was on the modification used in query preparatory, imperatives, and direct requests. The findings for the query preparatory requests showed that the common internal modifiers such as the negator *nggak* (no), and the kin address terms used by L1 speakers of BI, were never used by the Australian learners of BI. The L1 speakers of BI used compound internal modifiers, while the learners never employed them. The reason was that most of the downgraders frequently used in Australian English are not transferable directly into BI. Grounders were the most preferred external modifiers used by both the learners and the L1 speakers of BI. For imperatives, both the L1 speakers and the learners used internal modifiers. They were different as the L1 used *tolong* (please), while the learners used the enclitic *-lah*. For direct questions, the L1s used compound internal modifiers by combining appealers and kin terms, while the learners never used any internal modifiers. Preparators were the preferred external modifiers used by the L1 speakers, while grounders were the learners' favoured external modification.

In a similar study, Beltrán (2014) focused on relating the awareness and production of requests and request modifications to the length of stay abroad. She employed a DCT

and a discourse elicitation test to gather the data from 104 L2 speakers of English. The subjects were from 31 different nationalities. The data showed that length of stay did not influence the participants' pragmatic performance in the use of requests. The politeness marker *please* was most frequently used, instead of the participants' length of stay, while the appealer '*okay*?' was used only once. The subjects' repertoire of internal and external modifiers was developed the longer their length of stay in the L1 environment. Sukamto (2012) examined how Korean learners of Indonesian made requests. A questionnaire with three conditions was used to collect the data. Twenty-five Korean learners of Indonesian and 25 L1 speakers of Indonesian were recruited for the study and were requested to make requests in three social relationship situations including those of hierarchy, deference, and solidarity. The findings showed that the two groups were different in terms of modifying the head acts and using the politeness markers. Sukamto asserted that Korean respondents did not apply *di-* to form the passive and the possessive *–nya* (her/his) as an avoidance of the direct forms of 'you' or 'your' due to their inadequate pragmatic knowledge. Sukamto, thus, argued that learning how Indonesian was used socially in the community was important for Korean learners of Indonesian.

2.3.2.3 External Modifications Used by L1 and L2/FL Speakers

Scholars have revealed interesting findings on the use of external modifications by L2 speakers. Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1986) found that L2 speakers of Hebrew used longer utterance than the native speakers when they used supporting moves. Danish and German learners of English used external modifiers more frequently (Faerch & Kasper, 1989). L2 speakers used grounders as their preferred external modifications (Hassall, 2001b, 2003, 2012; Nadar, 1998; Johns & Félix-Brasdefer, 2015; Li, 2014; Economidou-Kogetsidis, 2012; Woodfield, 2012), and displayed a native-like pattern of development (Schauer, 2007; Li 2014). Economidou-Kogetsidis (2012) focused her study on request modifications used by Greek Cypriot EFL learners of English. The study involved 14 participants who had a low intermediate level of English, and 16 American native English speakers (NS). Open role-plays were used to gather the data. The findings showed that the learners and NS preferred to use the speaker's perspective. The learners used almost no syntactic modifiers and relied on using need and want statements. The learners rarely used lexical and phrasal downgraders. The marker *please* and consultative devices were used infrequently. They preferred

grounders as the external modifiers, and used external modifiers more than internal modifiers. It was argued that the learners preferred using external modifiers because these were considered to be syntactically less complicated than internal modifiers that require a higher level of proficiency to use them.

Another study focusing on request modifiers was conducted by Woodfield (2012). She examined pragmatic development in the use of request modifiers by ESL learners. The study involved eight ESL learners and L1 speakers of British English. Role-play was used to gather the data in formal and informal situations. Retrospective interviews were conducted after the third phase of data collection. The results showed that lexical and phrasal modifiers, particularly downtoners, were preferred more than syntactic modifiers. The learners infrequently used tense and aspect, and their use of these syntactic modifiers did not achieve the level employed by L1. The L1 speakers did not use the marker *please*, and it was used infrequently by the learners due to their awareness of its functions. Grounders giving reasons and explanations were the preferred external modifiers in the learners' requests. However, the occurrence of internal modifiers and the variety of external modifiers used did not reach the level of that of L1 speakers. Nadar (1998) examined requests used by Indonesian learners of English. Discourse completion tasks were utilised to gather the data from 20 Indonesian students. The findings showed that interrogatives were used to request. The participants used different openers in different situations: *I wonder* in the learner-teacher situation (LTS); *can you* and *do you mind* in the learner-learner situation (LLS); and *could you* in all situations. First names were used in LLS, titles or titles and last names were used in LTS. In LTS, the perspective was addressee- and speaker-oriented, while in LLS it was addressee-oriented. *Please* was used in all situations, while *excuse me* was used in LLS though not in LTS. Grounders expressing phrases of diminutives were the only external modifiers used by 40% of the participants. The use of interrogatives, *please*, *excuse me*, *may,* and *grounders expressing phrases of diminutives* showed the preference for a negative politeness strategy. These studies show that the L2 speakers were different in their use of internal modifiers, their frequent use of the polite marker *please* by L2 speakers of English, and by avoiding the use of the direct address pronoun *you*. Grounders seemed to be the preferred external modifier by all.

2.3.2.4 Transfer from L1

Speakers/learners' L1 pragmatic knowledge has been considered to play a role in the use of L2 pragmatic knowledge. This phenomenon of pragmatic transfer in language use often occurs in the language use of L2/FL. Learners/speakers' L1 pragmatic knowledge may affect the way they use or acquire their L2/FL (Beebe,Takahashi & Uliss-Weltz, 1990; Kasper, 1992). Beebe et al. (1990, p. 56) defines pragmatic transfer as 'transfer of L1 sociocultural competence in performing L2 speech acts or any other aspects of L2 conversation, where the speaker is trying to achieve a particular function of language'. Kasper (1992, p. 207) provides a definition of pragmatic transfer as "the influence exerted by learners' pragmatic knowledge of languages and cultures other than L2 on their comprehension, production and learning of L2 pragmatic". All these definitions are related to how leaners/speakers of L2 activate their L1 pragmatic knowledge while using or developing their L2.

Kasper (1992) defined two types of pragmatic transfer involving pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic transfer, as in the following: "Pragmalinguistic transfer shall designate the process whereby the illocutionary force or politeness value assigned to particular linguistic material in L1 influences leaners' perception and production of form-function mappings in L2" (Kasper, 1992, p. 209). Sociopragmatic transfer is considered to be "operative when the social perceptions underlying language users' interpretation and performance of the linguistic action in L2 are influenced by their assessment of subjectively equivalent L1 contexts". (Kasper, 1992, p. 209). In relation to these two pragmatic transfers, Thomas (1983) maintains that these two pragmatic transfers are interconnected. She considers that speakers would assess the sociopragmatic aspects such as the degree of imposition and social relationship before deciding the strategy used to express politeness through their linguistic constructions.

Pragmatic transfer is viewed as influencing the speakers' use of their L2. These influences are categorised as positive and negative pragmatic transfer. Positive pragmatic transfer occurs when L2 speakers use their L1 pragmatic knowledge to L2 context result in L2 speakers' perception and production of language behaviours similar to that of L2 forms. Negative transfer happens when the use of L1 pragmatic knowledge to L2 context lead to L2 speakers' speech behaviours different from that of L2 forms (Maeshiba, Yoshinaga, Kasper & Ross, 1996; Kasper, 1998, p. 194). In other

words, positive transfer facilitates learning or using another language as the speakers/learners' L1 has similar forms to those of L2, while negative transfer is a result of incorrect incorporation of L1 knowledge.

Pragmatic transfer can be examined by using Selinker's (1969) design that requires three sets of data involving data of the learners/speakers' native language (NL), data of the learners/speakers' target language (TL), and data of learners/speakers' interlanguage (IL). Positive transfer takes places when the response frequencies are acquired in IL, NL, and TL. Negative transfer happens when the response frequencies are alike in IL and NL, but they are dissimilar in TL and NL and between TL and IL (Kasper, 1992; Selinker, 1972).

Scholars have investigated pragmatic transfer in IL. Pragmalinguistic transfers can be viewed in the studies of Maeshiba et al., (1996), Beebe et al., (1990), and Blum-Kulka, (1982). Studies on sociopragmatic transfer includes Robinson (1992), Takahashi and Beebe (1993).

Findings of studies on requests have revealed the notion of pragmatic transfer from L1. Even though these studies did not initially aim to discuss language transfer, the results of their studies indicated the occurrence of L1 transfers. L2 speakers have the tendency to transfer the norms in their L1 when communicating in their L2. L1 cultural norms transfer are one of the issues that influence the L2 speakers' requests (Ali & Alawneh, 2010). Learners may be simply carrying over into English, structures from their L1 (Kasanga, 1998). In their study of Japanese ESL learners' use of indirect requests, Takahashi and DuFon (1989) found that the learners used direct strategies because they transferred the L1 request strategy that was direct, where it is polite in the L1 because it has honorific verbs that do not have English equivalents.

Ali and Alawneh (2010) examined mitigation devices in the production of requests by Jordanian learners of English compared to L1 speakers of American English. This study involved 90 undergraduate students from Jordanian and American universities. In terms of L1 cultural norms transfer, they revealed that there was a strong effect of Arabic language in the production of the learners' requests. This was shown from the use of the attention getter *afwan* (excuse me) and *marhaba* (hello) that were used to

initiate requests in English. They also used closing devises such as gratitude, well-wishing, generosity and obligation that were adopted from the Arabic socio-cultural norms. In his 2003 study, Hassall examined how Australian learners of BI used requests in everyday situations compared to L1 speakers of BI. The data were gathered using interactive role-plays. In terms of transfer, the findings revealed that the learners infrequently employed imperatives, especially elided imperatives. The reason for the infrequent use of imperatives was that L1 speakers of Australian English prefer not to make a request using imperatives. It seemed that the learners took avoidance action instead of using imperatives. So, there was positive pragmatic transfer from the learners' L1.

2.3.3 Recent Studies on Requests across Cultures

Recent studies have investigated requests produced by L1 speakers and L2 speakers. Some of these involved L1 speakers of the inner circle of Englishes while other focussed on languages other than English. Request studies in the inner circle of Englishes involved the comparison of speakers of Irish English and English English (Barron, 2008), British English and Australian English (Merrison, Wilson, Davies, & Haugh, 2012), and British English (Zinken, 2015; Economidou-Kogetsidis, 2013). Economidou-Kogetsidis (2013) examined British English native speakers' request strategies using different data collection methods. The participants in studies using naturally occurring data were 100 telephone callers who were native speakers of British English, while the participants for a written discourse completion task (WDCT) were 86 British English native speakers who were UK university students. The findings showed that conventional indirect strategies were used more in natural requests than those doing the WDCT. The callers mainly used the query preparatory. The natural data also showed that a greater number of strong hints were used particularly to ask for information than those using the WDCT. The callers in natural interaction felt that it was necessary for them to be polite. The natural data also showed a greater variety of syntactic markers and a mixture of syntactic downgraders. *Please* was frequently used in the WDCT data, while the downtoner *just* was preferred in the natural data. The natural data showed a preference for using the hearer's perspective while the speaker's perspective was employed a greater number of times in the WDCT data.

Merrison et al. (2012) compared the e-mail requests from undergraduate students to academic staff in Britain and Australia. The corpus was 190 e-mails consisting of 264 requests for action, information, and affirmation. The results showed that the preferred strategy was conventional indirect requests. The British students viewed their relationship with the academics in an institutional hierarchy that was expressed in their use of professional titles. They humbled themselves and ennobled the academic faculty. The also constructed their role as students who could not effectively direct themselves. The Australian students perceived the relationship as social peers showing that Australians are more egalitarian and this was expressed in the use of geniality such as closeness, well-wishing, and seeking personal common ground. They constructed their identity as professionals, inside or outside the institutional context.

Barron (2008) focused her study on requests used in Irish English and English English. She examined the head acts as well as the internal and external modifiers. Twenty-seven Irish English and 27 English English speakers were involved in her study. A DCT was utilised to gather the data. The coding scheme from CCSARP (Blum-Kulka et al., 1989) was used to classify the data. The results showed that variability in the use of head acts was not found in both Irish English and English English. Both groups preferred query preparatory strategies, even though there were differences in the choice of lexical items. The Irish English were found to be more indirect and used more syntactic mitigators than the English English. It was found that both groups preferred to use the politeness marker *please*. Grounders were the preferred external modifiers used. The English English used pre-grounder mitigators extensively to soften the force of their requests. The Irish English seemed to be more indirect in the head acts than the English English. But, the English English extensively employed external modifiers in their requests. These studies showed that the L1 speakers of English prefer the conventionally indirect strategies, a greater variety of syntactic markers, a mixture of syntactic downgraders, and used grounders as their preferred external modifiers.

Recent studies of L1 requests in languages other than English address how L1 speakers produce requests in their own language. Such studies involved languages, such as Polish (Ogiermann, 2015), Greek (Georgalidou, 2008), Japanese (Takada & Endo, 2015), Burmese (Rattanapitak, 2013), Korean (Rue, Zhang, & Shin, 2007),

Mandarin Chinese and Korean (Rue & Zhang, 2008), Minangkabaunese, a heritage language of Indonesia (Revita, Wijana, & Poedjosoedarmo, 2007), Cantonese and English (Lee, 2005), British English and Mandarin Chinese (Xiuping, 2012). Revita et al. (2007) investigated requests by L1 speakers of Minangkabaunese. The utterances of the Minangkabaunese were recorded or noted and the data were classified based on their functions and situations. The results showed that the indirect strategies were frequently used to make requests. Direct strategies were also employed to make requests when the interlocutors were younger and had the same status as the speaker or were of lower status than the speakers.

Georgalidou (2008) investigated Greek children's preference for the formation of *directive* speech acts. She found that Greek children were quite direct and imposing when they addressed the other children. However, conventional politeness markers were employed when the teacher was the addressee. So, they were counteracted by strategies that integrate a degree of indirectness that showed that the children were concerned with the parameters of adult culture. Ogiermann (2015) focused on indirectness/directness in Polish children's requests. The data were 24 self-video recordings made by Polish families. Data that were analysed using CA concepts consisted of 156 requests for objects. The focus was children's strategies during mealtimes. The findings showed that the children used different kinds of request forms of which 26 were categorised as direct in politeness terms. They were: 'want statements', imperatives, simple performatives, simple interrogatives, interrogatives with modal verbs, and hints. The 'want statements' were used when the child showed their interest in the food offered. They were mostly produced by younger children while the older children used conventionally indirect requests with modal verbs and hedged performatives. The hints were employed by the children when the required object was not available. The use of conventionally indirect requests was not for face-saving purposes but exhibited good manners. These three studies on requests in languages other than English show that L1 speakers preferred query preparatory strategies to requests for actions and direct questions in requests for information, young children used direct strategies, while older children preferred conventional indirect strategies.

Research on requests produced by L2 speakers have commonly addressed the L2 production of requests in comparison to those produced by the L1 speakers. For example, Nguyen and Basturkmen (2013) investigated request strategies by L2 speakers of Vietnamese using role-plays, Jalilifar (2009) examined request strategies of Iranian learners of English and L1 speakers of Australian English, Hassall (2012) investigated request strategies by Australian learners of Bahasa Indonesia, Chen (2015) taught e-mail requests to Chinese students of English, Lin (2009) compared the use of query preparatory modals in conventionally indirect requests of L1 Chinese speakers and Chinese L2 speakers of English, Lee (2011) examined request strategies of Cantonese learners of English, while Rahman and Zuhair (2015) investigated request mitigators produced by Omani learners of English and L1 speakers of English collected using a DCT. A study involving Malay L2 speakers of English was conducted by Khalib and Tayeh (2014). They investigated indirectness in English requests of Malay university students. This study involved 40 graduate and postgraduate students from two institutions. A DCT was employed to gather the data. The findings showed that conventionally indirect strategies were the preferred strategies in any situation, and non-conventionally indirect ones were never employed by the participants. The use of conventional indirects may be influenced by the typical way of requesting in Malay that starts with the phrase *boleh tak* (may I). Thus, there was a direct translation in the way of requesting from Malay to English.

Requests of Senegalese speakers of French were the attention of Johns and Félix-Brasdefer's (2015) study. They examined the production of requests among Senegalese speakers of French in Dakar. This study involved 20 university students in Dakar and 20 adult French speakers from some universities in France. An oral DCT was used to gather the French-French requests and a written DCT was employed to collect the data from the Senegalese French speakers. The investigation was concerned with the head acts and the internal modification of requests. The findings showed that both groups preferred using conventional indirect strategies. In the internal modifiers, it was revealed that the French-French group preferred conditional ones, and used two or more internal modifiers, while the Senegalese group preferred the polite marker *please* and infrequently used two or more internal modifiers. Both groups modified their requests in hierarchical relationship to express distance and respect. However, the French-French group employed internal modifiers in the majority of their requests.

Besides, they used T/V with clear distinction, while the Senegalese group used both T and V in the solidarity politeness scenario.

Those studies on requests speech acts above have been operationalized with different variables: (i) inner circle Englishes, (ii) L1 or L2 speakers (iii) linguistic construction to reveal (in)directness and mitigators, (iv) the instrument used to gather the data, (v) the social status of participants, and (vi) the context. These studies provide insights concerning (i) the role of cultural values/backgrounds (ii) the varieties of linguistic devices used, (iii) the occurrence of pragmatic transfer, (iv) the relationship between proficiency levels and (in)directness, and (v) the relationship between the instrument/s used and the findings. Besides, of the studies above, most of them employed DCT, some used role-play, a very small number used both role-play and naturally-occurring data. None of the studies above addressed pragmatic features in the same data to reveal the politeness strategies used in intercultural interactions in an Australian context involving two ethnic groups from Indonesia, Javanese and Minangkabaunese.

The present study examined request speech acts in thesis supervision sessions which is one type of institutional encounter that is mandatory in higher degree research students' academic life. In this case, the supervision sessions were not designed for observation; they were authentic settings. Thus, the supervision sessions conducted in Javanese, Minangkabaunese, and in English were able to be observed to investigate how the speakers engaged in communication in an authentic academic setting to examine the politeness strategies employed by them. Request speech acts became the focal interest of this study because requests frequently characterise the communication occurring in thesis supervision sessions. Other studies on requests in thesis supervision sessions have not yet been conducted. However, there has been a similar study focusing on directives and commissives (suggestions and rejections) in advising sessions undertaken by Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford (1993). Their study examined the acquisition of pragmatic competence of advanced adult L2 speakers of English in the use of suggestions and rejections in advising sessions. The data of L2 speakers of English were taken by taping natural interaction in advising sessions and comparing them to those produced by L1 speakers of English. The subjects of the study involved six language backgrounds: Arabic (1), Catalan/Spanish bilingual (1), Chinese (2), Indonesian (1), Korean (4), and Japanese (1). The focus was to investigate   the

pragmatic competence change of graduate students who were L2 speakers of English. There was no comparison made between the subjects' language background and the subjects' L2 production to examine their politeness strategies. The present study examined pragmatic features involving backchannels, other-repetitions, overlaps, address terms, and request speech acts. These pragmatic features were examined to reveal the politeness strategies not only in English as a foreign language, but also in Javanese and Minangkabaunese as the L1. So, this study not only scrutinised the politeness strategies in the interaction in Javanese and Minangkabaunese, but also in their English production when they communicated in English with their supervisors who were L1 speakers of English in supervision sessions.

As discussed in the previous paragraph, speech acts are usually at the heart of any politeness research. This study concentrates on request speech acts and other pragmatic features and investigates the politeness strategies used in intercultural communication. Politeness theory was utilised to examine the data of this study and is described in Section 2.5.

2.4 Perspectives on Politeness Theory

Theoretical studies on politeness have been classified into four views: the conversational-maxim view, the face-saving view, the social-norm view, and the conversational-contract view. Politeness language behaviour was initially formalised into a theory from the conversational-maxim view. It has been built on Grice's (1975) perspective on politeness and Leech's (1983) politeness principles. The conversational-maxim view perceives politeness phenomena as universal practices or conventions. The face-saving view is based on the politeness theory proposed by Brown and Levinson (1978) which has been the focal framework in politeness research for decades. This view maintains that face should be maintained in any interaction as acts that are actualised in the use of speech acts can be face-threatening acts. The social-norm view presumes that politeness is shown by a higher degree of formality. The conversational-contract view assumes that there are rights and obligations of the interlocutors involved in an interaction. Each of these perspectives is discussed to provide the theoretical background of politeness in this study.

2.4.1 Conversational-Maxim View

The conversational-maxim perspective is mainly based on the Cooperative Principle (hereafter, CP) of Grice (Fraser, 1990, p. 222). Within linguistic pragmatics, the CP has become the most significant contributor to the study of politeness phenomena. CP was introduced by Grice (1975) with the intention of clarifying how interactants obtain meaning from what is uttered. Grice (1975) suggested that an utterance produced by speakers can imply more than is said. He (Grice, [1975] 2009) suggested that conversationalists should obey the general principle underlying the efficiency of cooperative conversation namely: "make your conversational contribution such as is required, at the stage at which it occurs, by the accepted purpose or direction of the talk exchange in which you are engaged." (p. 45). Grice (1975, pp. 45-47) proposed four maxims: Quantity, Quality, Relation, and Manner. The four maxims, of which three of them are complemented by sub-maxims, are as follows:

1. Maxim of Quantity

    (1) Make your contribution as informative as required (for the current

    purpose of the exchange).

    (2) Do not make your contribution more informative than is required.

2. Maxim of Quality

    Supermaxim: "Try to make your contribution one that is true."

    (1) Do not say what you believe to be false.

    (2) Do not say that for which you lack adequate evidence.

3. Maxim of Relation

    (1) Be relevant.

4. Maxim of Manner

    Supermaxim: "Be perspicuous"

    (1) Avoid obscurity of expression.

    (2) Avoid ambiguity.

    (3) Be brief (avoid unnecessary prolixity).

    (4) Be orderly.

These conversational maxims of CP provide directions and constraints on how interactants employ their language in conversational practice. The interactants are expected to communicate in a way that is adequately informative, true, relevant, and clear when they are involved in a cooperative interaction. Grice ([1975] 2009, p. 23) suggests that the adherence to CP and its maxims is rational. However, speakers may violate one or more of the maxims in a conversation or communicative event. Flouting one of the maxims results in the need for the addressee to implicate what is uttered. In these conversational maxims, the politeness maxim is not included. On the other hand, Grice suggests that CP may be supplemented by further maxims: "There are, of course, all sorts of other maxims (aesthetic, social, or moral in character), such as 'Be polite', that are also normally observed by participants in talk exchanges, and this may also generate nonconventional implicatures." (p. 22).

There have been some issues dealing with the application of Grice's maxims. First, there is possibility that the maxims are overlapping. Thomas (1995, p. 91) maintains that it is generally challenging to make distinction between the maxims, e.g. maxim of Manner and maxim of Quantity. The other issue is conversational implicature as a single utterance may be perceived differently by different interlocutors and possibly have some different implicatures.

Grice's CP and his conversational implicatures in social interaction have been evaluated and found to have potential weaknesses. How the addressee can create the appropriate implicature and whether the implicature obtained is correct or not is regarded as a problem. And, what happens if the implicature derived is not what is meant by the speaker? The issue of misinterpretation of the speaker's intended meaning is neglected in CP (Watts, 2003, pp. 206-208). While CP may be valid for Western or Euro/Anglocentric cultures, the maxims are not necessarily applicable in different cultural settings (Watts, 2003, p. 208; Bowe & Martin, 2007, p. 12). Furthermore, the four maxims are considered to be imprecise, and intersecting (Thomas, 1995, p. 168 cited in Leech, 2007, p. 172). Of the four maxims, the third maxim is considered to be the most culturally dependent (Clyne, 1994, p. 193 cited in Bowe & Martin, 2007, p. 14). The universality of the maxims has been called into question. Hymes (1986) maintained that the maxims are generally applicable to overall behaviour, not necessarily verbal communication.

Lakoff (1973, cited in Watts, 2003; Fraser, 1990) took up Grice's suggestion concerning the necessity of the politeness maxim. She proposed pragmatic rules to supplement syntactic and semantic rules and to complement the set of 'rules of politeness' of Grice's CP (Watts, 2003, 59). 'Be polite' is a superordinate maxim that, it has been suggested, can be added to Grice's CP. Two main rules of politeness suggested by Lakoff, are: (i) be clear, and (ii) be polite. The first rule of politeness which she entitles the 'rule of conversation' corresponds to Grice's CP (Fraser, 1990; Terkourafi, 2005). The second rule consists of three sub-rules that explicate the idea of 'be polite'. Rule 1 is 'Don't impose' which is used when there is a need for formal/impersonal politeness. Rule 2 is 'Give options' which is used when there is a need for informal politeness. Rule 3 is 'Make A feel good' which is used when there is a need for intimate politeness. These three maxims of politeness (Terkourafi, 2005, 239) are focused on making the addressee 'feel good'. The applicability of the three rules of politeness is determined by the kind of politeness situation as comprehended by the interlocutors (Fraser, 1990, 224).

The rules concerning conversation and politeness suggested by Lakoff (1990) have made a considerable contribution to the development of politeness research (Song, 2012). However, Lakoff's (1973) description of politeness and its rules are not considered to be universally accepted. Lakoff does not provide a definition of politeness (Fraser, 1990). According to Sifianou (1992), a few rules cannot adequately encompass the idea of politeness that is too far-reaching and too complex (Sifianou, 1992). In addition, the rules offered are not based on a comprehensive and detailed investigation of the way a particular group recognises the idea of politeness (Song, 2012, p. 22).

Grounded in Grice (1975) and Lakoff (1973), Leech (1983, p. 10) developed a model called 'general pragmatics' that is conceptualized as "the general condition of the communicative use of language". Leech assumes that general pragmatics is 'rhetorical' (Watts, 2003, pp. 63-64). He postulates two approaches of rhetoric: Interpersonal Rhetoric and Textual Rhetoric. Each of the approaches involves a set of maxims that socially control conversational interaction in certain conditions (Watts, 2003, pp. 63-64; Fraser, 1990, 224). It is in the area of Interpersonal Rhetoric that politeness is discussed.

Interpersonal Rhetoric comprises three sets of maxims: the Cooperative Principle (Grice's CP), the Politeness Principle (PP), and the Irony Principle (IP) (Watts, 2003, p. 64; Fraser, 1990, p. 224). In this domain, the inclusion of Grice's CP together with the PP is regarded as a 'more elaborate scheme' (Terkourafi, 2005, p. 239) and is seen as "a grand elaboration of Conversational Maxim approach to politeness" by Fraser (1990, p. 224). As Watts (2003, p. 64) states, "the 'grandness' of its measurement certainly fits it as a method of describing and interpreting utterances."

The CP and its related maxims are utilised to describe by what means the interpretation of an utterance is made to communicate indirect messages, and the PP and its connected maxims are employed to make clear the reasons for employing such indirectness (Fraser, 1990, p. 224). In supplementing CP with PP, Leech (1983) argues that CP alone fails to provide the interpretation of conversational data, where PP makes it available (Watts, 2003, p. 65). Despite this, CP and PP do not function in separation. Leech (1983) maintains "they often create a tension within a speaker who must determine, for a given speech context, what message to convey and how to convey it" (Fraser, 1990, p. 225).

The principles of Leech's (1983, p. 132) PP are minimising the expression of 'impolite beliefs' and maximising the expression of 'polite beliefs'. PP contains six maxims; they are Tact, Generosity, Approbation, Modesty, Agreement, and Sympathy. The Tact Maxim includes minimising cost and maximising benefit to others, which is relevant to impositives and commissives. The Generosity Maxim comprises minimising benefits to self and maximising costs to self, which is only applicable to impositives and commissives. The Approbation Maxim comprises minimising dispraise and maximising praise to others, which is only applicable to expressives and assertives. The Modesty Maxim comprises minimising praise of self and maximising praise of others, which is only relevant to expressives and assertives. The Agreement Maxim comprises minimising disagreement between self and others and maximising agreement between self and others, which is only applicable to assertives. The Sympathy Maxim comprises minimising antipathy between self and others and maximising sympathy between self and others, which is only relevant to assertives (Fraser, 1990, p. 225; Song, 2012, pp. 22-23; Watts, 2003, pp. 66-67). These six maxims point toward 'strategic conflict avoidance' (Locher & Watts, 2005, p. 14).

The operation of each of the maxims of PP is complemented with a set of scales:

(i)   The Cost-Benefit Scale represents the cost or benefit of an act to the speaker and hearer.

(ii)   The Optionality Scale represents the relevant illocutions, ordered by the amount of choice that the speaker permits the hearer.

(iii)   The Indirectness Scale represents the relevant illocutions, ordered in terms of hearer 'work' to infer speaker intention.

(iv)   The Authority Scale represents the relative right for the speaker to impose wishes on the hearer.

(v)   The Social Distance Scale represents how familiar the speaker is to the hearer.

(Leech, 1983, p. 123).

Leech (1983) maintains that the weightiness of these maxims is different in diverse cultures, which provides an explanation for cross-cultural variations in politeness rules.

Leech (1983) differentiates 'relative politeness' from 'absolute politeness'. Relative politeness involves linguistic acts determined by the context while absolute politeness represents politeness as a scale related to the actions of individual speakers (Fraser, 1990; Gu, 1990). The scale ranges from a 'negative' and a 'positive' politeness. In negative politeness, the impoliteness of impolite illocutions is minimised; the politeness of polite illocutions is maximised in positive politeness (Fraser, 1990; Gu, 1990; Watts, 2003). This implies that particular illocutions are inherently impolite, and others are inherently polite (Fraser, 1990, p. 226; Watts, 2003, p. 69).

Leech's model of politeness has been criticised for its weaknesses. In his model of politeness, linguistic politeness is taken into account from the perspective of speech acts in which some seem to be inherently polite or impolite. In opposition, it is argued

that politeness should be evaluated using the context of the linguistic structures that can't be recognised as being inherently polite or impolite (Watts, 2003). Furthermore, the politeness maxims are not applicable to all contexts of speech interaction, or in all cultures (Spencer-Oatey, 2005, p. 97).

The conversational maxims initiated by Grice (1975) and expanded by Lakoff (1973) and Leech (1983) offer regulations to account for linguistics politeness. Grice's conversational implicature is very valuable in his model. Lakoff's 'Be polite' is to explicate how polite language is employed and interpreted, and it is separated from how language is used in everyday life. Leech provides in-depth analysis of the maxims presented in his PP. The frameworks proposed by Lakoff and Leech encounter problems in their applications in an interaction. However, their works have greatly contributed to the literature of politeness research as they have led to a way to theoretically scrutinise speech acts in regard to politeness.

2.4.2 The Social Norm View

The social norm view recognises politeness is culturally constructed (Watts, 2003, p. 71). According to Fraser (1990, p. 220) "the social norm view of politeness assumes that each society has a particular set of social norms consisting of more or less explicit rules that prescribe a certain behaviour, a state of affairs, or a way of thinking in a context." This normative view presumes that every society preserves its social norms for numerous situations and examines politeness from the perspective of the primary social norms in a culture (Blum-Kulka, 1990). This view believes that politeness activities require social sanctions and social accords as politeness rules are regulated by culture (Song, 2012, p. 39). Thus, politeness takes place when the behaviour is in conformity with the norm, and impoliteness happens when the behaviour is in reverse. In other words, every society has its own norms that prescribe what the standard behaviour is, and what are the linguistic constructions or expressions that are valued as polite or impolite in the society. In addition, politeness is historically regarded to be related to speech style by which greater politeness is indicated in a greater intensity of formality (Fraser, 1990, pp. 220 – 221). Fraser notes that there are quite a few scholars who use the social norm view as the platform for their politeness investigations.

2.4.3 Conversational-Contract View

Fraser and Nolen (1981) view politeness from the perspective of a Conversational Contract (Song, 2012, p. 44; Félix-Brasdefer, 2008, p. 35). Politeness is viewed as an integral part of an interaction. Fraser (1990) considers that politeness comprises the interlocutors' tacit comprehension of the conventions that govern the social interaction between interactive interlocutors (Félix-Brasdefer, 2008). This view is not speech-act based, but discourse-based. Fraser and Nolan (1981) propose the 'conversation contract' for both the speaker and addressee to implement their rights and obligations to one another. Conversation is regarded as involving a set of rights and obligations expected by the interlocutors. The rights and obligations brought by the interlocutors into the conversation vary. The situation and awareness of the situation of the conversation determine the interlocutors' rights and obligations. These rights and obligations guide the interlocutors in the way to act appropriately and the kinds of things to be expected in the course of the conversation (Felix-Brasdefer, 2008, p. 35).

The conversational contract views politeness as standard practices that are supposed to be present in any interaction. The speaker who does not follow the negotiated constraints is perceived to be impolite and violating the conversational contract (Fraser, 1990, p. 233). There are two kinds of terms in the conversational contract involving general terms and specific terms. General terms refer to those that are applicable to all ordinary conversations. These terms are commonly not negotiated as they are of a general nature that is the precondition for a conversation. The second kind of terms are determined by the particular situation in the interaction such as the role in the relationship of the participants in the interaction. These specific terms are negotiable. The contract in these particular terms should include the speech acts of which the choice and the content is constrained by the relationship of the participants. When the interaction occurs beyond the expectation "there is always the possibility for a renegotiation of the conversation contract. The two parties may readjust what rights and what obligations they hold towards each other" (Fraser, 1990, p. 232). Renegotiation is possible as the participants' rights and obligations may change due to a change in the context. In this case, it is essential to renegotiate the participants' rights and obligations (Fraser, 1990).

2.4.4 Face-Saving View

The face-saving theory of politeness originated from Goffman's (1967) concept of face. Lo and Howard (2009, P. 212) note that Goffman (1967/1955) claimed that social actors regularly participate in defending and protecting their own and others' face. Face is defined as "an image of self - delineated in terms of approved social attributes" (Goffman, 2003, p.7). Rooted in Goffman's concept of face, Brown and Levinson (1978) developed politeness theory which purports to be a universal model of linguistic politeness and maintained that politeness is accomplished linguistically using diverse strategies across cultures (Félix-Brasdefer, 2008, p. 17). They defined face as "an individual public self-image that every member wants to claim for himself." (Brown & Levinson, 1987, p. 61). When a speaker performs an act that potentially challenges her/his face, s/he will soften the imposition by employing politeness strategies (p.59 – 60). The principal contribution of Brown and Levinson's theory is their effort to associate politeness with the notion of face in social encounters. The notion of face is "the major conceptual backbone of the theory" (Locher & Watts, 2005, p. 9).

It is expected that face is constantly preserved and any danger to face should be observed during the course of interaction since face can be "lost, maintained, or enhanced, and must be attended to in interaction…" (Brown & Levinson, 1987, p. 61). Maintaining face means to represent an image that a speaker wishes the hearer to perceive. It is the task of the participants in communicative events to keep and care for each other's face (Bell, Arnold, & Haddock, 2009). However, according to Brown and Levinson (1987, p. 24) "some acts are intrinsically threatening to face and thus require 'softening'". Acts that are inherently face-threatening are those acts that by their features operate in opposition to the face wants of the interactants in the interaction (p. 65). Thus, speakers need to develop politeness strategies as a form of self-defence and to maintain their face from an interaction that is face-threatening.

Brown and Levinson's (1978) model of politeness is organised around three central concepts: face, face-threatening acts (FTAs), and politeness strategies. Face consists of two specific kinds of wants. Positive face is "the positive consistent self-image or 'personality' (crucially including the desire that this self-image be appreciated and approved of) claimed by interactants" (Brown & Levinson, 1987, p.61). Negative face

is "the basic claim to territories, personal preserves, rights to non-distraction – that is, to freedom of action and freedom from imposition" (Brown & Levinson, 1987, p.61). The notion of face and the social need to position oneself in the interaction are claimed to be universal. In addition, people are commonly cooperative in preserving their face in communication that is based on the mutual vulnerability of face. Thus, every interactant's face is dependent on every other interactant's face in the interaction. So, it is in every interactant's best interest to preserve each other's face (Brown & Levinson, 1987, pp. 61- 62).

Some communicative acts can put at risk the hearer's positive face, the hearer's negative face, or both. Illocutionary acts that are likely to threaten the face of the interlocutors in the communication are called face-threatening acts (FTA). FTAs have two variables: threats to the speaker's face or the addressee's and the kinds of face threatened (Behnam & Niroomand, 2011; Brown & Levinson, 1978).

Brown and Levinson (1978, 1987) propose five strategies that can be employed by a speaker to evade and lessen the results of carrying out FTAs. They claim that all rational humans will try to find ways to prevent themselves from producing the FTAs, or will utilise a particular strategy to lessen the threat. In performing FTAs, a speaker can employ *on record* direct strategies or *off record* indirect strategies. The first *on record* strategy includes performing the FTAs *baldly* or without redress. This strategy, which offers no attempt to minimise the face-losing threat, is considered to be the most direct, the most explicit, and the briefest way to get something accomplished, such as 'Do X' (pp. 60 – 70).

The other two *on record* strategies involve redressive actions. Redressive action refers to an action that "gives face" to the hearer, that means that the speaker makes an effort to anticipate any possible harm from FTAs by adjusting their behaviour (pp. 69 - 70). The second is to carry out FTAs with redressive action addressed to the hearer's positive face (positive politeness) and the positive self-image claimed by the hearer. The threat of the FTA is minimised due to the assurance that the speaker wants to attend to at least some of the hearer's wants (p. 70).

The third is to do FTAs with redressive action meant for the hearer's negative face

(negative politeness). This strategy, which is avoidance-based, is realised in the assurance that the speaker knows and appreciates the hearer's negative-face wants and his self-determination of action will not be interfered with. Therefore, this strategy is typified by, among others, humility, "formality and restraint" (Brown & Levinson, 1978. p. 70).

The fourth strategy is to perform *off record* FTAs. This strategy only provides a hint without any explicit expression of the speaker's intention. The realisation of this strategy is linguistically expressed in terms of metaphor and irony, rhetorical questions, understatement, tautologies, and all kinds of hints.

The fifth is to avoid performing FTAs by not doing them (Brown & Levinson, 1987, pp. 69-70;Dunn, 2011; Meier, 1995, p. 1863; Yu, 2003).

Face loss   1. without redressive action, baldly

                        on record   2. positive politeness

    Do the FTA   with redressive action

                4. off record   3. negative politeness

        5. Don't do the FTA
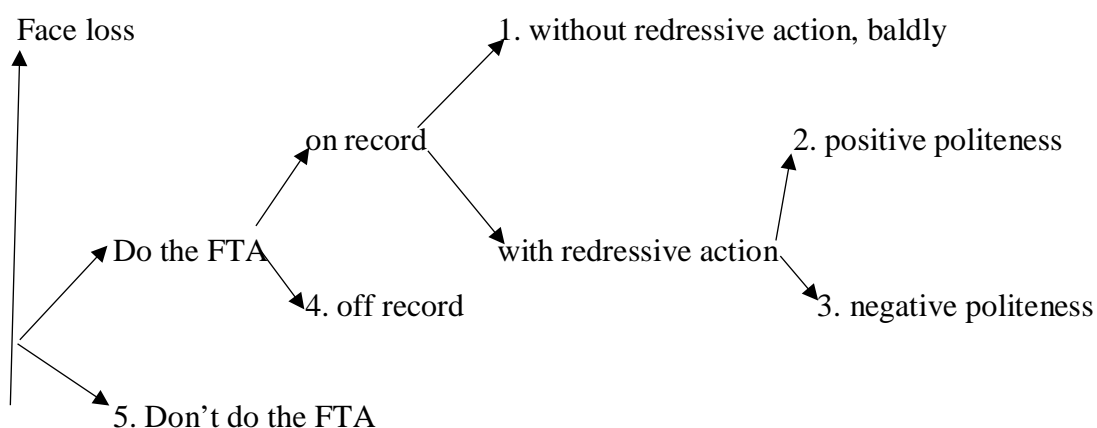
                                        (Brown & Levinson, 1987, p. 69)

Figure 2 Strategies for doing FTAs

Brown and Levinson (1978, 1987) also developed a model of how polite utterances are constructed in diverse contexts based on the consideration of the seriousness of an FTA. This involves three different relationships between the speaker (S) and the hearer (H). They are

   (i)   the 'social distance' (D) of S and H (a symmetric relationship)
   (ii)   the relative 'power' (P) of S and H (an asymmetric relationship)
   (iii)   the absolute ranking (R) of the imposition in a particular culture.

                                        (Brown & Levinson, 1987, p. 74)

P, D, and R are viewed as abstract social features where P and D are index types of a social relationship and R symbolises values in the culture and descriptions of impositions or threats to face. It is necessary to take these three variables into account when a speaker performs an FTA. The speaker's weightiness of FTAs influences the strategy s/he utilises (Behnam & Niroomand, 2011, p. 205). Dalton-Puffer (2005) notes that Brown and Levinson (1978, 1987) state that the amount of politeness and the type of politeness strategy to be employed by the speaker rely on 'weightiness' which is determined by the speaker according to these three social variables: Distance, Power, and Rank of imposition. It is argued that P, D, and R are adequate to predict politeness assessments. Brown and Levinson (1987) maintain that a speaker must rationally measure the nature of the FTA. The weightiness of an FTA is the sum of the distance between the interlocutors, the relative power between the interlocutors and the imposition of the act. This can be computed on a summative basis using the formula $Wx = D(S, H) + P(H, S) + Rx$.

Brown and Levinson's theory has motivated numerous researchers to investigate the notion of the universality of politeness and the degree of cross-linguistic and cross-cultural discrepancies in speaking practices. For instance, Blum-Kulka, House, and Kasper (1989) conducted research to determine the realisation patterns of two speech acts, namely apologising and requesting, in several different languages involving the inner circles of English (British, Australian and American), Canadian French, Danish, German, Hebrew and Russian. It was named the Cross-Cultural Speech Act Realisation Project (CCSARP) and the results were published in 1989. Discourse completion tasks were employed to collect the data from 400 participants for each language. The aim was to examine the realisation of requests and apologies in terms of directness and indirectness used by the L1 speakers of those different languages. The study showed that the observed data validated the phenomena portrayed by the dimension of cultural variability that might be considered as potential candidates for the issue of universality. Despite this, the distribution of realisation patterns which resulted from the cross-linguistic comparative analysis showed rich cross-cultural variability.

Arguments concerning the role of social factors in politeness strategies have been advanced by many scholars. Benham and Niroomand (2011), for example, found that

the politeness strategies used to communicate disagreement by Iranian learners were strongly affected by the power status of people. Another study on politeness in an educational setting was conducted by Bell et al. (2009). This study examined the way tutors utilised politeness strategies to shift from their co-operative role as a peer to their authoritative role as tutors. In the beginning, the tutors relied more on negative politeness. However, after six months, they used more positive politeness than negative politeness that showed the relationship developed over time. Morgan (2010) examined indirectness in an African American speech community. This study found that indirectness showing equal and unequal social relationships was a usual and inevitable strategy in constructing meaning in everyday interactions. King (2011) addressed business language in the Spanish of Colonial Louisiana. The results revealed that requests via direct strategies were chosen by those who were in the positions of superior power, while indirect strategies were heavily used by their subordinates. These four studies and many others indicate that there is a correlation between social indices and politeness strategies.

To conclude, Brown and Levinson's politeness theory is primarily concerned with politeness strategies to maintain face. The notion of face in their theory of politeness, which is considered to be universal, is based more on the person's view, and is different from that of Goffman's public face. Their politeness involves the speaker's intention and the linguistic expression used to convey politeness. The proposed politeness strategies focus on the directness of the expressions that aim to avoid conflict through linguistic interaction as a certain act is considered to inherently threaten the addressee's face. In addition, the speaker should take into account three social variables in performing an FTA. Their concept of face, social variables, and the notion of the universality of politeness are under discussion by scholars examining politeness. Many scholars counter their arguments about the notion of politeness, but there are also many scholars who endorse their politeness theory. Critiques of their politeness theory are presented in the following section.

2.4.5. Critiques of Brown and Levinson's Politeness Theory

The concept of face and individual interaction attached to it was claimed to be universally valid by Brown and Levinson (1978, p. 249). However, many scholars challenge its universality. The conceptualisation of positive and negative face and the

notion of 'imposition' are critically viewed by scholars as culture-bound (Bargiela-Chiappini, 2003, p. 1460). Bargiela-Chiappini (2003) notes that non-Anglophone researchers have found that the concept of face from Brown and Levinson (1978) is not appropriate to their cultures. Walkinshaw and Kirkpatrick (2014, p. 273) maintains that their conceptualisation doesn't embrace the features of face in East Asian cultures that relate the individual's face to group face.   Similarly, the notion of face is not easy to utilise in a Japanese language context and does not represent the Japanese concept of *wakimae* (discernment) since Japanese social interactions do not allow interactional choice due to the cultural norms that stress a person's place in society (Ide, 1989; Matsumoto, 1989). Furthermore, their findings did not correspond to Brown and Levinson's view of honorifics as a direct index, but rather indirectly index the contextual features (Hudson, 2011; Okamoto, 2011). Gu (1990, pp. 241 - 242) claims that Brown and Levinson's model does not match Chinese data as the concept of face in Chinese seems to be divergent from that of Brown and Levinson's. Face is regarded as wants rather than norms, but ignoring the normative aspect of politeness is considered to be a serious misunderstanding. In addition, politeness infringement will elicit social sanctions.

Yu's (2011, pp. 404 - 405) study showed that non-conventional indirectness cannot be universal or polite and maintains the notion that the degree and the perception of politeness can be culture specific. Thus, the notion and degree of politeness in Korean, Hebrew, and English are different. Consequently, they should be explicated in terms of a culture-specific system of politeness. Furthermore, it is maintained that while the notion of face is valid for (some) Western languages, it is not relevant to Eastern languages (Gu, 1990; Ide, 1989; Matsumoto, 1989). Brown and Levinson's face framework can be insignificant when it is applied in cultures in which the individual is required to obey the norms rather than to maximise self-identity (Song, 2012, p. 35). Moreover, the individualistic notion of face is not relevant to collectivist cultures where individuals identify themselves with reference to their social group (Gu, 1990; Matsumoto, 1989)). The social norms govern the way people use the language. For example, expressing intimacy and deference at the same time is not allowed in the Japanese honorific system. Violating the social norms result in demerit for the speaker (Hasegawa, 2012).

While the notion of universality has been critically assessed by other scholars, Brown and Levinson (1978, 1987) have continued to maintain that politeness operates consistently in all languages, and it is universal. Their model is claimed to be universally valid (Brown & Levinson, 1978, p. 249). Ogiermann (2009) stated that its application to diverse languages presents counter-evidence to their claim. Wierzbicka (1985) claims that features of English, argued to be universal principles of politeness, are proven to be language specific and culture specific based on her study of the differences between English and Polish in the area of speech acts.

Another critique of Brown and Levinson's politeness theory comes from the three social variables: social distance, relative power, and ranking of imposition. Brown and Levinson (1978, 1987) suggested that these are available in all cultures and speakers seem to experience them with the same value. Their model presumes that the perception of distance and the relative power ratio between the speaker and the hearer are the same despite the culture (Song, 2012, p. 33). Song (2012, pp. 32 – 33) argues that the perceptions of distance between interlocutors are affected by cultural differences. Similarly, the relative power ratio between the interlocutors is also different across cultures. Besides, many scholars maintain that the three social variables are not universal, and in any case not well-developed enough to portray all the situations affecting the production of politeness (Pérez de Ayala, 2001). Moreover, none of the three variables can be chosen as a constant between interactants since there is the possibility of change even over short periods of time in relative power and social distance (Fraser, 1990).

In spite of the criticisms, Brown and Levinson's politeness theory is supported by many scholars. Wilson and Feng (2007, cited in Feng, Hang, & Holt, 2011, P. 304) argued that Brown and Levinson's theory persists in research on communication because it emphasises a speaker's construction of meaning: the reason people verbalise when they engage in everyday communication. Similarly, Ogiermann (2009, p. 20) stated that the theory continues to operate as the conceptual framework for most studies carried out in cross-cultural pragmatics. In addition, Feng et al. (2011) claimed that the theory is relevant to the way people communicate across cultures since the social variables that are fundamental to the theory exist in many cultures. O'Driscoll (1996) also maintained that Brown and Levinson's theory preserves its pan-cultural

validity and, therefore, is applicable as a basis for cross-cultural comparison. Moreover, Grainger (2011) argues that Brown and Levinson's politeness theory continues to provide a valuable contribution to the examination of verbal strategies that facilitate human interaction. In response to the notion of Japanese honorifics, Fukada and Asato (2004) provide a counter argument saying that Japanese honorifics are closely attached to face maintenance, and an explanation using the face conception is more assuring than using the discernment conception.

The challenges directed to Brown and Levinson's politeness theory primarily concentrate on the issues of face, universality and social variables. These aspects have been questioned or advocated in terms of their applicability related to the types of society such as individual or collectivist society and languages such as western or eastern languages. Though there have been disputes over the theory, this study employs Brown and Levinson's politeness theory as it is still considered to be the most relevant and the most universal to date.

From the four theoretical views of politeness discussed in the previous sections, it can be said that the social-norm view perceives polite behaviour in terms of common sense notions of politeness. The conversational-contract view does not seem to provide a tangible method to evaluate how rights and obligations change and operate in the real interactions. The conversational-maxim views that involves Grice's CP, Lakoff's rules of politeness, and Leech's PP do not provide a well-articulated method and problems may be encountered when they are applied to analysing talk in interaction. Of the four theoretical views, Brown and Levinson's politeness theory has mostly been applied in politeness research. Brown and Levinson's politeness theory "satisfies the criteria for empirical theories, such as explicitness, parsimony, and predictiveness," (Kasper, 1994: 3208). Their theory remains a feasible alternative and provides explicit formulated linguistic politeness which is not available in the other politeness theory and that provides a foundation for conducting cross-cultural research. Besides, there has not been any comprehensive, alternative theoretical approach provided in place of Brown and Levinson's theory. For those reasons, this study employs Brown and Levinson's theory as a theoretical basis for this study.

2.4.5 Linguistic Etiquette of Indonesian Heritage Languages

2.4.5.1 Linguistic Etiquette in Javanese

Harmony is a fundamental principle that underlies the social interaction of Javanese. This primary principle has four maxims: *kurmat* (respect), *andhap-asor* (modesty), *empan-papan* (place consciousness) and *tepa-selira* (empathy) (Gunarwan, 2001, p. 173). The description of each maxim in the use of language is as follows:

1. The *kurmat* (respect) maxim refers to the use of the language to show the respect that the addressee deserves.
2. The *andhap-asor* (modesty) maxim refers to the act of being modest in an interaction.
3. The *empan-papan* (place consciousness) maxim refers to the use of the language in agreement with one's place on the social ladder of the community and in the current situation.
4. The *tepa-selira* (empathy) maxim refers to not using inappropriate language to others as you don't want others to use inappropriate language to you.

(Gunarwan, 2001, pp. 174-176)

Unggah-ungguhing basa (linguistic etiquette) is fundamental in any Javanese social intercourse. *Unggah-ungguhing basa* is conducted by obeying the principles of speech level use (Wijayanto, 2013). Selecting the appropriate speech level is complicated as there are no precise conventions to be used as parameters (Sukarno, 2010). However, any Javanese should choose the appropriate speech level related to the degree of respect that the speaker feels for the addressee and this is determined predominantly by the social status or familiarity of the addressee (Poedjosoedarmo, 1968, p 59). Sukarno (2010) maintains that there are other factors that govern the choice of speech levels such as age, the degree of intimacy, and situation. In the interaction, Javanese should be able to determine the degree of respect to be addressed to his/her co-participant. When a speaker has decided the appropriate degree of respect and address for verbally addressing the addressee, then the communication may occur properly (Kuntjara, 2001).

In practicing *unggah-ugguhing basa* (linguistic etiquette) in Javanese, a Javanese should use it together with the application of *andhap-asor* (modesty). The concept of

andhap-asor requires a Javanese to humble him/herself and to exalt others. In applying this concept, a Javanese who is from a lower status will choose *krama* (high level) for others, and he/she will use *ngoko* (low level) or non-honorifics for him/herself (Wijayanto, 2013). Gunarwan (2001) suggests that one of the submaxims of *andhap-asor* (modesty) is not to use *krama* (high level or honorifics) to refer to oneself. In this sense, self-exaltation and other denigration is improper linguistic behaviour (Sukarno, 2010).

The speech levels, *vocabulary of courtesy* or *levels of respect* (Smith-Hefner, 1988, p. 540), comprise a regularity exhibiting degrees of formality and respect between the speaker and hearer (Poedjosoedarmo, 1968, p. 66). The speech levels express the degree of politeness in the form of choices of vocabulary and affixes. The different vocabulary allows the speakers to manipulate their speech to express politeness as well as social identity. Moreover, it displays that the speaker uses the language appropriately and shows deference (Smith-Hefner, 1988, p. 537).

The vocabulary types presenting the speech levels are categorised into three basic levels. The first form, *ngoko* (low level), does not express any respect, and is employed to address those who have equal status or close friends, and those who are younger or of a lower social status than the speaker. The second, called *madya* (middle level), is semi-polite and semi-formal. It is used to address non-close friends or relatives from the older generation with an intermediate degree of formality. The third, known as *krama* (high level), is polite and formal. It is employed to address someone who is distant and formal (Poedjosoedarmo, 1968, p 57; Koentjaraningrat, 1985). For Javanese, preserving the other's feelings, respecting the other's self-worth, and showing deference is expressed through their use of the *krama* level and address terms (Wijayanto, 2013, p. 41).

Javanese has quite a large choice of address pronouns. The choice of an address pronoun indicates the degree of politeness as shown by the speech level to which the pronouns belong (Poedjosoedarmo, 1968, p. 55).

Table 1: *Address Pronouns in Javanese*

_____

Speech Levels	First Person (I)	Second Person (you)	Third Person (he/she)
ngoko (low level)	*aku*, *awakku, kene*	*kowe, awakmu, kono, sira, slirane, sliramu*	*dheweke, dheknene, dhekne, kana, dika, panjenegane*
krama madya		*sampeyan*	
krama inggil (high level)	*riki, kula, kawula, adalem, abdi dalem*	*nandalem, paduka, panjenengan, panjenengan dalem, sampeyan dalem*	*piyambakipun, panjenenganipun,*

(Wedhawati, Nurlina, Setiyanto, Sukesti, Marsono, & Baryadi, 2006, pp. 268 - 269)

In relation to address pronouns there are kin address terms employed to address participants in an interaction in Javanese. They are used to show the social identity of non-family members. The address form *bapak/pak* (father) or *bu/ibu* (mother) are directed to those who are older than or about the same age as the speaker. *Mas* (big brother), *dik* (younger brother), *mbak* (older sister), *jeng* (younger sister) can be addressed to those who are younger or older than the speaker. To respect the addressee regardless of his/her age *mas* or *mbak* is generally employed. They are used to show mutual deference when addressed to someone of a lower status (Wijayanto, 2013). Adults or older people are not supposed to be addressed by name only as it will be regarded as impolite. Kin address terms such as *mas* (big brother) should come before the addressee's name (Poedjosoedarmo, 1968, p. 76).

2.4.5.2 Linguistic Etiquette in Minangkabaunese

Most Minangkabaunese have Minangkabaunese as their first language. It is used in the domestic life of Minangkabaunese (Heider, 1991, p. 19). There are 12 dialects in Minangkabaunese; the Padang dialect is considered the most prestigious form and is used for intergroup communication (Moussay, 1998). These dialects are different in terms of phonological levels, but all are intelligible for the Minangkabaunese (Anwar, 1980, p. 56). Those who are educated speak a non-dialectal form as they are from different dialectal backgrounds (Anwar, 1980, p. 60). The standard Minangkabaunese is similar to the standard Indonesian in terms of syntax. The standard

Minangkabaunese is differentiated from the colloquial one as the latter has freer structure and uses bare verbs (Crouch, 2009, p. 10).

In their interaction, the Minangkabaunese should take into account Minangkabaunese etiquette or *beradaik* (manners or customs) and the notion of *kato nan ampek* (four strategies of Minangkabaunese linguistic etiquette) (Aditiawarman, 2012, p. 180). The Minangkabaunese, who have improper language behaviour, are regarded as those who *indak tau jo nan ampek (*do not know the four strategies) or *urang indak baradaik (those who don't have manners).* The *Kato nan ampek* (four strategies of Minangkabaunese linguistic etiquette) consists of *kato mandaki* (words that climb), *kato malereang* (words that slant), *kato manurun* (words that go down), *kato mandatar* (words that are even/flat). *Kato nan ampek* shows the level of politeness. The application of *kato nan ampek* is closely associated with address pronouns or address terms that are dependent on who the addressee is (Delima, 2014, p. 4; Marni, 2013, p. 2). Manaf (2005) found the influence of *kato nan ampek* in the choice of speech strategies can be seen from the address terms used. According to Marni (2013, pp. 2-3) the types of *kato nan ampek* can be differentiated as in the following:

(i) *Kato mandaki* (words that climb) is used to communicate with those who are older. The structure in *kato mandaki* is complete, clear, and the address terms used are specific: the use of *ambo* for 'I', the use of address terms: *mamak* (mother), *uda* (elder brother), *tuan* (sir), *etek* (aunty), *uni* (elder sister), and *beliau* for 'he/she'.

(ii) *Kato malereang* (words that slant) is used to communicate with respected people due to their status in the community and marital relationships. The structure in *kato malereang* is complete, and figurative language is commonly used. The address pronoun and terms involve *wak ambo* or *awak ambo* for 'I', the use of titles, address terms based on familial relationships for 'you', and *baliau* for 'he/she'.

(iii)   *Kato manurun* (words that go down) is used to communicate with those who are younger. The structure in *kato manurun* is complete, but the form of the sentence is shorter. The address terms used involve *wak den /waka den/awak aden* for 'I', *awak ang* or *wak ang* for 'you' (male) and *awak kau/wak kau* for 'you' (female), and *wak nyo/awak nyo* for him/her.

(iv)   *Kato mandatar* (words that are even/flat) is used to communicate with friends. The structure in *kato mandata* tends to be incomplete, and short. The address terms used involve *aden/den* for 'I', *ang* for 'you' (male), *kau* for 'you' (female), and *inyo/anyo* for he/she.

(Translated from Marni, 2013, pp. 2-3)

The description shows that the addressee's social status is essential for applying *kato nan ampek* (the four strategies). Johns (1985) states that, in choosing the first and the second person pronouns and the address terms, a Minangkabaunese should be concerned about his relationship with the addressee and the context of the interaction. Johns (1985) classified the address pronouns in Minangkabaunese. Delima (2014) and Marni (2013) explicated the role of address terms in expressing politeness in the Minangkabaunese etiquette that can be seen as in the following:

Mamak   : Al ambiakan mak ember di dapua lah
Aldi   : yo lah

(Delima, 2014, p. 6).

English Gloss

Mother   : Al take the pail from the kitchen for me
Aldi   : yes

In this interaction, the mother asks the son (Aldi) to take the pail from the kitchen. Aldi answers using 'yes' without any address term to refer to the mother. The absence of the address term in Aldi's answer gives an impression that he was talking to somebody who is the same level or age as he is, so it would be considered to be impolite (Delima,

71

2014, p. 6). The choice of address terms used in the interaction shows which type of strategies of *kato nan ampek* is to be employed by the speaker, as in the following utterances:

Den indak dapek pai jo *ang*.
Uni indak dapek pai jo *adiak*.
Ambo indak dapek pai jo *angku*.
Awak indak dapek pai jo *uda*.

<div align="center">(Marni, 2013, p. 3)</div>

English Gloss

I can not go with **you**.
I (elder sister) can not go with **you** (younger sister).
I can not go with **you**.
I can not go with **you** (elder brother).

Marni (2013) showed how these four utterances are different due to the use of address pronouns/terms. The first utterance belongs to *kato mandata* as there are address pronouns *den* for 'I' and *ang* for 'you' that both are used to communicate with friends or among those who are at the same level. The second one belongs to *kato manurun* as there are familial address terms *uni* (elder sister) and *adiak* (younger brother) that show that the utterance was addressed to the one who was younger. The third one belongs to *kato malereang* as there are address pronouns *ambo* for 'I' and *angku* for 'you'. *Angku* is an address term to address the chief of the ethnic group who is respected in the community. The fourth one belongs to *kato mandaki* as these are address pronouns *awak* (body) for 'I' and the address term *uda* (elder brother).

Both the Javanese and the Minangkabaunese have their own linguistic etiquette that is supposed to be obeyed by the speakers. However, speakers of a language may or may not apply and follow the linguistic etiquette in their interactions.

2.5 Conversation Analysis and Politeness Strategies

Conversation Analysis (henceforth, CA), originates from ethnomethodology promoted by Garfinkel (1967), which describes the structures and formal properties of language in its social practices (Coulon, 1995, p. 38). It is an approach to studying talk-in-

interaction. Bryman (2004, p. 365) defines CA as "the fine-grained analysis of talk as it occurs in interaction in naturally occurring situations". Liddicoat (2011, p. 8) states that "conversational analysis is analysis of real world, situated, and contextualised talk." The main goal is to uncover the orderliness that is constructed in the actions of social practices (Sidnell, 2013).

There are some basic tools employed in the analysis of conversation that are based on the frequent characteristics of how conversation or interaction is constructed. These include turn-taking, adjacency pairs, preference organisation, and accounts (Bryman, 2004, p. 367 – 368). Ten Have (2007) proposed strategies in conducting CA, which involve analytic strategies and elaborative strategies. In describing the analytic strategy, the 'unmotivated looking strategy' proposed by Psathas (1995, p. 45 in Ten Have, 2007, p. 3) was picked up and modified in two ways. An 'unmotivated looking strategy' implicitly means that the researcher should be open to discovering the phenomena in the data and not search for it based on the theory or concept that has already been formulated. The two modifications include analysing the data systematically and noticing processes that are outlined in four organisations. The four organisations involve turn-taking, sequence, repair, and turn-design (p. 11).

Turn-taking organisation is considered as the central notion of CA. The major concern in the study of turn-taking organisation is the way to explain the multifaceted system by which the interactants, who are involved in the interaction, succeed in taking turns. It is assumed that there is only one participant speaking at one time and the alteration of speaker reappears with a minimal gap and minimal overlap (Sacks, Schegloff & Jefferson, 1974). Speaker change can involve three options: "a next speaker can be selected by the previous one, a speaker can self-select, or the present speaker can continue speaking" (Ten Have, 2007, p. 12). In addition, the 'turn-constructional units' (TCU) of turn-taking organisation involve constructions in the form of a sentence, clause, phrase, or lexis. The unit of turn-taking organisation is addressable and has the ability to act in some way such as to propose, to request, to accept, or to show surprise. At the completion of a TCU, there will be a 'transition relevance place' (TRP) where a candidate speaker can take the floor (Hutchby, 2007; Ten Have, 2007).

Sequence organisation is based on the idea that talk-in-interaction is sequentially organised. In this case, the notion of adjacent pairs is considered to be the central device for the scrutiny of sequential organisation of utterances in an interaction. The adjacency pair format is the principal component within which the relationship between the first pair-part and the second pair-part should fit with each other (Ten Have, 2007, pp. 15 - 16). Sacks (1987, in Drew, 2013, pp. 134 - 137) suggested this 'nextness' corresponds or connects the preceding and the on-going utterance. The connection between the prior and the current utterances can be achieved by means of ellipsis, deixis, repetition or action. The ongoing utterances can also be related to the prior utterances by placing the connection at the beginning of the utterances. For example, the discourse marker 'well' at the beginning of ongoing an utterance may indicate that what follows is different from what has been talked about (Drew, 2013, pp. 134 – 137).

Repair is viewed as the "self-righting mechanism for the organization of language use in social interaction" (Schegloff, Jefferson & Sacks, 1977, p. 381 in Kitzinger, 2013, p. 255). Repair organisation deals with 'trouble' which occurs in the process of interaction (Ten Have, 2007). 'Trouble' in the interaction has something to do with "misarticulations, malapropisms, use of a 'wrong' word, unavailability of a word when needed, failure to hear or to be heard, trouble on the part of the recipient in understanding, incorrect understandings by recipients" (Schegloff, 1987, in Kitzinger, 2013, p. 292). The use of repair in interaction, as suggested by Schegloff (1987, in Kitzinger, 2013, p. 292), is to ensure the progress of the interaction and the re-establishment of 'intersubjectivity'. The speaker can initiate repair by her/himself and that is classified as self-initiated repair or self-repair. The recipient of the utterances can also initiate repair and that is referred to other-initiated repair or other-repair (Kitzinger, 2013, pp. 230 – 231). In a discussion of turn design, Drew (2013, pp. 132 – 133) states that in the action of self-repair important adjustment or corrections are produced by the participants in the process of the interaction. Thus, they may suspend their on-going utterances to make their utterances factually right as well as to communicate more carefully and accurately. The self-repair that occurs in the same turn-constructional unit halts the turn progressivity while other-repair suspends the sequence's progressivity (Kitzinger, 2013, p. 231).

The organisation of turn-design is described in relation to preference organisation. Turns can be constructed to accomplish the *preferred* or the *dispreferred* so their 'preference' status is relative (Ten Have, 2007, pp. 22 – 23). Preferences have been analysed in terms of responding and initiating actions. In responding actions, preferences have been related to the responses to polar questions, impersonal statements and invitations. The preference principle as it relates to polar questions (yes-no questions) is to avoid and minimise disconfirming responses in favour of confirming responses. The preference principle used in response to impersonal assessments (Pomerantz, 1984) and invitations (Davidson, 1984) is the same as that of polar questions. Disagreeing, disconfirming, and rejecting should be avoided if possible and minimised whereas agreeing, confirming, accepting or other accommodating responses should be included. The execution of disagreeing, disconfirming, and rejecting are often accompanied with suspension, the use of mitigated expressions as well as incorporating unconvincing agreements, confirmations or acceptance. On the other hand, a preferred response or acceptance will show it status by being expressed quickly, directly, and without giving a specific account. (Pomerantz & Heritage, 2013, pp. 214 – 217, Ten Have, 2007, pp. 22 - 23).

The notion of preference for initiation has mainly focused on avoidance. Avoidance is practiced in the actions of initiation by using other-corrections, requests, and giving advice. The preference principle of correcting others involves minimising the use of explicit correction of the co-participant's talk. One way of avoiding explicit correction of the other's talk is to wait until the speaker completes his or her turn, and if the repairable has not been corrected, a repair sequence can be initiated without providing any correction so that the repairable can be self-corrected (Schegloff, Jefferson, & Sacks, 1977 in Pomerantz & Heritage, 2013, pp. 217 – 218). Another way is the use of embedded correction (Jefferson, 1987, in Pomerantz & Heritage, 2013, p. 218). In this way, the repairable word is replaced with a substitute word that is incorporated in the following talk. To this end, a correction that is 'off-record' is accomplished. The last way is to reject another-correction (Pomerantz & Heritage, 2013, p. 218).

The preference principle of requesting is to avoid saying a request explicitly. This can be communicated by strategies such as explaining the problem and asking for information. By explaining the problem and asking for information, inferences can be

made by the co-participant that goods and services are needed by the speaker. Thus, goods and services may be offered by the co-participants. By doing so, the speaker minimises the need to make an explicit request (Curl & Drew, 2008).

The present study used the CA procedure to analyse the data, and the data are presented sequentially in the Findings chapters. What follows illustrates how the conversation analysis approach has been employed by researchers to uncover interactional practices dealing with politeness strategies.

Hutchby (2008) investigated the impoliteness of interruptions from the standpoint of CA using naturally occurring data from various contexts including ordinary conversations, and broadcast talk. The results showed that what was sequentially interruptive was not perceived as interruptive by the participants in the interactions. Overlapped talk did not always constitute interruptive action; it was the moral dimension of the interaction that determined whether it was seen to be interruptive or impolite. Impoliteness in talk-in-interaction should be taken into account when the participants react to actions as though they are impolite or when the participant refers to the impolite action encountered in the interaction.

Hayashi (1996) examined politeness strategies of conflict management focusing on dispreferred messages. This study focused the analysis on how politeness strategies, in this case, dispreferred messages, were analysed from global and local perspectives of discourse. The global analysis was conducted by examining the interactional structures of the floor and turn and the organisational structure of the script while the local analysis was directed to observed sequences and alignment patterns of the actions. Naturally-occurring data was collected from a counselling session between a pre-service teacher and the supervisor. Preference organisation of the interaction was analysed grounded in conversational analysis. The global analysis revealed that the supervisor accomplished the discussion based on organisational knowledge and also employed interactional knowledge to collaboratively progress the discussion. From the sequential analysis, it was found that redressive moves were carried out through sequences of various acts. From the alignment perspective analysis, it was found that disclaimers, repetitions, and formulations were mostly employed by the supervisor. This study suggested that politeness strategies can only be explicated when the analysis

is conducted in terms of goals and scripts, not in term of individual utterances in detached contexts.

Wu's (2011) study investigated the notion of modesty in Chinese culture employed in interpersonal interaction. Self-praise conduct that was a potential problem in social practice was explored in the interaction among Chinese speakers. Talk-in interactions were audio- and video-taped. The data was analysed by using conversation analysis to examine the interactional contingencies that facilitated the occurrence of self-praise practices. The results showed that there was a constraint on the occurrence of self-praise. Indirect approaches were selected when practicing self-praise. On the other hand, presenting the positive image of their relatives or themselves was accomplished when provoked by the interactional contingencies.

Haugh's (2013) study focused on the evaluation of impoliteness and politeness as social practices in interaction, in this case in multi-party interaction. He suggested that the evaluation of im/politeness in interactional practices should not be investigated from the perspectives of the speaker and the hearer per se but should be foregrounded from all who participate in the interaction: participation footing. Ethnomethodological conversation analysis was employed to comprehensively examine detailed transcripts of naturally occurring data. The analysis showed that the evaluation of im/politeness in the interaction was delivered through multiple participation footings. The evaluation of im/politeness is considered to emerge relatively from the histories and relational identities of the interactants in the interaction.

Don and Izadi (2013) investigated the way face was constructed in criticism actions, as institutional actions, in an open Ph.D. viva which was attended by university staff and postgraduate students in Iran. In this situation the notion of face viewed from the separation and connectedness between the interactants, the examiners and the candidates, was very significant to be maintained as they are from a collectivist society. Video-recordings of talk-in-interaction were transcribed involving the representation of latching and overlapping. They analysed their data by using conversation analysis combined with the adoption of Arundale's (1999) Face Constituting Theory. In the analysis, the researchers focused on the sequence of utterances dealing with criticism-criticism responses in the interactions. The

investigation showed that the examiners oriented their language behaviour to the norms of Iranian culture. The examiner dominated the flow of the interaction and employed the asymmetrical power relation that effected the course of turn sequence and the interaction. The criticisms from the examiners were likely to lack markers of mitigation and were not preceded by features of preference as in ordinary conversation. Negative comments were articulated in a direct and plain manner to the candidates. This study showed how criticism was performed in ordinary institutional discourse with the analysis grounded in CA which enabled the researchers to investigate the turn organisation of talk and the dimension of interaction in a Ph.D. viva.

Rendle-Short (2007) investigated how address terms were used by politicians and journalists in political news interviews. The data were sixteen recordings of interviews involving six senior journalists interviewing two political leaders. The results showed that at the beginning of the interviews, the journalists greeted and used institutional address terms to address the politicians, while the politicians addressed the journalists by name. The same thing also happened at the closing stage where the journalists used title and last name to address the politicians. In the interactions, the journalists used address terms as a device to control the sequential organisation of the interaction and also as a device to inform the politicians that a new topic would be coming and to pay attention to it. The politicians used pre-turn constructional unit (TCU) address terms as a technique for modifying the sequential organisation of questioning/answering. They also used mid-TCU to take the turn when the overlapped talk was occurring and to provide a dispreferred response. Address terms used in the interviews showed the asymmetrical relationships as indicated by the use of asymmetrical address terms.

2.6 Summary

This chapter has reviewed of literature relevant for this study. First, it presented the umbrella of language in use, pragmatics, which led to the presentation of ILP. Secondly, the review of ILP focused on examining the use of L2 pragmatics across languages and cultures. Reviews of research in ILP that focused on backchannels, other-repetitions, overlaps, and address terms showed that there have been studies of these pragmatic features involving different language backgrounds. Thirdly, the review of Speech Act theory showed that an utterance is composed of three acts, the *locutionary* act, the *illocutionary* act, and the *perlocutionary* act. *Directives* are

considered to be intrinsically face-threatening acts and can threaten the addressee's negative face. As with the other speech acts, *directives* can be performed from a fully direct form to a fully indirect one. *Directives* expressed indirectly or accompanied with *mitigators* or *aggravators* can lessen the potential face threat. Requests, as one of directive speech acts, consist of the head act (the nucleus of the speech act) and the peripheral elements. The directness level of head act requests is classified into three categories: the most direct, the conventionally indirect level, and the non-conventionally indirect level. The peripheral elements involve internal and external modifications to mitigate and aggravate the imposition of the requests. Blum-Kulka et al.'s (1989) analytical framework was one of those frameworks used to analyse the directness level of requests.

Fourthly, four main theories of politeness were described viz. the conversational-maxim view, the social-norm view, the conversational-contract view, and the face-saving view. These theories make valuable contributions to politeness theory and research, despite their flaws. However, the face-saving view is the theory that relates politeness with the notion of face in social interaction and as such, has mostly been used in politeness research. Although the face-saving theory has been challenged for not being universal, this theory has been extensively used for politeness investigations as it is more workable. For that reason, this study employed Brown and Levinson's face-saving theory to analyse the politeness strategies in the interaction between the students and their supervisors in thesis supervision sessions.

Fifthly, ethnomethodological conversation analysis to analyse naturally-occurring data was presented. In this study the procedure of CA 'nextness' was used to examine what is available or seen in the transcripts. The resultant data are, then, analysed by using Brown and Levinson's politeness strategies.

Literature reviewed on politeness in the area of ILP has shown that there have been studies with different language backgrounds. Each study commonly focused on one pragmatic feature. Besides, there have been relatively few studies that focused on BI and heritage languages of Indonesia. There have been no studies of politeness strategies that involve these components:

(1) L1 speakers of Javanese in interaction with academic supervisors who are also L1 Javanese speakers in thesis supervision sessions conducted in Javanese;

(2) L1 speakers of Minangkabaunese in interaction with academic supervisors who are also L1 speakers of Minangkabaunese in thesis supervision sessions conducted in Minangkabaunese;

(3) L1 speakers of Javanese and Minangkabaunese in thesis supervision sessions in English with academic supervisors who are L1 speakers of English;

(4) The pragmatic features involving backchannels, other-repetitions, overlaps, address terms, and requests.

Other studies may have investigated the interlanguage of Javanese or Minangkabaunese, such as Wijayanto (2013), but those studies did not involve all the pragmatic features embraced in this study and they were not conducted in the thesis supervision sessions. Moreover, the focus on the pragmatic features, the data collection, and the analysis were different from the ones employed in this study. Embracing Javanese and Minangkabaunese in interlanguage has occasionally been done by scholars but not with the focus of this study. This study endeavoured to bridge the gap in the studies of politeness strategies in the area of ILP. Three research questions were addressed to investigate whether the way in which different L1s influenced the choices of politeness strategies in the intercultural interactions (see Section 1.3 for details).

In the next chapter, Chapter Three, the discussion will be directed to the research methodology employed in this study. Constructivism and its hermeneutic approach are used as it is concerned with text analysis of naturally-occurring interactions in thesis supervision sessions.

Chapter 3: Research Methodology

This study was empirical research utilising naturally-occurring data to generate the research's findings. It is also a discourse analytic study as it is grounded on conversation analysis (CA) which examines phenomena evident in the data. In this chapter, the research approach and overview of the research design are outlined and the procedures in each phase of the research are described. The data collection methods used in interlanguage pragmatics and their application in this study are explicated. In addition, an integrated approach to data analysis is explained to show how the data for this study were analysed. The analysis used different coding schemes for different levels of analysis. The ethical issues of this study are also described in this chapter. It closes with a summary.

3.1 Research Approach

This study used a qualitative approach which Creswell (2002) defines as

> an inquiry approach useful for exploring and understanding a central phenomenon. To learn about this phenomenon, the inquirer asks participants broad, general questions, collects detailed views of participants in the form of words and images, and analyses the information for description and themes. From this data, the researcher interprets the meaning of the information, drawing on personal reflections and the past research. (p.58)

Briefly, Fraenkel, Wallen, and Hyun, (2011) describes the approach as "research studies that investigate the quality of relationships, activities, situations, and materials." (p.426) More simply again, it is defined by Krathwohl (1993) as "research that provides verbal description to portray phenomena" (p.10.) From these definitions, it can be concluded that qualitative research is exploratory and understanding oriented, asks broad and general questions, uses data in the form of words or images, text analysis or personal descriptions, and is reflexive.

Qualitative approaches are associated with constructivism, which regards realities as subjective and multiple (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994). The nature of reality is viewed as 'pluralistic and plastic'. It is pluralistic because it can be expressed in various symbols and systems of language. It is plastic because it is elastic and can be formed corresponding to people's intended acts (Schwandt, 1994, p.125). In addition, reality is understood to be "intangible mental constructions, socially and experientially based, local and specific in nature" (Guba & Lincoln, 1994, p. 105). The constructions are adjustable since they are related to real life. This approach views knowledge as created between the investigator and the subjects of the study. It presumes that the researcher as well as the participants of the investigation are connected interactively (Denzin & Lincoln, 2008, pp. 32 – 34). Thus, the results are constructed at the same time as the process of the examination is in progress (Guba & Lincoln, 1994, pp. 110 – 111).

The methodology in this approach is 'hermeneutical and dialectical'. Hermeneutics is a text analysis approach. The application of hermeneutics in the social world has developed involving human actions such as "conversation, speeches, legislative acts (and their transcription), and nonverbal communication" (Yanow & Schwartz-Shea, 2006, p. 15). The quality of inquiry in constructivism is measured by its trustworthiness, transferability, dependability, and confirmability (Denzin & Lincoln, 2008, p. 33; Guba & Lincoln, 1994, p. 14).

As this study focused on the analysis of how people interact in a social context, it is also associated with ethnomethodology. Ethnomethodology, popularised by Garfinkel in his *Studies in Ethnomethodology* (1967), is viewed as "the empirical study of methods that individuals use to give a sense to and at the same time to accomplish their daily activities: communicating, making sense, and reasoning" (Coulon, 1995, p. 15). It puts emphasis on everyday life and how people apprehend it, make meaning of it, and articulate their activities and create them in relation to others. People, their situations, their acts in interactions, and the actions taken are considered to be important in ethnomethodology. How people employ their personal methods and skills to apprehend and make sense of their world are described by Garfinkel as 'ethnomethods' (Aggestam, 2010, pp. 3-4). In a more practical way, Hesse-Biber (2006, p. 35) describes how meaning is exchanged through the process of communicative interaction in the social context which is the interest of

ethnomethodologists. In other words, ethnomethodology attempts to cognise what people use to make sense of their worlds by scrutinising their experiences in everyday life in their social contexts.

Conversation analysis (CA) is epistemologically grounded on ethnomethodology (Seedhouse, 2007, p. 257). CA is initiated from the accomplishment of communication in specific social interactions (Drew & Heritage, 1992, p. 17). It is from ethnomethodology that CA is concerned with social order that is created through the action of social interaction. The focal interest of CA is in "the social organisation underlying the production and intelligibility of ordinary, everyday social actions and activities" (Heath & Luff, 1993, p. 306). CA examines social actions for how utterances are sequentially organised in the interaction. Peräkylä, Antaki, Vehviläinen, and Leudar, (2008, p. 13) state that CA scrutinises how "single utterances are intrinsically related to the utterances that precede them and the utterances that come after them". This fundamental principal of CA, the procedure of examining dialogue turn-by-turn, is used in this study.

This study sits within a constructivist paradigm and used qualitative data analysis accompanied by some descriptive statistics, namely percentages (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004, p. 22). Berg (2001, p. 242) states that the researcher can tally the instances to resolve the frequencies germane to the category. Onwuegbuzie, Johnson, and Collins (2009, p. 125) consider that the use of descriptive statistics can strengthen the work of qualitative analysis that provides descriptions in detail with quantitative measures. Qualitative descriptors such as 'many', 'several' will be more informative when they are presented with the number of the instances. The frequency of the instances of a phenomenon together with the context will lead the reader to make a decision as to whether the frequency in that context is meaningful. Based on that, the reader can generate naturalistic generalisations (Onwuegbuzie et al., 2009, p. 125).

3.2 Research Design

This research employed a case study design. Stake (2008, p. 121) maintains that the case study is "both a process of inquiry about the case and the product of that inquiry." Merriam (1998, p. xiv) defines a qualitative case study as "an intensive, holistic description and analysis of a bounded phenomenon such as a program, an institution,

a person, a process, or a social unit". In other words, a qualitative case study involves an examination process and holistic scrutiny of a phenomenon, and the results of that investigation. The focus of a case study is on the "experiential knowledge of the case and close attention to the influence of its social, political, and other contexts" (Stake, 2008, p. 120). A case study enables the researcher to gain a holistic understanding of the phenomenon examined (Stake, 2005, p. 443).

Case studies may be a holistic single-case study, an embedded single-case study, holistic multiple/collective-case studies, or embedded multiple-case studies. The difference in the designs lies in the terms: holistic versus embedded, and single versus multiple. Holistic designs concentrate on examining the general character of the phenomenon while embedded designs gives attention to sub-component(s) of the case. The single case study focuses only on one case, phenomenon, or the site while multiple-case studies extend to several cases (Yin, 2003, pp. 39 – 45).

The application of multiple-case studies is considered to "lead to better understanding, perhaps better theorising, about a still larger collection of cases" (Stake, 2000, p. 437). The individual case of multiple-case studies should be wisely designated. Thus, similar findings ('literal replication') can be predicted, or different findings can be produced for predictable purposes ('theoretical replication'). The multiple-case studies should be able to obtain the replication logic to establish their quality. The replication can be considered to have taken place if all the cases of a multiple-case study obtain similar findings (Yin, 1984, p. 48).

The research design of the current study utilised a collective case study approach in which "multiple cases are described and compared to provide insight into an issue." (Cresswell, 2002, p. 438). The advantage of this approach is that the results are more convincing, and are "more likely to lend themselves to valid generalisation" (Fraenkel et al., 2011, p. 435). Besides, the findings are more acceptable, and the whole study is considered to be strong (Yin, 1984, p. 48). This study involved three sites and two cases.

The design of the research can be represented schematically as in Figure 3. The Figure

also shows the relationship of the phases of the research to the research questions (RQs). There were two phases to the research.

	Phase 1	
Identification of L1 Javanese politeness strategies (RQ1)		Identification of L1 Minangkabaunese politeness strategies (RQ2)
Identification of politeness strategies used by L1 Javanese speakers with English L1 supervisors (RQ3)	Phase 2	Identification of politeness strategies used by L1 Minangkabaunese speakers with English L1 supervisors (RQ3)
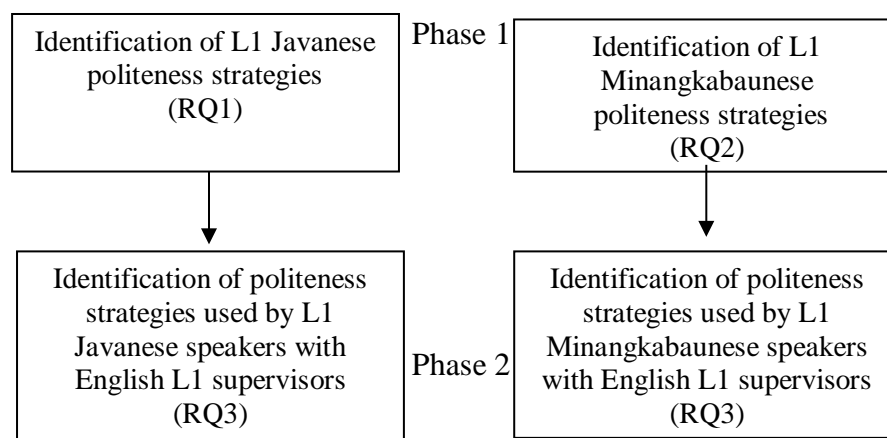
Figure 3 Relationship of research phases and research questions

3.3 Procedures

In the first phase, this study was an investigation of politeness strategies within thesis supervision sessions conducted in L1 Javanese and L1 Minangkabaunese. After the researcher recruited the prospective participants, they were provided with the information on the purpose of the study and the procedure for the investigation, their rights, and assured about the anonymity of their data. Consent forms were signed when they agreed to participate in the study. The thesis supervision sessions in Javanese were audio-recorded in one of the universities in Yogyakarta, Indonesia. These recorded materials were transcribed by the researcher and also cross-checked by an L1 speaker of Javanese, who did the checking by listening to the recordings. The transcripts were then analysed using CA procedures and the linguistic approach to CA (Sinclair & Courthard, 1975) to reveal the politeness strategies through the pragmatic features used by the students. Of the speech acts revealed, the requests were examined in terms of their levels of directness (Blum-Kulka, House & Kasper, 1989a). The pragmatic features involving backchannels, other-repetitions, overlaps, address terms as well as the requests used were then analysed using Brown and Levinson's (1987) analytical framework of politeness, Javanese linguistic etiquette and the four maxims. The results were used to address RQ 1.

The thesis supervision sessions conducted in Minangkabaunese were audio-recorded in two universities in West Sumatera, Indonesia. The researcher transcribed the recordings and an L1 speaker of Minangkabaunese cross-checked them by listening to the recordings. The process of recruiting and getting the consent forms signed by the participants was the same as for the L1 speakers of Javanese. The transcribed data were examined using CA procedures and the linguistic approach to CA to investigate the politeness strategies through the pragmatic features used by the students in their interactions. The requests employed were first categorised using Blum-Kulka et al.'s (1989a) levels of directness strategies and then Brown and Levinson's (1987) politeness theory and Minangkabaunese linguistic etiquette '*kato nan ampek*' (the four strategies) were applied to determine the politeness strategies. The results of this scrutiny were relevant to RQ2.

The second phase of this study was an investigation of politeness strategies within thesis supervision sessions conducted in English between L1 speakers of Javanese and Minangkabaunese and their supervisors who were L1 speakers of English in Australia. This produced two groups of data to be analysed. They were the data of L1 speakers of Javanese speaking English (JSE) and L1 speakers of Minangkabaunese speaking English (MSE). The researcher collected these from three Australian universities, one in Perth, one in Canberra, and another one in Melbourne. The thesis supervision sessions were audiotaped and transcribed by the researcher. The transcripts were cross-checked by an L1 speaker of English by listening to the recordings. Then the transcripts were examined by using CA procedures together with the linguistic approach to CA to reveal the politeness strategies in the pragmatic features used. The requests at this stage were scrutinised first using Blum-Kulka et al.'s (1989a) directness levels and then using Brown and Levinson's (1987) politeness theory. The results from the JSE group were compared to those from the thesis supervision sessions of L1 speakers of Javanese (J), who interacted with their supervisors who were also L1 speakers of Javanese. Similarly, the findings from the MSE group were compared to the results of the thesis supervision sessions of L1 speakers of Minangkabaunese (M), who communicated with their supervisors who were L1 speakers of Minangkabaunese. The findings of this phase were germane to RQ 3.

3.4 Data Collection

Methods of data collection are very influential factors in the final research product. If the instrument or data collection procedure is insufficient, the raw data will be weak. An inadequate procedure will mean the value of the study is questionable (Kasper & Dahl, 1991, p. 216). For example, research related to natural communication or discourse features has to select data collection methods which can reveal language constructions and the features of interaction under investigation. Otherwise, the findings will not describe the way language is used in communication because the data gathered do not represent the language used in real life (Golato, 2003, p. 91). In this case, choosing an appropriate data collection method was very significant.

The methods of data collection used in the area of cross-cultural or interlanguage pragmatics involve (i) perception and comprehension procedures using different kinds of rating tasks, multiple choice questionnaires, and interviews; and (ii) production procedures by means of discourse completion, role plays, and observation of authentic discourse (Kasper & Dahl, 1991, pp. 216 – 217). Studies on cross-cultural or interlanguage pragmatics have shown that the primary data collection methods commonly used are production questionnaires, role plays, conversations, and institutional talks (Bardovi-Harlig & Hartford, 2005, pp. 10 – 11).

Of the common data collection methods employed by scholars, recording natural interaction has rarely been used. As Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford (1990, p. 9) note, conversational or authentic data has very rarely been used in interlanguage pragmatics research. The data collection method that is mostly referred to in interlanguage pragmatics research is conversational data which constitutes the most common form of authentic discourse (Bardovi-Harlig & Hartford, 2005, pp. 10 – 11). According to research conducted by Kasper and Dahl (1991), only 6% of the production research used recordings of naturally-occurring interaction. On the other hand, discourse completion tasks comprised 54% of the methods used (Bardovi-Harlig & Hartford, 2005, pp. 10 – 11).

Of the production questionnaires, discourse completion tasks (DCT) have been the preferred and the most widely accepted data collection method to gather production

speech acts data (Rue and Zhang, 2008; Lin, 2009). DCT has been considered to be effective to gather considerable amounts of data in a short time (Hong, 1988 cited in Rue and Zhang, 2008, p. 33). Besides, DCT is regarded an ideal method for relating the semantic formulations and strategies of speech acts within the given setting regulated by the social variables and the prevailing forms of language used by the first speakers in diverse cultural and linguistic backgrounds (Rue and Zhang, 2008, p. 33). In addition, DCT is extensively employed for its ease of use, and a high degree of control over variables (Blum-Kulka et al., 1989c; Golato, 2003, p. 93). On the other hand, data gathered via DCT may not corresspond to the language used in a real situation in which features of verbal interaction can be revealed (Thalib and Tayeh, 2014; Golato, 2003, p. 92; Rue and Zhang, 2008, p. 33 - 34). DCT is considered unsuitable when it is used to reveal "sociopragmatic complexities" (Nelson, Carson, Al-Batal, El Bakary, 2002). Nevertheless, DCT has been utilised by scholars to gather data in the area of cross-cultural/interlanguage pragmatics, including Blum-Kulka & Olshtain (1984), Rose (2009), Chang (2011), Lee (2011), Thalib and Tayeh, (2014), and Johns & Félix-Brasdefer (2015).

Gathering naturally-occurring data in the context of communicative events as a research method in cross-cultural and interlanguage pragmatics has been infrequently applied by scholars because of the difficulty in obtaining it (Kasper & Dahl, 1991, p. 231) and the time required to collect it (Rue & Zhang, 2008, p. 35). The appropriateness in terms of place, time, and participants, and the ethical and legal issues involved in videotaping or tape recording naive participants is another limitation of naturally-occurring data (Rue & Zhang, 2008, p. 35; Kasper & Dahl, 1991, p. 231; Wolfson, 1981, cited in Decapua & Dunham 2007, p. 338). In addition, the process of audiotaping or recording the interaction of the communicative events has become another drawback of gathering talk-in interaction. It is the 'observer's paradox' which has been a critique for audiotaping or recording the language used in interactional environments (Kasper, 2000).

When the research focuses is on how speakers communicate the language to make meaning, then the data should relate to the interactional context within which it is naturally-occurring (Schegloff, 1996, cited in Golato, 2003, p.110). Naturally-occurring data is the most authentic data whose strength is in "its validity in reflecting

the actual talk-in-interactions" (Rue & Zhang, 2008, p. 35). Following Bardovi-Harlig and Harford (1993), Cohen (1996, pp. 391-392) states the advantages of having naturally occurring data are that:

1. The data are spontaneous

2. The data reflect what the speakers say rather than what they think they would say

3. The speakers are reacting to a natural situation rather than to a contrived and possibly unfamiliar situation

4. The communicative event has real-world consequences

5. The event may be a source of rich pragmatic structures.

According to Kasper and Dahl (1991, p.245), authentic data gathered in the whole context of the speech event are profoundly demanding. Besides, naturally-occurring data provides the researcher with the opportunity to better comprehend the linguistic devices and vigorous situation of the interaction that yields them (Rue & Zhang, 2008). As Yuan (2001, p. 289) suggests, 'talk-in-interaction', if taped appropriately, can accurately visualise everyday interactions. The favoured method of gathering spontaneous, naturally occurring data are audio and video-taping (Golato, 2003, p. 10). Studies employing natural data and data collection methods include, among others, those of Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford (1990) and Baba (1999).

Audiotaping offers the researcher various components of the setting involving the subjects' oral interactions (Heath, Hindmarsh, & Luff, 2010, pp. 2-7). It is assumed that audio recordings offer more features and accuracy, and provide recordings of the event thoroughly and objectively. The aim of using audio recordings is to preserve the interactions from the beginning to its end. Audio-recordings let a researcher keep a record of the interactions presenting various layers simultaneously (Mondada, 2012, p. 306). Audiotaping was used in this study to enable in-depth examination of the politeness strategies employed by the participants. The researcher could examine the

data repeatedly so specific language behaviour and communication was able to be scrutinised in detail and repeatedly.

Data collected for this study focused on supervision sessions that were audio-recorded (cf. Creswell, 2002, p. 199). This authentic data represents mundane language use, that is, the interaction between the supervisees and their supervisors. The context of the situation is clear, that is, thesis supervision sessions. The communication is not made up; it occurs naturally.

The researcher collected the data in three sites: Australia and two provinces in Indonesia (West Sumatera and Yogyakarta). The data of L1 speakers of Javanese speaking English (JSE) and Minangkabaunese speaking English (MSE) with their supervisors who were L1 speakers of English in Australia was collected earlier than those of L1 speakers of Javanese or Minangkabaunese in Indonesia. The consideration was that the number of the respondents who were L1 speakers of JSE and who had grown up in Java were relatively small and similarly for L1 speakers of MSE, who grew up in West Sumatera. Getting a response from those who matched the characteristics required for this study was critical as the data from them supported the interlanguage focus of this study. In addition, the number of Javanese or Minangkabaunese HDR students in Australia was quite small. Thus, their involvement in this study was a guarantee for taking all proposed steps in this project.

The data in Australia were collected from March 15th, 2013 to July 29th, 2013. Two of the recordings of L1 speakers of Minangkabaunese were sent to the researcher on July 12th and July 29th, 2013. To recruit the participants in Australia, the researcher contacted the Graduate Studies Office in universities in Australia of potential participants by email. The researcher invited them to participate in the study by self-selecting. The response to the emails sent was not good. Two students responded; one of them was a first language speaker of Javanese while the second one was a Sundanese, another ethnic group in Indonesia. The researcher then contacted the Association of Indonesian Postgraduate Students and Scholars in Australia (AIPSSA), and put out an invitation to participate in the research to the AIPSSA's mailing list. Then the researcher contacted those who were willing to participate personally to make arrangements for audiotaping. The first time the researcher contacted the participants,

the researcher explained the purpose and the procedure of the investigation in detail. Responses varied: some were still interested in the project; some withdrew from the project at this point. The reasons for withdrawing from the project were first, that Javanese or Minangkabaunese was not their first language, but Bahasa Indonesia (BI) which is the national language of Indonesia. The second was that they were not Javanese or Minangkabaunese, but they resided in Java or West Sumatra. The third was that they did not want their supervision sessions to be recorded.

Then, the researcher sent an email to those who were interested in joining the study. The email noted the students should have their supervisor's agreement to audiotape their supervision session. They could ask for approval from their supervisor themselves, or, based on their requests or permission, the researcher would contact their supervisor. Some of them requested the researcher to ask for their supervisor's agreement and provided the researcher with their supervisor's email address. Request emails for an agreement were then sent to the supervisors. Some supervisors didn't respond; three said their first language was not English; another one would consider the researcher's request; the other one said that the record would be sent but the condition was that the student took leave for personal reasons. When the researcher contacted the student again, there was no response. The results from those who contacted the supervisor by themselves also varied: one said she/he could do the recording but the supervisor had moved to another university; some said they did not get any response from the supervisors; one said he/she could not tell the supervisor about the project because the supervisor was very busy. Some of the supervisors and the students agreed to be audiotaped, but the audiotaping could not be conducted as the students said that they were not ready, even though the researcher waited for their readiness to be audiotaped for one year. The final outcome was that there were five students who were Javanese and three who were Minangkabaunese. One of the Javanese participants was excluded from the study as the interactions were multi-party, while this study focused on a dyadic interactions. Ultimately, there were four Javanese speaking English participants in this study and three who were Minangkabaunese.

These self-selecting participants were then contacted again to arrange an appropriate time for audiotaping. In addition, information about the focus of the investigation, the participant's rights, and informed consent were sent to them. Their consent forms were

collected before the audiotaping took place. Two of Minangkabaunese participants emailed the researcher that that they would record the supervision session by themselves and sent the recording as well as the consent forms. One of them was in Melbourne while the other one resided in Canberra. For the other participants, the audiotaping was conducted in the supervisors' offices at the participants' universities in Australia. Before the recording the researcher prepared the audio-recorder but was not in the room for the recording process. The aim was to avoid the observer's paradox.

After collecting the data in Australia, the researcher collected two sets of data in Indonesia. The data of L1 speakers of Javanese were gathered in Yogyakarta, while L1 speakers of Minangkabaunese were gathered in Padang, Indonesia from June 9th, 2013 to July 7th, 2013. To gather the data of L1 Javanese or L1 Minangkabaunese, the researcher contacted the Heads of the Javanese Department and the Head of Minangkabaunese Department by emails and long distance calls to confirm the arrangement.

To obtain the Javanese L1 data, the researcher went to Yogyakarta and met the Head of the Department as well as the Dean of the Faculty. The researcher talked to the lecturers and explained the purpose and the procedure of the research as well as requesting their agreement for audiotaping the supervision sessions. After the researcher got the supervisors' agreements to audiotape their supervision sessions with their students, the researcher had to get agreement from the students as well. The students were recruited in situ, as the supervisors and the students did not have any schedule for the supervision meetings, and the students could see their supervisors any time when their supervisors were available in the office. The researchers asked any students who came to have a supervision meeting whether they were willing to participate in the study and agreed to have their supervision sessions recorded. When the students agreed to participate in the project, they were provided with the information regarding the focus of the investigation and their right to refuse to be involved in the research project at any time. They were also notified that their personal information would be utilised anonymously, and any information gathered during the recording would not be applied for any other proposes. They were assured that their involvement in the research had no risk. They were given an informed consent letter to gain their consent. Then, the researcher offered them the option of recording the

supervision session by themselves or not. The recording equipment was given to them when they preferred to do it by themselves. After the supervision meeting, they returned the recording equipment and the recording to the researcher. If the subjects did not want to record it by themselves, the researcher set up the recorder on the lecturer's table where they would have the supervision session.

The thesis supervision sessions were conducted in the office that was actually for all the lecturers in the department. So the presence of other lecturers and students in the supervision session was something common for both the lecturers and the students. Students waiting for their turn for the supervision session were also found in and outside this office. The recording took place in these offices. Sometimes the interaction was interrupted by other lecturers who wanted to ask something or to say goodbye before leaving the room. Since the presence of others in situ was usual, the researcher did not have to be concerned about the observer's paradox. However, to prevent the interaction being distorted due to the knowledge of being audiotaped, the subjects were requested to identify whether the situation had bothered them in their interaction (Trosborg, 1995).

The second set of data collected in Indonesia was from the supervision sessions of L1 speakers of Minangkabaunese in interaction with their supervisors who were L1 speakers of Minangkabaunese. The process of recruiting the supervisors was similar to that for the Javanese participants. After the researcher had contacted the Head of the Department by long-distance calls, the researcher went to West Sumatera to meet the Head of the Department and the Dean of the Faculty to ask for permission to gather the data. The process of recruiting lecturers and students was the same as that of collecting the data of L1 Javanese. The condition of audiotaping of thesis supervision sessions of L1 Minangkabaunese was also similar to that of L1 speakers of Javanese. However, two of the lecturers of L1 speakers of Minangkabaunese chose to move to other rooms to conduct their supervision sessions and recorded the session by themselves.

The data for the number of the participants and the length of the recording for the present study are presented in Table 2.

Table 2: *The Number of Participants and the Length of Recordings*

_____

The Data	Number of Recordings	Length of Recordings
L1 Javanese	6	70.38
L1 Javanese speaking English (JSE)	4	177.29
L1 Minangkabaunese	6	121.22
L1 Minangkabaunese Speaking English	3	65. 41
Total	19	9 hours 12 minutes

_____

3.4.1 The Participants of the Study

The rationale for selecting Javanese and Minangkabaunese as the participants of this study was that Javanese and Minangkabaunese are two heritage languages of Indonesia that are not only unintelligible between one another but also have significant cultural differences. The Javanese form a stratified society, and considered 'the most *halus*' (refined) in Indonesia, meaning that they are very self-controlled and do not show their emotions (Heider, 1991, p. 20). The status oriented Javanese (Koentjaraningrat, 1985) are nonegalitarian as shown in their use of speech levels, and demonstrate their status in their utterances (Heider, 1991, p. 20). By contrast, the Minangkabaunese are perceived to be coarser than the Javanese (Heider, 1991, p. 4), egalitarian (p. 18), and one of "the more direct and expressive Indonesian cultures in emotion terms" (p.20). The difference between the two languages and cultures provided the opportunity to investigate the choice of the Javanese and Minangkabaunese participants' politeness strategies as to whether they might have been determined by their different cultural backgrounds when they communicated in the intercultural interactions with their supervisors who were L1 speakers of English in the Australian context that is Western, and Australians are seen to be egalitarian (Merrison, Wilson, Davies, & Haugh, 2012, p. 1078; Rendle-Short, 2009, p. 250). Interactions in the three different cultural

contexts (Javanese, Minangkabaunese, and English) were chosen to provide comparisons and contrasts.

The participants of this study self-selected and involved students and their supervisors, as follows:

1. Indonesian university students and their academic supervisors who were L1 speakers of Javanese. Their ages varied from 22 – 65 years old.
2. Indonesian university students and their academic supervisors who were L1 speakers of Minangkabaunese. Their ages varied from 22 – 65 years old.
3. L1 Javanese Indonesian students studying in Australia and their academic supervisors who were L1 speakers of English. Their ages varied from 27 – 69 years old.
4. L1 Minangkabaunese Indonesian students studying in Australia and their academic supervisors who were L1 speakers of English. Their ages varied from 30 – 69 years old.

In selecting the subjects some linguistic criteria were applied as follows:

1. They had to be L1 speakers of Javanese or born and brought up in Java, Indonesia.
2. They had to be L1 speakers of Minangkabaunese or born and brought up in West Sumatera, Indonesia.
3. They had to be L1 speakers of English or born or brought up in Australia.

From the recruitment process, there were four groups of participants in the present study, as follows:

1. Four L1 speakers of Javanese speaking English and their supervisors who were L1 speakers of English in Australia.
2. Three L1 speakers of Minangkabaunese speaking English and their supervisors who were L1 speakers of English in Australia.
3. Six L1 speakers of Javanese and their supervisors who were L1 speakers of Javanese.
4. Six L1 speakers of Minangkabaunese and their supervisors who were L1 speakers of Minangkabaunese.

3.4.2 Data Transcriptions

Writing transcriptions can be understood as a construction process because it involves various decisions and considerations. Hammersley (2010, pp. 556 - 558) points out what needs to be taken into consideration in the process of transcribing the recordings. This includes the amount of the recordings to be transcribed, the actual sounds or the words to be included, features such as intonation, and pitch, non-word elements and other noises, silence and pauses, gestures, transcript layout, overlapping talk, labelling the speakers. In other words, in transcribing recordings there is a selective process involved as to what to include and what to exclude. Transcription notation is added to represent the sounds, words, pauses, overlaps and other relevant components (Mondada, 2012, p. 305)

This study involved the transcription of words into standard orthography along with descriptions of related features considered to be appropriate for the analysis. As transcription cannot be examined merely in terms of linguistic components, the researcher's understandings of the language, culture, and social interaction are crucial in making sense of what the participants are saying in the recordings (Hammersley, 2010, p. 560). The features relevant to the participants' talk involve components such as the length of pauses and silence, stress given on words, elongated sounds.

The researcher transcribed all the audio-taped data personally. All the transcriptions were made soon after the audio-recordings were taken. The researcher adopted Jefferson's (1972) transcription notations utilised in Wray and Bloomer's (2006, pp. 185 - 195) study.

A validation procedure was employed to ensure that the transcriptions were accurate. First, all the recordings were transcribed by the researcher were cross-checked. The transcriptions made by the researcher as well as the recordings were given to an L1 speaker of Javanese, Minangkabaunese, or English. Corrections to the transcripts were made based on the input from them. In cases where there was still uncertainty regarding the transcription of the lexical item(s), the researcher sought the opinion of a third party who was an L1 speaker of Javanese, Minangkabaunese, or English. After the transcripts had been produced, analysis of the pragmatic features was done using

CA procedures and the linguistic approach to CA. The phenomena identified in the transcripts were colour coded and further analysis was conducted.

The data of the thesis supervision sessions conducted in Javanese or Minangkabaunese needed to be translated into English. The researcher translated the data and this was cross-checked by colleagues who were an L1 speaker of Javanese and L1 speaker of Minangkabaunese. The translation provided in the presentation of the data in this study is the English gloss. Explanations are given when there is any term in Javanese or Minangkabaunese, which doesn't have an English translation. Words are supplemented where they were necessary, and they are put in the brackets.

3.5 Data Analysis: An Integrated Analytic Framework

This study was empirical and discourse analytic as it employed naturally-occurring data from thesis supervision sessions to generate the findings. The analysis was grounded on sequential analysis of CA which is empirical. The data was analysed inductively. In inductive data analysis, the analysis begins from the identification of very specific or itemised data to categories and themes (Cresswell, 2012). Thus, the process is bottom up. Cresswell (2009, p. 175) states that the process will involve backwards and forwards analysis between the themes and the text data until a set of themes can be determined. To do a bottom-up process, applied CA was used in this study to investigate politeness strategies found in the data. Applied CA is the application of CA to study interactions in institutional settings or institutional interaction. The emic perspective from CA is used in order to analyse the data from the inside of the system or the participants' point of view. This emic perspective is embedded in the sequential context of the interactions (Seedhouse, 2005, p. 166; Seedhouse, 2007, p. 252).

The 'unmotivated-looking strategy', as proposed by Psathas (1995, p. 45) was applied in this study, to examine the data (transcripts), so the researcher observed the data with no a priori concept or theory. Each transcript was examined on a turn-by-turn basis using the notion of 'nextness' suggested by Sack (1987, in Drew, 2013, pp. 134 - 137). The examination was conducted several times to make the researcher familiar with the data. Once a phenomenon was identified, it was coded. Then, all the instances of the phenomena were ordered sequentially. Further examination of the corpus was then

made. Any phenomena that emerged from the data and was repeatedly shown by the participants in the interactions was coded in one category.

As the data under analysis were naturally occurring, CA procedures in the analysis was used to reveal how talk in supervision sessions was built through turns managed by the participants and to uncover politeness phenomena at a discourse level. One of the ways to explain the politeness strategies employed is by determining the pragmatic features (backchannels, other-repetitions, overlaps , the address terms, and the speech acts) that are set in the turn by turn of the interactions. The CA focuses on the sequential organisation of actions, and the action of an utterance can't be definitely identified when it is only based on individual constructed utterances, so the illocutionary act of an utterance in this study was determined by involving elements of interaction structure which represented the contextual meaning of the utterance in which it occurred. Thus, the utterances were analysed based on their function in the interaction or on the basis of the sequential context. Svennevig (1999, p. 87) claims that the function of an utterance needs interpreting based on its sequential context.

To investigate the politeness strategies from the pragmatic features used in the interactions, a linguistic approach to CA called 'the exchange structure model' (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975; Coulthard & Brazil, 2002; Francis & Hunston, 2002) was incorporated into this study. This analysis is considered to be able to reveal what is occurring in the discourse. It does not merely depend on how the initiation is constructed but also on how the participant gives responses to it. As this approach basically follows CA procedures, the discourse has to be examined on a moment by moment basis. The individual utterance is analysed and categorised based on its effect on the succeeding utterance (Francis & Houston, 2002). In addition, this model was chosen as this study had naturally-occurring data and was analysed using CA procedures, thus it needed an approach that has the same nature as CA analysis. The exchange structure model (ESM) is a linguistic approach to CA. It is principally CA in nature, and one of the levels in its analysis is the acts used in the interactions. ESM is believed to be flexible enough to cope with a wide variety of situations other than classroom discourse (Francis & Houston, 2002; Hayashi, 1996). The use of CA procedures in an ESM approach was able to reveal the politeness strategies from the

pragmatic features used in the interactions as they are accomplished in a context where the turn-taking mechanisms are in practice.

All the utterances in the transcripts were analysed using ESM in the rank of acts. Of the speech acts examined from the ESM analysis, the requests that have become the focus of this study were linguistically categorised using Blum-Kulka, House, and Kasper's (1989) levels of directness used in the CCSARP and Hassall's (1999) directness levels for requests for information. These analytical systems categorise the requests into different levels of directness. The internal and external modifications involving downgraders and upgraders were analysed using the analytical framework of House and Kasper (1981), Blum-Kulka et al. (1989a, 1989b), and Rue and Zhang (2008). The results involving the turn-taking phenomena (backchannelling, other-repetitions, overlaps, and address terms) and the requests used were analysed using Brown and Levinson's (1978, 1987) theory of politeness to investigate politeness strategies used by the participants. Both Blum-Kulka et al.'s analytical categories and Brown and Levinson's politeness theory were used in this study because both of them are appropriate for cross-cultural investigations.

Figure 4 shows the stages of the integrated analytic approach used in this study.
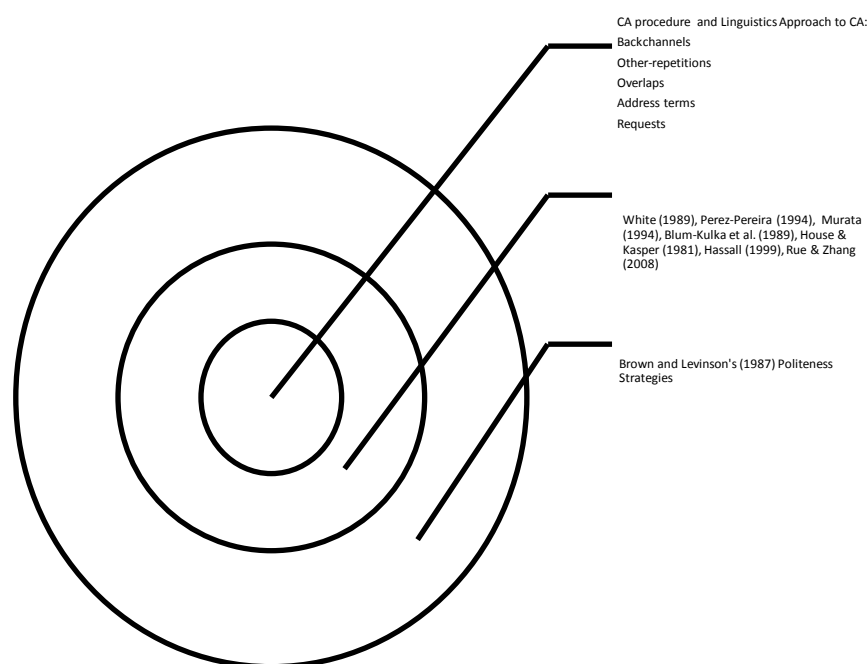
Figure 4 Integrated analytic approach

3.5.1 Coding Scheme

Coding involves a process of classifying and labelling (Lampert & Ervin-Tripp, 1993). The process of coding includes segmenting the data together with naming classifications (Dey, 1993, cited in Basit, 2003, p. 144). Codes are commonly stapled to various sizes of "words, phrases, sentences or whole paragraphs, connected or unconnected to a specific setting" (Basit, 2003, p. 144). The code classifications can be taken from the technical terms employed in the literature and the expressions utilised by the participants (Strauss & Corbin, 1990, cited in Basit, 2003, p. 144). Lampert and Ervin-Tripp (1993) state that coding in language research encompasses linguistic categories and features from phonology to event structure.

Richards (2005, pp. 87 – 94) states that there are three types of coding in qualitative research viz. descriptive, topic, and analytical. Descriptive coding is a kind of coding involving storing information that provides the description of the case. Topic coding deals with giving labels to texts corresponding to their subjects. Analytical coding represents "coding that comes from interpretation and reflection on meaning" (p. 94). The coding process in this study involved the researcher taking into consideration "the meanings in context and creating categories that express new ideas about the data" (p. 94). The types of coding in this study were descriptive and analytical. The descriptive coding was used to represent what was said by the participants, while the analytical coding was used to categorise the functions of what was said in the context of the interaction in the supervision sessions.

Several coding schemes were used to classify the pragmatic features in this study before they were analysed using Brown and Levinson's (1987) politeness strategies. The pragmatic features including backchannels, other-repetitions, and overlaps were coded in terms of forms and functions. The requests were classified based on the directness level of the head acts, and their modifications. Thus, this study incorporates some different schemes. The combination of all these schemes enables a most suitable classification system made specifically for this study. The schemes are as in the following:

1. Backchannel responses identified in the interactions were coded. Short responses that were produced as a response to a question are not counted as a

backchannel (White, 1989, p. 62). Backchannelling was also examined in the discourse environments that triggered its use. The discourse environments were revealed by examining sequential interactions: the preceding utterances before the backchannel response in the interactions. White's (1989) classification of discourse environments that are relevant to the data of this study was used. New discourse environments were added as the discourse environments of backchannels available in the data for this study showed the necessity to add new classification of discourse environments: 1) after *ngono/ngaten* (lho) 'how it is like/like this' for the Javanese data; 2) after the pragmatic marker *lah* (okay, it's done) for the Minangkabaunese data.

2. The repetitions under investigation in this study were other-repetitions as the occurrence of this kind of repetition is naturally interactive involving two parties, the speaker and the interlocutor, in the interaction. In this study, other-repetition refers to the verbatim repetitions of part or a whole utterance which are produced after the immediate preceding turn. Pérez-Pereira's (1994) classification of forms of other-repetitions were employed in this study as they are simple and applicable to the data of this study. Expanded repetition was modified in this study. It refers to the repetition of part of the preceding utterance used to initiate the turn, to provide information or explanation.

3. Overlaps in this study were categorised based on Murata's (1994) categories of interruptions.

4. For the requests in this study, all the requests from the ESM including inquiries, neutral-proposals, returns and loops that emerged from the analysis in point two above were reclassified in term of their directness. Blum-Kulka, House and Kasper's (1989b) analytical coding categories used in Cross-Cultural Speech Act Realisation Projects (CCSARP) were employed to analyse the requests and the level of directness. All requests for information had their own separate scale as suggested by Hassall (1999, 2012). Blum-Kulka et al. (1989a) grouped strategies into three levels of directness: direct, conventional indirect, and non-conventional indirect. These three directness levels are considered to be valid in all languages. The three are as follows:

    a. the most direct, explicit level, realised by requests

       syntactically marked as such, such as imperatives, or by

other verbal means that name the act as a request, such as performatives (Austin, 1962) and hedged performatives (Fraser, 1975)

b. the conventionally indirect level, which are procedures that realise the act by reference to contextual preconditions necessary for their performance, as conventionalised in a given language

c. the non-conventional indirect level, i.e. the open-ended group of indirect strategies (hints) that realise the request by either partial reference to an object or element needed for the implementation of the act (e.g. 'Why is the window open?'), or by reliance on contextual clues (e.g. It's cold in here').

(Blum-Kulka & Olshtain, 1984, p. 201)

The three levels of directness were further divided into nine types of strategies (Blum-Kulka & Olshtain, 1984, p. 201). Each directness level embraces sub-strategies that can be seen in Table 3.

Table 3: *The Levels of Directness and Strategy Types of Requests*

Level of Directness	Strategy Types
Direct Strategy/Impositive	(1) Mood-derivable
	(2) Explicit-performatives
	(3) Hedged-performatives
	(4) Obligation statements
	(5) Want statements
Conventionally Indirect Strategy	(6) Suggestory formula
	(7) Query-preparatory
Non-conventionally Indirect Strategy	(8) Strong hints
	(9) Mild hints

(Blum-Kulka et al., 1989a, p. 18)

The requests for information were coded differently using Hassall's (1999) scale of directness for requests for information. In this directness level, direct questions are considered to be the most direct way to ask for information. The levels of directness for asking for information are shown in Table 4.

Table 4: *Directness Levels of Requests for Information*

_____

Directness Level	Examples
Direct questions	Where is the Post Office?
Hedge performative request	Can I ask where the Post Office is?
Query preparatory request	Can you/ will you tell me where the Post Office is?
	Do you know where the Post Office is?
Question hint	Is the Post Office far from here?

_____

(Hassall, 1999, p. 595; 2012, p. 207)

5. The modifications in the interactions were analysed using the analytical coding scheme from House and Kasper's (1981) modality markers, Faerch and Kasper's (1989) internal and external modifications, and Blum-Kulka et al.'s (1989b) internal modifications. House and Kasper (1981) divide modality markers into downgraders and upgraders. The lexical and phrasal downgraders can be seen in Appendix 2.

6. The external modifications are the supporting moves used to mitigate or aggravate the request. The participants did not employ aggravating supportive moves, so they are not presented in this section. The external modifications were coded following House and Kasper (1981) and Blum-Kulka et al. (1989b). 'Asking the hearer's opinion' from Rue and Zhang (2008) was added to suit to the data of this study.

Brown and Levinson's (1987) politeness theory was used after the coding in points 1 – 6 above had been conducted. Brown and Levinson (1987) claim that a speaker will use a certain strategy to minimise the threat of his act. They propose strategies for doing face-threatening acts (FTA).Their four politeness strategies were used to analyse the politeness strategies in this study.

'Bald-on-record' is Brown and Levinson's first politeness strategy. In employing this strategy, the speaker's intention is explicitly expressed. There is no effort to take a redressive action to minimise the imposition on the hearer. The hearer's face is neglected.

The second are positive-politeness strategies. Brown and Levinson (1987, pp. 101 – 129) have fifteen sub-strategies which are divided into three 'broad mechanisms' that is presented in Table 5.

Table 5: *Brown and Levinson's Positive-Politeness Strategies*

Broad Mechanisms	Strategies
Claim common ground	1. Notice, attend to H (his interests, wants, needs, goods)
	2. Exaggerate (interest, approval, sympathy with H)
	3. Intensify interest to H
	4. Use in-group identity markers
	5. Seek agreement
	6. Avoid disagreement
	7. Presuppose/raise/assert common ground
	8. Joke
Convey that the speaker and the hearer are co-operators	9. Assert or presuppose S's knowledge of and concern for H's wants
	10. Offer, promise
	11. Be optimistic
	12. Include both S and H in the activity
	13. Give (or ask for) reasons
	14. Assume or assert reciprocity
Fulfil the hearer's want (for some X)	15. Give gifts to H (goods, sympathy, understanding, cooperation

(Brown & Levinson, 1987, p. 102)

The third are negative-politeness strategies. In using negative-politeness strategies, the redressive action is directed toward the hearer's negative face: "his want to have his freedom of action unhindered and his attention unimpeded" (Brown & Levinson, 1987, p. 129). It is related to the 'negative rites' of Durkheim. Their function is to minimise the particular imposition of an FTA whose effect is unavoidable. The negative-politeness strategies are divided into ten sub-strategies: (i) Be conventionally indirect;

(ii) Using question or hedge; (iii) Be pessimistic; (iv) Minimise the imposition; (v) Give deference; (vi) Apologise; (vii) Impersonalise the speaker and the hearer: avoid the pronoun 'I' and 'you'; (viii) State the FTA as a general rule; (ix) Nominalise; (x) Go on record as incurring a debt, or as not indebting the hearer (Brown & Levinson, 1987, pp. 129-131).

'Off-the record' is the last of the politeness strategies suggested by Brown and Levinson (1987, pp. 211 – 227). In using these strategies, the speaker prevents himself from being responsible for an FTA uttered since what is communicated doesn't refer to only one interpretation. In this case, the speaker lets the hearer infer the intended meaning. 'Off-the record' consists of two broad systems each with sub-strategies. These include:

1) Inviting conversational implicatures, via hints triggered by violation of Gricean Maxims: (i) Giving hints; (ii) Giving association clues; (iii) Presupposing; (iv) Understating; (v) Overstating; (vi) Using tautologies; (vii) Using contradictions; (viii) Being ironic; (ix) Using metaphors; (x) Using rhetorical questions; and

2) Being vague or being ambiguous by: (i) Being ambiguous; (ii) Be vague (iii) Over-generalising; (iv) Displacing the hearer; (v) Being incomplete; and using ellipsis (Brown & Levinson, 1987, p. 214). Thus, there are fifteen off-the record strategies.

To simplify the coding analysis, Blum-Kulka et al.'s (1989a) strategies of directness, Hassall's directness levels for asking for information, and Brown and Levinson's politeness strategies were grouped or matched to each other. Song (2008, p. 121) classified Blum-Kulka's nine strategies into the four categories of Brown and Levinson's politeness strategies as presented in Table 6.

Table 6: *Directness Levels, Strategy Types, and Politeness Strategies*
_____

Directness Level	**Strategies of Requests**	**Politeness Strategies**
Direct Strategies	(1) Mood derivable	Bald-on-record strategy
	(2) Explicit performatives	
	(3) Hedged performatives	Positive politeness
	(4) Locution derivable/	strategy
	obligation statements	

	(5) Want statements	
Conventional Indirect Strategies	(6) Suggestory formula (7) Query-preparatory	Negative politeness strategy
Non-conventional Indirect Strategies	(8) Strong hints (9) Mild hints	Off-the record strategy

_____

Besides the strategy types of the head acts, the internal modifications, external modifications, and the pragmatic features involving backchannels, overlaps, other-repetitions, and address terms were categorised using Brown and Levinson's (1987) politeness analytical framework.

3.6 Limitations

This study had several limitations, even though endeavours were made to reduce the potential weaknesses. The decision to have naturally-occurring data in this study provided data on how language is used in real life and reflected natural speech with respect to features of natural talk in interactions. However, what might have been expected was not always available in the data e.g. various linguistic devices and how people used those linguistic devices in their interactions. The interactions in the supervision sessions moved freely according to the academic needs of the participants.

The thesis supervision session settings seemed appropriate because of the clarity in terms of status, deference and academic business. However, to recruit participants who would let their supervision sessions be recorded demanded extra time and effort. The time spent to get an answer from the respondents did not guarantee the approval to record their supervision session as the approval must be obtained from both the student participants and their supervisors. This recruitment process resulted in the small number of participants in this study that may affect its results and limit the possibilities of generalisation.

The personal attributes of the participants is another aspect that had been taken into consideration in this study. The Javanese speaking Javanese and the Minangkabaunese speaking Minangkabaunese participants were undergraduate students majoring in Javanese or Minangkabaunese in Indonesia and their age ranged from twenty to twenty-three. On the other hand, the Javanese speaking English and the

Minangkabaunese speaking English participants were all postgraduate students in some universities in Australia and their ages varied between thirty and forty-five. The participants' age and educational background may have influenced their language production which may have affected the findings of this study.

3.7 Trustworthiness, Transferability, Dependability, and Confirmability

Fraenkel et al. (2011, p. 458) state that one of the procedures to enhance trustworthiness of a qualitative research study is the use of audio and video recordings. This study audiotaped naturally-occurring interactions. The credibility of this study was based on the emic perspective in CA analysis. In this perspective, the analysis is conducted from the participants' point of view which is shown in the details of the interactions (Seedhouse, 2007, p. 252). The claims in this study were made based on what was exhibited in the interactions. The classifications of directness levels and the modifiers used may have been subject to a certain degree of subjectivity, thus the process of categorising and classifying the strategies of the heritage languages of Indonesia were all cross-checked by L1 speakers of Javanese, and Minangkabaunese, and the English ones were also double-checked by a Vietnamese English lecturer.

Dependability is related to whether the results of this study will be repeatable or replicable (Bryman, 2001, p. 29 in Seedhouse, 2007, p. 254). As the data of this study were analysed using CA procedure, it is a standard practice to display the transcripts of the data, so the process of analysis is apparent for other scholars or the readers. Therefore, they can examine the transcripts and the analysis, they can assess the analytical procedures applied, and the claims made by the researcher. Thus, the presentation of the data and the analysis provides other scholars or readers with the means to replicate or repeat the research (Seedhouse, 2007, p. 254). Procedures and processes of data analysis are also provided (see 3.3 and 3.5 above). Yin (2011, p. 19) states that the way to achieve credibility in qualitative research is transparency in the research procedures. The display of the transcripts also lets other researchers scrutinise the data so that they can confirm, modify, or reject what the research has claimed. Thus, the transcripts displayed provides other researchers with a means of confirming (Tavakoli, 2013).

Besides, this research is a collective (multiple) case study which, by itself, enhances the transferability of the results (Merriam, 1990, p. 174). In addition, to increasing the transferability of the results the researcher provides a detailed description of the context and the participants of this research "so that anyone else interested in transferability has base information appropriate to judgement" (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, pp. 124 – 125, in Merriam, 1990, p. 177).

3.8 Ethical Issues

The ethics clearance of this study was approved by Curtin University ethics committee with Approval Number EDU-111-12. In the process of collecting the data, the consent forms from the individual participants were obtained before or after the audiotaping was conducted. Before the recording, the participants were provided with the information regarding the aim of the project, the purpose of the study, the procedures, their right to withdraw at any time, the assurance that their personal information would be kept confidential, and that their details would be utilised for research purposes only and anonymously. In addition, all audiotapes, and transcripts will be kept confidentially and stored for a period of at least five years on completion of this study.

3.9 Summary

This chapter described the methodological framework for this study. The research method was qualitative constructivism that principally uses CA procedures in the analysis. The case study design was employed as it involves two cases of an interlanguage study. The data of this study was audiotaped from naturally-occurring interaction in thesis supervision sessions. The participants in this research involved students and their supervisors who were L1 speakers of Javanese and Minangkabaunese as the normative data, and students who were L1 speakers of Javanese speaking English as well as L1 speakers of Minangkabaunese speaking English and their supervisors who were L1 speakers of English. The transcripts were analysed using the integrated analytic approach including the use of CA procedure, Blum-Kulka et al.'s (1989) levels of directness strategies, and Brown and Levinson's (1987) politeness theory.

The results of phase one are presented in Chapter 4. It describes the pragmatic features involving backchannels, overlaps, other-repetitions, address terms, and the requests used in the interaction that were analysed using the integrated analytic approach.

Chapter 4: Findings from Intracultural Interactions

This chapter presents the findings of two sets data for this study that address the first two research questions viz. 'What are the politeness strategies employed by research students who are L1 Javanese speakers in interaction with academic supervisors who are also L1 Javanese speakers in thesis supervision sessions conducted in Javanese?' and 'What are the politeness strategies employed by research students who are L1 Minangkabaunese speakers in interaction with academic supervisors who are also L1 Minangkabaunese speakers in thesis supervision sessions conducted in Minangkabaunese?' The first section explores the politeness strategies of Javanese speaking Javanese (J) and then examines those of Minangkabaunese speaking Minangkabaunese (M).

The politeness strategies were explored using conversation analysis (CA) procedure and the linguistic approach to CA. The conversation analysis procedures revealed the politeness strategies employed by J and M participants were backchannel responses, other-repetitions, overlaps, and address terms that were analysed using Brown and Levinson's (1987) politeness strategies. The linguistic approach to CA was used to reveal their requestive behaviour which was analysed using Blum-Kulka's (1989) level of directness, Brown and Levinson's (1987) politeness strategies, Javanese linguistic etiquette and the four maxims, and Minangkabaunese linguistic etiquette '*kato nan ampek*' (the four strategies). The description of the findings is given in sequential order with instances of each strategy provided.

4.1 The Politeness Strategies of Javanese Participants

The politeness strategies of J participants were investigated from six recordings that are labelled as J1 – J6, while their supervisors were given the common code Sp. A transcript guideline is provided in Appendix 4. An arrow is used to show the line of the instance(s) in which the phenomena occur as well as bold type to indicate the focus of the description. The instances of each strategy are exhibited in sequential organisation. English gloss is provided after the presentation of each instance. Different fonts are used to represent different speech levels and also Bahasa Indonesia (BI) 1) *Font used for krama,* 2) *Font used for ngoko*, 3) Font used for Bahasa Indonesia (BI).

4.1.1 Showing Politeness through Backchannelling

Backchanelling in this study refers to short verbal responses which do not change the current speaker's turn. The following extracts show backchannelling used in the thesis supervision sessions.

    a. <u>Hesitation Pauses</u>

Extract 1

Situation: J2 and the supervisor talked about readers' comprehension.

268.	Sp	: *saengga* langsung *saged dipunpahami,* ha / e *saengga* langsung /
269.		*saged dipunmangertosi↓* / hhh- / *dening pamaos* / kuwi nek
270.		langsung↓ hhh- nek
271.→	J2	: *inggih*
272.	Sp	: = sik ora langsung, *saengga merlokaken* hhh- e:: / *langkung*
273.		*betahaken saengga langkung mbetahaken,* / penafsiran hhh-
274.		*ingkang trep↓* // …

English Gloss

Sp   : so (it) can be directly be recognised, / so (it) directly be understood / by the reader↓ / (it) is direct if

J2   : **yes**

Sp   : (it) is indirect (it) needs e:: / needs more / appropriate interpretation //…

In this extract, J2 used a backchannel response in *krama* form '*inggih/nggih*' (yes) to respond to the supervisor's talk. The backchannel was in the environment of a hesitation pause after '*nek*' (if). The backchannel was used to endorse the delivery of the information and to agree with the supervisor's talk. Showing support and agreement to the supervisor's talk displayed that J2 complied with the supervisor's negative face as *krama* speech level was used to be polite and show respect that saved the supervisor's negative face.

    b. <u>Rising Intonation</u>

Extract 2

Extract 2

Situation: J1 and the supervisor talked about logic and supernatural things.

211.   Sp   : iki mau tekan kene ki wae ya, tekan w w w wit ringin↑

212.→ J1   : =*nggih*=

213.   Sp   : =ringin↑ o iki nek iki komplit, sik nek iki ringin↑

214.   ho'o *ta*↑ iki komplit↑=

215.→J1   : =*nggih*=

English Gloss

Sp   : (we have discussed) this one until the bayan tree

J1   : **yes**

Sp   : the bayan tree is complete this one is the bayan tree right (it) is complete

J1   : **yes**

In Line 212 and Line 215, J1 responded to the supervisor's talk using backchannel responses '*nggih*' (*krama*) that occurred after a rising intonation was delivered when uttering the word *ringin* (bayan tree) in Line 211 and the word '*komplit*' (complete) in Line 214. The backchannel reponses expressed in *krama* not only show acceptance, and agreement to what had been said, but also express deference.

   c.   Clausal Boundaries

Extract 3

Situation: J6 and the supervisor talked about geography dialect, Banyumas.

85.   Sp   : *namung wonten ing panaliten menika, ingkang karembag, inggih*

86.   *menika panganggening* dialek banyumas *dening*

87.   *para paraga*↓=

88. → J6   : =*nggih*

89.   Sp   : *ing / menika dialogipun menika ta*↑ =

90.   J6   : =*nggih* Bu =

English Gloss

Sp   : but in this research what is discussed is the use of the Banyumas dialect by

112

the leaders

J6   : **yes**

Sp   : this is the dialogue right

J6   : yes mother

In this extract, there are two short responses (Line 88 and Line 90). One of them (Line 90) was confirmation responding to the requests for confirmation in the preceding utterance. The short response in Line 88 is a backchannel response conveying acceptance of the information as well as respect to the supervisor. This backchannel occurs after a clause boundary.

    d.   <u>After *Ngono/Ngaten* (*lho*) 'How It is Like / Like This'</u>

Extract 4

Situation: J1 and the supervisor talked about logic and supernatural data.

121.   Sp   : umpamane ya / *ing* pucuk gunung kasebut ana watu

122.   gedhe *lan* leter kanggo *nyeyuwun,* ki rak data logis

123.   biasa wae, hal yang lumrah **ngono lho↓**=

124.→ J1   : =*nggih*=

125.   Sp.   : =ho'o *ta*↑=

126.   J1   : =*nggih*=

English Gloss

Sp   : for example like this one / there was big stone used for asking (something)
       this data is logic↓ that is ordinary and common **(it is) like that↓**

J1   : **yes**

Sp   : right

J1   : yes

In this extract, J1 responded to the supervisor's talk by using a backchannel response (Line 124) that occurred after the supervisor said '*ngono lho↓*' (it is like that). This backchannel response shows agreement with the supervisor's talk as well as respect expressed through the use of *krama* speech level.

Backchanelling was employed by J participants to convey politeness in their interactions with their supervisors. The backchannel responses used varied from non-lexical items such as em::, *hmm* to lexical *krama* items such as '*nggih*' (yes), 'o *nggih*' (oh yes), 'o', '*nggih Pak*' (o yes father). Brown and Levinson (1987, p. 113 and p. 129) suggest that backchannel responses express 'brief agreement' and satisfy the interlocutor's positive-face want by showing attentiveness, and understanding of the talk. Politeness in Javanese in this context is shown by the appropriate choice of the speech level (*krama*) used in expressing backchannels. Backchannels expressed in different speech level, such as *ngoko*, in this context would be considered to be rude in Javanese politeness. However, the interlocutors may also be considered not attentive and a bit less polite when they do not provide backchannel responses in interactions.

In the previous instances of backchannels, J participants used backchannels in four environments. Backchannels in the environment after a clause boundary were frequently used (see Figure 5 for the percentage of the occurrences of backchannels in the interactions).

4.1.2 Showing Politeness through Repetition

Repetition in this study refers to other-repetition of part or whole utterances of the immediate prior turn. The following extracts show how J participants used other-repetitions in their interactions.

1. Exact Repetitions

Extract 5

Situation: Sp and J5 talked about the term for figurative language.

55.   J5   : *lelewaning basa napa lewaning basa Bu (P2)↑*

56.   Sp   : *lele↓*

57. → J5   : *lele↑*

58.   Sp   : *lelewaning basa↓*

59.   J5   : *nggih*

English Gloss

J5   : (is it) *lelewaning basa* (figurative language) or *lewaning basa* mother (P2)↑

Sp   : **lele** (the pronunciation of the first two syllables in *lelewaning*)

J5   : **lele**↑

Sp   : lelewaning basa (figurative language)↓

J5   : yes

In this exchange, J5 repeated the supervisor's whole utterance when asking for confirmation regarding the term used for figurative language in Javanese. J5 was not sure whether the lexical item '*lelewaning*' was written with double '*le*' or with one '*le*'. The repeat, Line 57, is exact repetition that was used to ask for confirmation. The supervisor confirmed by saying '*lelewaning basa↓*'. By repeating the supervisor's utterance to ask for confirmation, J5 displayed listenership and understanding of the talk. Showing listenership and understanding through the repetition, J5 conveyed politeness in the interaction.

2. <u>Reduced Repetitions</u>

Extract 6

Situation: Sp and J2 talked about empathy.

77.→   Sp   : iki dudu iki:: / iki:: apa ya empati thok yha↑ *kawigatosan* ming

78.   empati thok yha↑

79.→   J2   : *nggih namung* empati↓

English Gloss

Sp   : it is not this one / it is only empathy right **only empathy** (is involved) in attention right

J2   : yes **only empathy**

In the last part of his utterance, Sp elicited information by making a marked-proposal '*kawigatosan ming empati thok yha↑*' (only empathy is involved in attention right) which is an alternation of *krama, ngoko,* and BI (Lines 77 – 78). In J2's reply in Line 79, he answered 'nggih' (yes) and then he repeated part of Sp's utterance in the

alternation of *krama* and BI. J2 translated the '*ngoko*' lexical item '*ming*' (only) to the higher speech level *krama* becoming '*namung*' (only) while '*empati*' (empathy) is a lexicon in BI. Giving confirmation by repeating the previous utterance showed that J2 stressed his agreement to what the supervisor had said, and this action saved the supervisor's positive face. However, J2 used *krama* to show respect or deference that save the supervisor's negative face.

3. Expanded Repetitions

Extract 7

Situation: J3 and the supervisor talked about the terms used.

45.→ Sp   : =lha akrabe ki↑=
46.→ J3   : =akrab *akrabipun* / Bahasa Indonesia Pak↓
47.→ Sp   : iki ya iki ya hormat ki, ya *Basa Indone[sia]*
48.→ J3   :   [*nggih*] *Basa Indonesia*↓

English Gloss

Sp   : (how about) ***akrabe*** (closeness)↑

J3   : **(it is)** *akrabipun* **(closeness) / (it is) Bahasa Indonesia father**

Sp   : this (word) *hormat* (respect) is also Bahasa Indone[sia]

J3   :   [yes] Bahasa Indonesia

In this extract, J3 repeated the supervisor's utterances three times (Line 46 and Line 48). In Line 46, J3 responded to the supervisor's query by repeating part of the supervisor's preceding utterance. First, J3 first repeated it in BI by saying 'akrab' (closeness /familiarity), but then he changed the repeat using the *krama* form. In this repeat, he made the repetition by translating the ngoko lexical item '*akrabe*' into the *krama* form '*akrabipun*' that showed listenership as well as deference or politeness that was expressed in the use of *krama* speech level. In this repeat, there was a modification and also an initiation to provide further information.

As seen in the examples above, J participants used other-repetition as a device to convey politeness to their supervisors. Brown and Levinson (1987, p. 112 - 113)

consider that other-repetition is an involvement strategy to highlight agreement or interest to the interlocutor's preceding utterance and may satisfy the interlocutor's positive-politeness face in communication. However, the choice of using *krama* when repeating displayed deference and respect to saving the supervisor's negative face. From the instances of other-repetition in the data, other-repetitions delivered by the students show a particular pattern. When the repeated immediate prior utterance was in Bahasa Indonesia (BI), in *ngoko* (LL), or in the alternation of *ngoko* and BI, the students repeated the utterance by translating the repeated item into the higher level or *krama* (HL) or in the alternation of *krama* and BI.

The instances in the previous extracts showed that four forms of other-repetitions were used in the interactions. The form of other-repetitions frequently used was expanded repetition (see Figure 6 for the percentage of occurrences of other-repetition according to the forms in the interactions).

4.1.3 Showing Politeness through Overlapped Talk

Overlapping in this study refers to utterances that occur simultaneously with part or the whole of the current speaker's talk. In Javanese, interruption is considered to be unfavourable behavior, rude or impatient behavior (*ora sabaran*). Interrupting talk means that the one who interrupts does not know *tata krama* (good conduct). The following extracts show how J participants' talk overlapped that of the supervisors in their interactions.

a. Overlapping to Take the Floor

Extract 8

Situation: Sp and J2 discussed explicit and implicit instances of the data.

140.	Sp	:	langsung *karo* tidak langsung *iki, njenengan nganggo*
141.→			*sing endi*↑ *sing wingi kae tak duduhke awakmu,* [*si:ng*]
142.→	J2	:	[*kalawingi*]
143.			*ingkang* langsung *menika, ingkang* eksplisit Pak↓
144.	Sp	:	.hhhh ((watuk)) / hhh- eksplisit↑
145.	J2	:	*nggih*

English Gloss

Sp : direct and indirect which one that you used (is it) the one that I

    showed you the one [that

J2 :   **[It was the direct one the explicit one**

    father

Sp : .hhhh ((cough)) / hhh- explicit

J2 : yes

In Lines 140 – 141, Sp initiated the talk by enquiring '…*sing endi↑ sing wingi kae tak duduhke awakmu*'(is it the one that I showed you) and when Sp started to utter the lexical item 'sing' (which/that) J2 jumped into Sp's current talk. He took over the talk and provided the requested information by saying '*kalawingi ingkang* langsung *menika, ingkang* eksplisit Pak↓' (It was the direct one the explicit one father), Lines 142 – 143. In Javanese politeness, this interruption would be considered to be unfavourable behavior. However, from the emic prespective, the response from the supervisor did not display that it was unfavourable.

  b. Overlapping Backchannels

Extract 9

Situation: J5 and Sp talked about the examples of figurative language in a book.

109. Sp : =o *ngono ya nemoke telu, temokna telu, telu kuwi*

110.   *isa histeron siji,* [*apopase siji,*] *sarkasme siji↓*

111.→ J5 :   [em *nggih nggih nggih*]

112. Sp : *ngko paling ora telu* dianalisis .hhh *terus* // .hhh /

113.   ((watuk)) / …

English Gloss

Sp : o (it is) like that find three find three those three can be one hysteron

    [one apophasis and one sarcasm

J5 : **[em yes yes yes**

Sp : at least three will be analysed and then // .hhh/ ((cough)) …

118

In this extract, J5's utterance overlapped that of the supervisor's. The overlap occurred when J5 jumped into Sp's current utterance and provided backchannel responses (Line 111) in *krama* to show agreement to what the supervisor had said as well as to convey respect. The short responses do not change the supervisor's current turn. Instances of overlapping are evident in the data of all J participants.

c. <u>Overlapping Lexical or Phrasal Items</u>

Extract 10

Situation: J3 and the supervisor talked about the theory.

174.		dalam system honoritik, ora ana urusan usia::, tetapi dia tetap
175.		menghormat *awit* [*kontekipun*] <u>dia</u> itu RT, pejabat formal,
176.→ J3	:	[*kontekipun*]
177. Sp	:	/ *wonten ing* dusun ngono / iki ya, iki kudu tok enggo lho iki↓
178. J3	:	=*nggih* Pak=

English Gloss

Sp   : the system of honorific has nothing to do with age he/she respects the
          neighbourhood leader because **[the context]** is that he has the formal position

J3   :   **[the context]**

Sp   : in the neighbourhood (it is) like that so you have to use this

J3   : yes sir

In this extract, J3's utterances overlapped those of the supervisor. The overlap occurred when J3 jumped into the supervisor's current talk to provide a lexical/phrasal item in *krama* speech level. The lexical item in the overlap (Line 176) was the same as that of part of the supervisor's current utterance which showed attentive listening and involvement in the interaction as well as respect to the supervisor's negative face as the overlapped lexical item was delivered in *krama*.

J participants also interacted through overlapped talk that is considered to be impolite in Javanese interactions. The overlaps involved overlapping that took control of the current floor, and those that did not. Brown and Levinson (1987, p. 67) consider that

interruption threatens both the interlocutor's negative- and positive-face want. However, this face threatening act results in different interpretation when viewed from the emic prespective.

The number of instances of overlapping used by the students was higher than those uttered by the supervisor. The overlaps produced by the students were short responses. Most of the overlapping didn't take the floor, especially by the students. The utterances in these overlaps are not long utterances as can be seen in the previous extracts. The overlaps that most commonly occurred in the interactions were those to supply lexical items (see Figure 7 for the percentage of occurrences of J participants' overlapped talk)

4.1.4 Showing Politeness through Address Terms

Address terms in this study are those terms employed in addressing self and other in the interaction. Brown and Levinson (1987) consider that address terms showing respect or status deference convey negative politeness.

Address terms was another politeness device used by the J students in their interactions with their supervisors. J participants used address pronouns and kin address terms. They addressed themselves by using the *krama* form *kula* for 'I'. To address the supervisor, they used the *krama inggil* level *panjenengan* for 'you'. They also used the kin address terms *Pak*/(*I*)*bu* for 'father/mother' or kin address terms followed by the personal name.

   a.   Address Pronouns

Extract 11

Situation: J1 and the supervisor talked about the setting in the interaction.

90. → J1   : =lha *menika kula migatosaken ingkang* seting
91. →   suasana Pak, *saking teorinipu:::n jagading lelembut*
92. →   *panjenengan menika↓=*
93.   Sp   : =emm / ya wis sing dipentingke seting *swasana↓=*
94.   J1   : =*nggih*

English Gloss

J1 : **I** examined that from the setting of the situation father from **your** theory of ghost world

Sp : okay (what is) important is the setting of the situation

J1 : yes

In the extract above, J1 used both address pronouns and kin address terms. He used address pronouns to address himself using the *krama* form '*kula*' for 'I' (Line 90) to take a humble position and addressed the supervisor using the *krama* form '*panjenengan*' for 'you' (Line 92) to show respect and deference. The kin address term '*Pak*' (father) that was used to address the supervisor is usually used as a mark of respect for middle aged and older men. The choice of the honorific first person address pronoun *kula* for 'I' and the honorific pronoun *panjenengan* for 'you' showed that the student participants followed the concept of *andhap-asor* in Javanese culture that relates to being humble and at the same time to respecting the addressee.

   b. Kin Address Terms and Personal Names

Extract 12

Situation: J5 and the supervisor talked about data validation.

271. →J5   : *ingkang kalawingi ugi sanes* Bu (P2)↑

272.   Sp   : =hmm=

273.   J5   : =*nika* cara ngesahaken data *menika dipungantos*

274.   *mekaten*↓=

275.→ Sp   : =*saking* Bu (P3) *ingkang nggantos*↑ =

276.   J5   : =*nggih*=

English Gloss

J5 : the previous one is not the same either **mother (P2)**

Sp : hmm

J5 : the way to validate the data was changed like this (one)

Sp : is it mother (P3) who changed (this)

J5 : yes

In this extract, J5 addressed the supervisor by using a kin address term followed by her personal name '*Bu* (P2)' (Line 271) where P2 is the supervisor's personal name. *Ibu/bu* (mother) is a kin address term used with one's own mother or as a mark of respect for middle aged and older women.

4.2 Politeness in the Requests Made by Javanese Participants

J1 to J6 all employed requests that included those for action, information, repetition, confirmation, and clarification. Requests for an action occurred only in the data of J3. The following extracts provide instances of J participants' requests.

a. Requests for Action

Requests for an action are evident in the data of J3.

Extract 13

Situation: J3 and Sp talked about where to put the pattern of honorifics in the paper.

1. → J3   : *badhe* bimbingan Pak↓

2.   Sp   : *ya / wingi tekan ngendi*↑

3.   J3   : bab *sekawan*↓

4.   Sp   : bab *papa:t*↓

English Gloss

J3   : **(I) would (like to have) consultation father**

Sp   : yes/ what was the last part (discussed)

J3   : chapter four

Sp   : chapter fou:r

The above extract is at the beginning of the interaction between Sp and J3. J3 said '*badhe bimbingan Pak*↓' which means '(I) would (like to have) consultation father' (Line 1). J3's utterance is a request for an action to which Sp agreed by saying '*ya / wingi tekan ngendi*↑' that means 'yes / what was the last part (discussed)', to start the supervision session (Line 2). Sp's response in Line 2 shows that J3's request to have a consultation was agreed to. In delivering the request J3 used a form of declarative

and the *krama* form *badhe* (would) which is a modal in Javanese. *Krama* speech level and the kin address term '*pak*' (father) was used to make the request polite.

    b. <u>Requests for Information</u>

Extract 14

Situation: J4 and Sp talked about altering the theory if the title was changed

29.   J4   : *dadi mangke mena-*[*wi*]

30.   Sp   :   [itu] kan teknis *ngono*

31. → J4   : *napa gantos judulipun menika, / teori-teorinipun ugi* ditambahi Pak↑

32.   Sp   : ya disesuaikan teori ka::n / *ora* begitu anu

33.   penelitianmu kan naturalistik↓

34.   J4   : naturalistik

English Gloss

J4   : so if after this

Sp   : it's just a technical thing

J4   : **what (if I) change the title (should) the theory also (be) alternated father**

Sp   : yes (it) should match to the theory/ your research is naturalistic right

J4   : naturalistic

In Line 31, J4 produced a request for information by saying '*napa gantos judulipun menika / teori-teorinipun ugi* ditambahi Pak↑' that means 'what (if I) change the title, (should) the theory also be alternated father↑'. Sp responded by providing the required information by saying 'ya disesuaikan teori ka::n / …' (yes (it) should match to the theory) in Line 32. The requested information was delivered in Bahasa Indonesia (BI) and *krama* speech level that displayed politeness in the request.

    c. <u>Requests for Repetition</u>

Extract 15

Situation: Sp and J1 talked about the quantity of data.

1.   Sp   : hhh- / *kok okeh banget* Mas↑

2.　→　J1 `　　: *dospundi*↑

3.　　　Sp　　: *okeh banget / pirang nganu to datane pirang taun*↑

4.　　　　　　*pirang* terbitan↑

5.　　　J1　　: *setunggal taun*↓

English Gloss

Sp　　: why are they too many brother

J1　　: what/what did you say

Sp　　: (they are) too many / how many years are the data how many publications
　　　　　(are there)

J1　　: one year

In Line 1, Sp asked J1 about the quantity of J1's data, but J1 (Line 2) responded with a query by saying in *krama* '*dospundi*↑' (what did you say) that was a request for repetition. Literally, '*dospundi*' means 'how'. The use of *krama* in saying '*dospundi*' showed politeness in the request. In Line 3, Sp repeated part of his previous utterance '*okeh banget …*' (too many) to provide the information.

　　d.　Requests for Confirmation

Extract 16

Sp and J6 talked about the transcript and the diacritics used.

200.→ J6　　: =*namung dipun-*

201.　SP　　: he'em=

202.→ J6　　: =*cithak kandel*=

203.　Sp　　: =hu'um=

204.→ J6　　: =*boten napa-napa ta* Bu↑ =

205.　Sp　　: =*ra pa-pa*↓

206.　J6　　: *nggih*

English Gloss

J6　　: but

Sp　　: he'em

124

J6   : (it is) bold typed

Sp   : hu'um

J6   : **(it is) alright isn't it mother**

Sp   : (that's) fine

J6   : yes

In this exchange, J6 responded to Sp's explanation that it was not necessary to use diacritics by saying '*namung dipuncithak kandel boten napa-napa ta Bu*↑' that means 'but (it is) bold typed (it is) alright isn't it mother' (Lines 200, 202, and 204). At the end of these utterances J6 used the appealer '*ta*' followed by the kin address term '*Bu'* that is used to ask for confirmation or agreement from the addressee. Asking for agreement mitigated the request. The use of kin address term '*bu*' and *krama* speech level made the request by itself polite.

e.   Requests for Clarification

Directives to requests for clarification exist in the data of J2, J3, and J6.

Extract 17

Situation: Sp and J2 talked about the way to explain the lesson.

133.→ J2   : *ngangge cara niku, sampun leres napa dereng nggih* Pak↑

134.   *cara ngandharaken piwucalipun*=

135.   Sp   : =*nang nggon apa*↑

136.   J2   : *wingking piyambak napa nggih*↑ / lha *niku*=

137.   Sp   : =o *cara ngandharaken* hhh- (xxxx) hhh- *nggonamu neng*

138.   teori, ana cara langsung *karo ora* langsung *ta*↑

139.   J2   : *nggih*

English Gloss

J2   : **is using this way already appropriate or not yes father the way to explain the lesson**

Sp   : which part

J2   : it is on the last page / there it is

Sp   : oh the way to explain in your theory, you have direct and indirect

don't you

J2   : yes

In Lines 133 – 134, J2 asked a question by saying in *krama* level '*ngangge cara niku, sampun leres napa dereng nggih* Pak↑ *cara ngandharaken piwucalipun*' meaning 'is using this way already appropriate or not father the way to explain the lesson'. The use of *krama* displayed politeness. What was uttered by J2 is a request for clarification that ended with a tag and kin address term '*nggih* Pak' (yes father) that mitigated the request.

4.2.1 Directness Strategies in the Requests Made by Javanese Participants

The level of directness in J participants' requestive behavior involved direct and conventional indirect strategies. Direct strategies involve the use of direct questions that show the use of positive-politeness strategies, while conventional indirect strategies involve the use of query preparatories that convey the use of negative-politeness strategies.

  a. Direct Questions

Extract 18

Situation: J1 and the supervisor talked about the data.

191. Sp   : *ning* begi- begitu *lan* ngerti-ngerti ora ana embuh

192.   aliyan ngendi, ha iki kan neng kene (xx)=

193. →J1   : =*o nggih, lajeng menika kalih nggih*↑ *ngeten*↑=

194. Sp   : =telu, sing siji wutuh ngene ki::=

195. J1   : =*nggih, wutuh lebetaken mriki*↓=

196. Sp   : hhh- wutuh si::k=

197. J1   : =*kolomipun dospundi* Pak↑=

198. Sp   : =ha ya kolome iki

English Gloss

Sp   : but suddenly (it) disappeared (we) don't know where it moved this is (xx)

J1   : **oh yes there are two right↑ (it is) like this↑**

Sp   : three one is complete like this (one)

J1   : yes the complete (one) is included in here

Sp   : the complete (one) first

J1   : what about the column father↑

Sp   : this is the column

In this extract, J1 responded to Sp's utterance by saying in *krama* level '*o nggih lajeng menika kalih nggih↑ ngeten↑*' (oh yes there are two right↑ (it is) like this↑), Line 193, consisting of two direct questions: '*o nggih lajeng menika kalih nggih*↑' (oh yes so there are two right↑) and '*ngeten*↑' (it is like this↑). Direct questions used to request for information show the use of direct strategies that, according to Brown and Levinson (1987), convey the use of positive-politeness strategies. However, in Javanese the right choice of speech level *krama*, in this context, in relation to the status of the addressee determines politeness. The use of direct questions delivered in *krama* saved the supervisor's negative face and made the requests polite.

b. <u>Conventional Indirect Strategies</u>

Extract 19

Situation: J3 and Sp talked about where to put the pattern of honorifics in the paper.

1. → J3   : *badhe* bimbingan Pak↓

2.   Sp   : *ya / wingi tekan ngendi*↑

3.   J3   : bab *sekawan*↓

4.   Sp   : bab *papa:t*↓

English Gloss

J3   : (**I) would (have) consultation father**

Sp   : yes/ what was the last part

J3   : chapter four

Sp   : chapter fou:r

The exchange in this extract occurred at the beginning of the supervision session. J3 said '*badhe* bimbingan Pak↓' that means '(I) would (like to have) a consultation father.' The utterance is a declarative using a modal in *krama* level '*badhe*' that is equivalent to the English 'will/would'. This declarative utterance was perceived as a request for action as it was replied with 'yes' and a query of what the last part was. The use of '*badhe*' which is a *krama* level shows a respect behavior that addressed the supervisor's negative face. Thus, this conventional indirect strategy shows the use of a negative-politeness strategy and the choice of *krama* speech level shows respect and deference and made the utterance polite in Javanese. Showing respect and deference behavior suggests the application of negative politeness strategy (Brown & Levinson, 1987, p. 129-130).

Of the two head act strategies used, J participants commonly used direct requests delivered in *krama* in the interactions (98%).

4.2.2 Internal Modifications

This section presents the syntactical and lexical/phrasal modifiers used in the requests of J participants involving the syntactical modification and lexical/phrasal modification. Brown and Levinson (1987, p. 147) consider downgraders as 'weakeners' that weaken the imposition of the task on the hearer. The use of downgraders conveys a negative-politeness strategy. In Javanese, the right choice of speech level addressed to the interlocutor in the interactions would determine whether the utterance was polite or not.

4.2.2.1 Syntactical Modifications

The syntactical modification in the requests issued by J participants involved inquiries, declarative questions, ellipsis, and conditional clauses. The following extracts illustrate how they were used in the interactions.

    a.   Inquiries

Extract 20

Situation: Sp and J6 talked about using the theory of standard Javanese.

145. Sp   : *... iki ana basa*↑

146. J6   : *wonten ning namung sekedhik* Bu↓

147. Sp   : *ya ra pa-pa*↓

148.→ J6   : ***boten kedah dipun-*[*ilangaken*] *boten*** Bu↑

149. Sp   :   [*ilangi*↑]

150. →J6   : ***menapa boten napa-napa*** Bu↑

151. Sp   : ***boten napa-napa,*** *rasah diilangi ra pa-pa*↓

English Gloss

Sp   : ... is there any *krama*

J6   : there is but not many mother

Sp   : yes that's fine

J6   : (it) doesn't have to be [omitted mother

Sp   :   [omitted

J6   : **would that be alright mother**

Sp   : that is fine don't omit it that is fine

In Line 148 and Line 150, J6 delivered a query by saying in *krama* level '***boten kedah dipunilangaken boten*** Bu↑ ***menapa boten napa-napa*** Bu↑' which means '(it) doesn't have to be omitted mother would that be alright mother'. This utterance consists of two requests for information. The one in Line 150 is an inquiry as it employs the *krama* question word '*menapa*' for 'what'. The requested information was provided by the supervisor in Line 151. The use of *krama* level in the utterance showed deference and save the supervisor's negative face.

    b.   Declarative Questions

Extract 21

Situation: Sp and J2 talked about combining data which comes from the same books.

324. Sp   : *nganue* tujuan ***boten*** langsung (xxxx) *ngene ki, rak nganu* Mas

325.   ***njenengan*** kan *rung ndadeke siji sing* langsung-langsung=

326. →J2   : =***o dados setunggal*** buku ***menika dados setunggal niku*** Pak↑

327.   secara langsung ***menika*** [***dipun-***]

328.	Sp	:	[*nek mak*]*sutku nek sek sing*
329.			*kaya iki* langsung *iki karo iki ngono↓* hhh- *iki isa* langsung,
330.			*isa* langsung kabeh, lha iki rak langsung *sing ming neng*
331.			*iki tok↑*
332.	J2	:	*nggih*

English Gloss

Sp   : the direct aim (xxxx) brother (Mas) you haven't combined the direct
          (ones) into one (group)

J2   : oh so (those items from) one book are grouped into one father the direct
**   ones**

Sp   : what I meant the one like this is direct and also this one this one and this one
          is also direct but only in this one

J2   : yes

In response to Sp's comment about combining the direct data into one group, J2 responded by saying in *krama* level '*o dados setunggal* buku *menika dados setunggal niku* Pak↑' which means 'oh so (those items from) one book are grouped into one father' (Line 326). J2 requested for information in a declarative question that is categorised as a direct strategy showing a positive-politeness strategy. However, this declarative question was delivered in *krama* level that made the utterance polite and maintained the supervisor's negative face.

   c. <u>Ellipsis</u>

Extract 22

Situation: Sp and J3 talked about honorifics and address terms.

67.	J3	:	*menika wonten ing* sistem sapaan *kaliyan* penanda sayang↓
68.	Sp	:	*endi↑*=
69.→	J3	:	=*saged dipunlebetaken↑*
70.	Sp	:	lha angger teorimu bahwa honoritik itu termasuk dalam
71.			sistem sapaan *ya isa ta↓*=
72.→	J3	:	=*saged↑*=

130

73.   Sp   : =_isa_↓

74.   J3   : _nggih_

English Gloss

J3   : they are in the address terms and endearment

Sp   : where (are they)

J3   : (they) could be included↑

Sp   : if your theory says that honorifics are included in address terms yes (they)
             can can't they

J3   : **could** (they be included)↑

Sp   : (yes they) can

J3   : yes

In this extract, J3 responded to Sp's query concerning the address terms by saying '_saged dipunlebetaken_' meaning '(they) could be included'. J3's utterance was a request for information. In Line 70, Sp provided the requested information. In Line 72, J3 responded to Sp by saying '_saged_↑' (could) to request for confirmation. Sp delivered the confirmation by saying 'isa↓' (can). Both the requests were in ellipsis. _Saged_ and _isa_ are equivalent to the English 'can (be done/possible)', but _saged_ is a lexicon in _krama_ level while _isa_ is in _ngoko_. The use of _krama_ in this context made the utterance polite in Javanese.

   d. Conditional Clauses

Extract 23

Situation: Sp and J4 were at the beginning of the thesis supervision session and
            talked about the title of the thesis.

4. → J4   : _menawi / irah-irahanipun_ skripsi _kula kaliyan isi menika,_

5.   _menawi dipungantos_↑ _kadospundi_↑

6.   Sp   : wis karo aku rung↑

7.   J4   : _kalih panjenengan sampun_ Pak↓

131

English Gloss

J4   : **If / how about if I change the title and the content of the paper**

Sp   : have (you) been with me before

J4   : yes (I) have father

In this extract, when J4 asked about the change of title and the content he said in *krama*: '*menawi / irah-irahanipun* skripsi *kula kaliyan isi menika, menawi dipungantos↑ kadospundi↑*' that means 'If / how about if I change the title and the content of the paper' (Line 4 – Line 5). In this utterance, J1 used a conditional clause shown in the use of '*menawi*' (*krama* form for 'if') that mitigated the request and showed politeness as well as deference.

The examples of syntactical modifications in the previous extracts show that the J participants employed *krama* speech level in using conditional clauses, interrogatives, ellipsis, and declarative questions (see the percentage of the instances in Figure 9). The instances of ellipsis are combined with those of declarative questions. The most frequently used syntactical modification was declarative questions in which 2% of them was ellipsis.

4.2.2.2 Lexical and Phrasal Modifications

J participants used some lexical/phrasal modifiers to mitigate their requests that involved downtoners, appealers, appealers followed by address terms, and address terms. The use of lexical/phrasal modifiers that are downgraders show negative politeness. These downgraders were expressed using *krama* level that made them polite in Javanese, while the downgraders made the requests more indirect.

a.   Downtoners

Extract 24

Situation: J5 and Sp talked about meaning and semantic change.

44.   Sp   : he'em perkembangan meluas menyempit negatif semakin bagus↓ =

45. → J5   : =*dados prayoginipun makna basa rinengga menika*

46. →   *dipunhapus kemawon nggih* Bu↑ *supados [boten damel bingung]*

47.	Sp	:	[a::: *monggo* cek]

48.   *rumiyin,* cek *rumiyin karepe njenengan iki apa* …

English Gloss

Sp   : yes the change to a wider or narrower (sense) (it's) better

J5   : (it is) better to **just** omit the meaning of the figurative language right mother

      so (it) won't be confusing

Sp   : a::: please check first check what you actually want …

In this extract, in response to Sp's information regarding language change, J5 requested confirmation by saying in *krama* level '*dados prayoginipun makna basa rinengga menika dipunhapus kemawon nggih* Bu↑' that means 'so (it is) better to just omit the meaning and the figurative language right mother' (Lines 45 – 46). The downtoner '*kemawon*' for 'just' was used as an internal modifier to mitigate the request. The utterance became a little indirect, the politeness of the utterance emerging from the use of *krama* level that was chosen to respect the supervisor.

b. Appealers

Extract 25

Situation: Sp and J6 talked about using the theory of standard Javanese.

151.   Sp   : *boten napa-napa, rasah diilangi ra pa-pa*↓

152. →J6   : *boten perlu nggih*↑

153.   Sp   : *nggih penjenengan wis* anu *durung, kok isih*

154.   *uthek nang nggon* bab *siji loro telu*↓

English Gloss

Sp   : that is fine don't omit it that is fine

J6   : (it) is not necessary **right**

Sp   : yes have you done that one and why you are still doing chapter one two three

In Line 152, J6 responded to the supervisor by saying in *krama* level '*boten perlu nggih*↑' (it is not necessary right↑) to ask for confirmation. '*Nggih*' (yes/right) was an

appealer that was used to modify the request. In Javanese, *krama* speech level chosen to say the appealer in this context expressed politeness that maintained the negative face of the supervisor.

c. Appealers Followed by Kin Address Terms

Extract 26

Situation: J5 and the supervisor talked about meaning and the literature review.

123. J5   : =*menika* makna *saha ginanaipun dipunjumbuhaken*
124. →   *wonten ing gegaran* teori *nggih* Bu (P2)↑
125. Sp   : *nggih*=
126. J5   : =*sampun dipunandhara*[*ken*] *wonten ing gegaran* teori↓=

English Gloss

J5   : the meaning and the use are made relevant to the literature review
         yes mother (P2)↑
Sp   : yes
J5   : (I) have explained that in the literature review↓

In this extract, J5 responded to the supervisor's talk regarding 'meaning and the use' by saying in *krama* level, Lines 123 – 124, that was used to ask for confirmation. The request for confirmation was expressed using the tag and kin address term followed by personal name '*nggih* Bu (P2)' where P2 was the supervisor's personal name. *Krama* speech level that was used to express what was said, the appealer together with the address term displayed politeness used to maintain the supervisor's negative face.

d. Kin Address Terms

Extract 27

Situation: J4 and the supervisor talked about the title of the research.

61. Sp   : =*dadi sing wangun nggo judul ki njerone apa*↓ =
62. → J4   : =*dados boten sah dipunsubjudul niku* Pak↑=

134

63.   Sp   : =ya:: *asiling panaliten* terus pembahasan tu kan

64.   model-model *wong* penelitian / kuantitatif, …

English Gloss

Sp   : so what is suitable for a title is based on what is inside

J4   : so it doesn't need to be (given) a sub-heading **father**

Sp.   : ye::s the research result then the discussion are the

        model from the quantitative research…

In this extract, J4 responded to the supervisor's talk regarding what was suitable for a title by saying in *krama* '*dados boten sah dipunsubjudul niku* Pak↑' meaning 'so it doesn't need to be (given) a sub-heading father' (Line 62). J4's utterance is a request for information that ends in the kin address term *Pak* (father). The kin address term and the speech level chosen expressed politeness.

The above examples of internal modifiers used in the interactions showed that there were four internal modifiers used by J participants. The most frequently used was address terms (see the percentage of occurrences of internal modifications in Figure 10).

4.2.3 External Modifications

The external modifications used to mitigate requests involve the use of preparators, gratitude, grounders, and asking the interlocutor's opinion. The following extracts illustrate how the J students used external modifications in their interactions.

    a. Preparators

Extract 28

Situation: Sp and J6 talked about the information added in the theory.

1. → J6   : Bu *badhe nyuwun pirsa↓*=

2.   Sp   : =hu'um=

3.   J6   : *kalawingi kula sampun kepanggih kaliyan*

4.   *pembimbing kalih↓ lajeng*

135

5.	Sp	: hu'um
6.	J6	: *pembimbing kalih ndhawuhi supados*
7.		*dipuntambahi,*
8.	Sp	: *apa↑*
9.	J6	: *ingka::ng* / dialek *ngoten* Bu,
10.	Sp	: hm
11.	J6	: *ingkang* [*dialekipun*] *kedah dipuntambahi↓*
12.	Sp	: [*apane↑*]
13.	Sp	: *apane↑ sing dipuntambahi perangan pundi↑* // teori↑
14.	J6	: *nggih* teori↓
15.	Sp	: em::
16.	J6	: *supados bote::n* rancu *ngaten* Bu↓ *ingkang* // *niku*
17.	Sp	: heeh
18.	J6	: *kula: tambahi: / niku* Bu↓
19.	Sp	: *boten napa-napa, boten* substansi *sanget ta↑ pancen kalawingi*
20.		*nggih wonten ta↑ kedah wonten* dialek *Banyumasan ngaten ta↑*

English Gloss

J6 : **mother (I) would ask for (information) from (you)**

Sp : hu'um

J6 : yesterday I met the co-supervisor and

Sp : hu'um

J6 : the co-supervisor asked me to add

Sp : what

J6 : the …. / the dialect mother

Sp : hm

J6 : [the dialect has to be added

Sp : [what

Sp : what should be added which part // theory

J6 : yes theory

Sp : em::

J6 : so that it won't be ambiguous mother // that

Sp : heeh

J6   : I (have) added / that (one) mother

Sp   : that's alright it is not very substantial is it there should be *Banyumas*
         dialect right

This exchange occurred at the beginning of the supervision session. J6 delivered a preparator by saying in *krama* level 'B*u badhe nyuwun pirsa*↓' which means 'mother (I) would ask for (information)'. Sp acknowledged J6's utterance by saying 'hu'um'. J6 provided further explanation of what was to be asked. J6 firstly explained why J6 made the changes (Lines 3 – 4 and 6 – 7). In Line 9, J6 said that it was the dialect that was to be added, while in Line 16 J6 said the purpose of adding the information was to avoid ambiguity. Sp accepted the information added (Lines 19 – 20). In delivering the request J6 used a declarative form and the lexical item '*badhe*' (would) that is a modal in Javanese and the kin address term 'Bu' (mother). The preparator used made the request indirect and *krama* speech level used during the interaction by itself displayed politeness to respect the supervisor's negative face.

    b. <u>Expressing Gratitude</u>

Extract 29

Situation: J2 and the supervisor talked about sub-headings at the end of the
        supervision session.

406   Sp   : he'em dadi sube ming karo iki (xxxxx) dadi sube ming cara

407.   langsung *karo cara* [*boten* langsung] *ngono*↓

408.   J2   :   [*boten* langsung]

409.→ J2   : *nggih /matur nuwun* Pak↓

410.   Sp   : *nggih* hhh- pembimbing loro aku ya↑

411.   J2   : *napa*↑

412.   Sp   : pembimbing loro ya↑ =

413.   J2   : =*nggih ingkang setunggal* Pak (P3)↓

English Gloss

Sp   : he'em so the sub-heading is only this one (xxxxx) so the sub-
         headings are only the direct and [the indirect one (it is) like that

J2	:	[the indirect one
J2	:	**yes / thank you father**
Sp	:	yes (I am) the co-supervisor right
J2	:	what (what did you say)
Sp	:	(I am) the co-supervisor right
J2	:	yes the principal one is father (P3)

In this extract, after Sp explained the remaining sub-headings in the paper J2 expressed gratitude to Sp by saying in *krama* level '*nggih / matur nuwun* Pak↓' (yes / thank you father), Line 409. '*Matur nuwun*' (thank you) which is an expression of gratitude in Javanese. Expressing gratitude showed that J2 knew the Javanese *tata krama* (good conduct) and the speech level used to express gratitude demonstrated politeness in the interaction.

c. Asking the Interlocutor's Opinion

Extract 30

Situation: J4 and Sp talked about the change of J4's title.

21.	J4	: =*menawi* Bu (P3) *ngendikanipun menawi irah-irahan kula* mistik
22.		Jawa, *mangke wonten* lapangan e *wonten desa menika, bok bilih*
23.		masyarakat *menika boten remen* Pak↓
24.	Sp	: em:: lha rep diganti apa↑
25.→	J4	: *nggih / napa saenipun, kadospundi* Pak↑
26.	Sp	: =lho kok saene, saiki takon Bu (P3), kok arep diganti apa↑=
27.	J4	: =*nggih* Bu (P3) sih *ngendika / napa* upacara tradisi↓
28.	Sp	: *ya ra pa-pa diganti↓*

English Gloss

J4	: mother (P3) said if the title of my (thesis) is about Javanese mystics (I) will have difficulty in the field the society will not like it father
Sp	: em:: so what are (you) going to change it with
J4	: **yes / what is good (title) how (about that) father**
Sp	: why (asking) what is good, ask (P3), what is it going to be changed with

138

J4   : yes mother (P3) said / traditional ceremony

Sp   : yes that's fine

In this extract, J4 provided information to Sp regarding the title of the thesis which might be disliked by the society (Lines 21 - 23). After Sp had asked J4 what the title would be changed to, J4 delivered a request for information by saying in *krama* '*nggih / napa saenipun, kadospundi* Pak↑' meaning 'yes / what is good how about that father' (Line 22). In this utterance, J4 used the lexical item '*kadospundi*' that literally means 'how/in what way'. In this context, '*kadospundi*' may mean 'how about that' which is used to ask for the addressee's opinion. Asking for the addressee's opinion mitigated the request and made it indirect, while the chosen speech level (*krama*) displayed politeness in the interaction.

    d.   Grounders

Extract 31

Situation: J6 and the supervisor talked about one of dialects of Javanese

25. → J6   : *menapa ingkang nedahaken niku* dialek sosial *ngaten nggih* Bu↑

26.   Sp   : em↑

27. → J6   : *dados kalawingi miturut pembimbing kalih ngoten niku* rancu, e:

28.   *napa nggih kajianipun tak kula ngagem* sosiolinguistik,

29.   Sp   : he'em

30. → J6   : =*lajeng wonten* aspek-aspek dialektologi

31.   [*ngoten ta* Bu↑] *lajeng* pembimbing *kalih*

32.   Sp   : [hmm hmm

33. → J6   : *napa nyukani pamrayogi supados menika, panaliten menika*

34.   *ngengingi* bab dialek *Banyumas, ananging ingkang / dados* aktivitas

35.   sosial *ngaten lho* Bu↓ *dados kalebet* dialek social

36.   *ngaten*↓[*nggih* Bu↓

37.   Sp   :   [hu'um hu'um]

38.   Sp   : o ngono, *panjenengan* ora ngene ki *panganggening* dialek Banyumas

39.   *wonten ing* film sang penari *menika kalebet* dialek geografis, *boten*

40.   kok *panganggening* sing dialek Banyumas *menika* sing *kalebet* dialek

41.   geografis↓=

42.   J6   : =o *nggih* Bu=

43.   Sp   : =*nggih ta*↑=

44.   J6   : =*nggih*

English Gloss

J6   : **what is shown is a social dialect right mother**

Sp   : umm

J6   : **so the co-supervisor said that it was ambiguous e:: in the study I use sociolinguistics**

Sp   : he'em

J6   : **and then there are dialectological components it is like that isn't it mother and then the co-supervisor**

Sp   : hmm hmm

J6   : **gave suggestion that there should be Banyumas dialect included in social activity so it is involved in social dialect it is like that** [**yes mother**

Sp   :   [umm umm

Sp   : oh (it is) like that you can't do like this Banyumas dialect in the
         film The Dancer is geographic dialect it is not the use of
         Banyumas dialect that is included in the geographic dialect

J6   : oh yes mother

Sp   : yes isn't it

J6   : yes

In Line 25, J6 asked whether what was shown was a social dialect. J6's request for information was followed with some explanation in *krama* speech level '*dados kalawingi miturut* pembimbing *kalih ngoten niku rancu e: napa nggih kajianipun tak kula ngagem* sosiolinguistik' (so the co-supervisor said that it was ambiguous e:: in the study I use sociolinguistics) (Lines 27 – 28). J6 added an explanation by saying '*lajeng wonten* aspek-aspek dialektologi *ngoten ta* Bu↑ *lajeng* pembimbing *kalih*' (and then there are dialectological components it is like that isn't it mother and then the co-supervisor) (Lines 30 – 31). This explanation is followed by another explanation '*napa nyukani pamrayogi supados menika panaliten menika ngengingi* bab dialek Banyumas

140

ananging ingkang / dados aktivitas sosial *ngaten lho* Bu↓ *dados kalebet* dialek sosial *ngaten nggih* Bu' (gave suggestion that there should be *Banyumas* dialect that becomes social activity so it is involved in social dialect it is like that yes mother) (Lines 33 – 36). This extract shows that J6 made a request followed by an explanation as a grounder to make the request indirect. Moreover, politeness in the interaction naturally emerged from the use of *krama* that saved the supervisor's negative face.

The examples demonstrate that there were four external modifiers used in the interactions. The preferred ones were both grounders and asking the hearer's opinion (see the percentage of the occurrences of external modification in Figure 11).

4.3 Summary

J participants' politeness strategies were demonstrated through the use of backchannelling, other-repetitions, overlapping talk, address terms, and their requestive behaviour in the interactions with their supervisors. To be polite they provided *krama* form backchannel responses in different linguistic environments such as hesitation pauses, after rising intonations, after clause boundaries , and after *ngono/ngenten* (lho) 'how it is like/ it is like that'. They repeated their supervisor's preceding utterances in forms of exact, reduced, and expanded repetitions. They constantly used *krama* speech levels as they translated the repeated lexical item into *krama* form. Their overlapped talk also showed their politeness strategies. The overlaps occurred when they provided backchannel responses, supplied lexical/phrasal items, and took over the floor from their supervisor's current talk. In the interactions, they used the *krama* address pronoun *kula* for 'I' to address themselves, and the *krama* address pronoun *panjenengan* for 'you' (hon) to address the supervisors. They also addressed their supervisors using the kin address pronoun *pak/bu*(*k*) (father/mother) that is used to address middle-aged or older men/women respectfully.

In their requestive behaviour, J participants made their requests in *krama* speech level mostly for information to make the requests polite. They used head act strategies in the form of conventional indirect strategies to request for action, and direct questions to request for information. The direct questions were expressed using inquiries, declarative questions, ellipsis, and conditional clauses. Combination of internal modifiers often occurred in the head acts. The lexical/phrasal modifications used

involved downtoners, appealers, appealers followed by address terms, and address terms. The external modifications used involved preparators, gratitude, grounders, and asking the listener's opinion.

J participants appeared to be consistent in using *krama* speech level to maintain the negative face of the supervisor as it was the appropriate choice of speech level that showed how polite they were in the interactions.

4.4 The Politeness Strategies of Minangkabaunese Participants

This section presents findings that are germane to the second research question: 'What are the politeness strategies employed by students who are L1 speakers of Minangkabaunese in interaction with their academic supervisors who are also L1 speakers of Minangkabaunese in thesis supervision sessions conducted in Minangkabaunese?' The fonts used for Minangkabaunese and BI are as the following: 1) Font used for BI, and 2) font used for Minangkabaunese.

4.4.1 Showing Politeness through Backchannelling

The M participants showed their politeness strategies using backchannelling in their interactions with their supervisors. They employed both lexical and non-lexical backchannelling. The lexical items involved *yo* (yes), and *ya* (yes), while the non-lexical items included *ha::*, *hmm*, and *he'e*. There were no combinations of lexical and non-lexical backchannelling used in the interactions. Brown and Levinson (1987, p. 113 & p. 129) suggest that backchannel responses express 'brief agreement' and satisfy the interlocutor's positive-face want by showing attentive listening, and understanding of the talk. The following extracts below show instances of backchannel responses in their linguistic environments.

    a. <u>Rising Intonation</u>

Extract 32

Situation: M1 and the supervisor talked about the tradition of travelling.

528.   Sp   : kan ka pai berarti tu, kan sabalun pai tu↑=

529. →M1   : =iyo=

530.   Sp   : = nah iko buek ko yang berkaitan dengan / ha

531.   inyo maraso alun baguno …

English Gloss

Sp   : that's for going to go, so that means before going right

M1   : **yes**

Sp   : okay make this (one) that has relation to (it) / so he felt useless

In this extract, M1 produced a backchannel response (Line 529) after a rising intonation uttered by the supervisor. The backchannel response show M1's recognition and acknowledgement of what had been said by the supervisor. Showing minimal acknowledgement displayed politeness to satisfy the interlocutor's positive face.

    b.   <u>Clausal Boundaries</u>

Extract 33

Situation: M5 and the supervisor talked about data presentation.

230.   Sp   : misalnyo ko kan kalimatnyo ha itu kan yang

231.   matohari::kan tulisannyo dimiriangkan sadonyo

232. →M5   : =iyo

233.   Sp   : ha tu beko matohari yang iko, dihitaman

English Gloss

Sp   : for example this sentence that has (the word) *sun* is all written in italics

M5   : **yes**

Sp   : and then the word *sun* is written in bold

In this extract, M5 responded to the supervisor's talk by using a backchannel response, Line 232. The backchannel response was uttered after a clause boundary. The response was to indicate encouragement and recognition of the supervisor's talk. By displaying support M5 showed that she complied with the supervisor to fulfil the supervisor's positive face.

    c.   <u>After the Pragmatic Marker *lah*</u>

Extract 34

Situation: M6 and the supervisor discussed the spaces in the manuscript.

21.   Sp   : iyo kan↑ samo ko sadonyo **lah**

22. → M6   : hmm

23.   Sp   : ko satu::: satu spasi sadonyo ko ha / …

English Gloss

Sp   : yes they are all the same **okay**

M6   : **hmm**

Sp   : all of these should be one space / … (continued)

In Line 22, M6 uttered a backchannel response to respond to the supervisor's talk after the supervisor uttered the particle *lah*. The backchannel response was to accept what had been said by the supervisor. By showing acceptance to the talk M6 displayed politeness and satisfied the supervisor's positive face.

The occurrences of backchannels in the interactions were mostly after clausal boundaries and rising intonation (see the percentage of the occurrences in Figure 5).

4.4.2 Showing Politeness through Repetitions

The M participants also exhibited their politeness strategies using other-repetition. The other-repetitions are evident in the data of M1 – M6. Brown and Levinson (1987, p. 112 - 113) state that agreement can be emphasised through repetition that shows the use of a positive-politeness strategy. The instances of other – repetitions are illustrated in the following extracts.

    a.   Exact Repetitions

Extract 35

Situation: M2 and the supervisor talked about the data analysis.

394.   Sp   : hmm per duo puluah

395.→ M2   : per duo puluah /// lapan dibagi duo puluah

396.   Sp   : kali satuih

397.→ M2   : kali saratuih↓ /// ampek puluah Pak↓

English Gloss

Sp   : hmm **per twenty**

M2   : **per twenty** /// eight divided by twenty

Sp   : **times a hundred**

M2   : **times a hundred** /// forty father

This extract shows that M2 made other-repetitions in a form of exact repetitions. The other-repetitions occurred twice in Line 395 and Line 397. They were used to show acknowledgement of acceptance and agreement with what the supervisor had said. By repeating the utterance to show acceptance and agreement to the talk, M2 showed listenership and emotional agreement that satisfied the supervisor's positive face.

    b. Modified Repetitions

Extract 36

Situation: M6 and the supervisor talked about part of the data presentation.

156.   M6   : ndak baa itu tu diubah gitu Buk↑ tu kan banyak

157.   dongeng tu, berarti di belakangnyo tu dibuek lo

158.   dongeng dongeng gitu Buk ha

159. →Sp   : disken se

160. →M6   : disken Buk↑

161.   Sp   : hmm kok ndak dicopyan se

English Gloss

M6   : will that be all right to change (it like that) mother (there are) many fairy
          tales and that means the fairy tales are put in the appendix (it is) like that
          mother

Sp   : **just scan (them)**

M6   : **scan (them) mother↑**

Sp   : hmm if not (you) just copy (them)

In Line 160, M6 repeated the supervisor's preceding utterance and modified what was repeated from '*disken se*' (just scan them) to '*disken Buk↑*' (scan them, mother). The

repeat was used to acknowledge the receipt of the information and to request confirmation. The repetition ended in the use of a kin address term 'buk' (mother) to give respect to the supervisor. In this case, M6 applied *kato mandaki* (words that climb). By showing acceptance through the repetition, M6 displayed listenership that fulfilled the supervisor's positive and negative face in the interaction.

c. Reduced Repetitions

Extract 37

Situation: M4 and the supervisor talked about part of the manuscript.

444.   Sp   : hmm yang **bab duo** patang ko alah kan

445.→ M4   : **bab duo** ko alah / [lah a–]

446.   Sp   :   [ado] masalah lai=

English Gloss

Sp   : hmm **Chapter 2** has been (discussed) right

M4   : **Chapter 2** has (been discussed) / [(it) has

Sp   :   [is there any other problem

In Line 445, M4 made an other-repetition by repeating only part of the supervisor's preceding utterance. The repeat showed M4's involvement and listenership in the interaction as he repeated to gear up to answer. Showing involvement and listenership through the repetition, M4 conveyed the use of positive politeness in the interaction.

d. Expanded Repetitions

Extract 38

Situation: M3 and the supervisor talked about the text used in *randai jalik*, a traditional dance in Minangkabau culture.

111.   Sp   : a naskahnyo a jadinyo↑

112.→ M3   : naskahnyo naskah baru sin dipakai nyo Pak↓

113.   Sp   : o:: ndak naskah lamo do↑

114.→ M3   : ndak naskah lamo do, naskahnyo banyak banyak palito nyalo

146

115.   *palito alam* (xxxx) *itu itu se naskahnyo↓*

English Gloss

Sp   : what's **the text**

M3   : **the text** they use a new text father

Sp   : o:: **(it is) not an old text**

M3   : no **(it is) not an old text** most of the texts are only from *palito nyalo* (flash
            lamp) and *palito alam* (natural lamp)

In this extract, Sp requested more information about the text used in *randai jalik*
(randai dance) in Minangkabau culture, as in Line 111. In replying to Sp's query, M3
repeated part of Sp's prior utterance in Line 112 '*naskahnyo*' (the text) and Line 114
'*ndak naskah lamo do*' (no it is not an old text). By repeating Sp's utterances when
gearing up to answer and making confirmation, M3 displayed attentively listening to
serve the positive face of the supervisor.

In the interactions, the Minangkabaunese participants used expanded repetitions to
express politeness more than the other forms (see the percentage of the occurrences of
the other-repetitions in Figure 6).

4.4.3 Showing Politeness through Overlapped Talk

M participants also showed their politeness through their overlapped talk. The overlaps
that occurred in their interactions involved overlaps to take the floor, to provide
backchannel responses, to supply lexical/phrasal items, and to express disagreement.
Interruption is considered to threaten both the interlocutor's negative and positive-face
want (Brown & Levinson, 1987, p. 67). In Minangkabaunese, interrupting is
considered impolite. The following extracts provide illustrations of the instances of
overlaps in the interactions of M participants.

  a. Overlapping to Take the Floor

Extract 39

Situation: M4 and the supervisor talked about the characters in the legend.

292. Sp : [secara umum karakternyo baa↑ =

293. M4 : =karakter↑

294. →Sp : karakter sambilannyo [samo jo iko↑] =

295. →M4 : [nyo samo ndak samo] karakternyo jo iko do Bu,

296. nyo beda lo surang↓ nyo apo- nyo terlalu cepat mengambil

297. keputusan tu Bu ah ndak↑- misalnyo model waktu nyo nampak si::-

298. si Tir- si:: Putri Tanjuang samo jo si::- Bujang Pamenan tu, nyo

299. langsung se nyo kecek oo nyo iko ko madepeknyo nyo sadang

300. berzina … (basambuang)

English Gloss

Sp : [how is the character in general

M4 : character↑

Sp : the nine characters **[(are they) similar to this]**

M4 : **[they don't have similar] characters mother this**
    one is different he is very fast to make decisions mother for example
    when he saw Putri Tanjuang (a name) together with Bujang Pamenan
    (a name) he thought that they had committed adultery … (continued)

In Line 295, M4's utterance overlapped the supervisor's current talk. Then, both M4 and the supervisor continued, but the supervisor ceased her talk. M4 kept talking and held the floor.

b. Overlapping Backchannels

Extract 40

Situation: M5 and the supervisor talked about the theory in the study.

61. Sp : wacana [tu se] nyo kan

62. → M5 : [yo]

63. Sp : samantaro yang (P2) kaji↑ =

64. M5 : = bentuk

English Gloss

Sp : just these texts right

M5   : **yes**

Sp   : meanwhile (the one) that (you) study

M5   : (the) form

In Line 62, the overlap occurred when M5 responded to the supervisor's current talk using a backchannel response to acknowledge receipt of the information. This backchannel response did not make the supervisor stop delivering the information.

c. Overlapping Lexical or Phrasal Items

Extract 41

Situation: M6 and the supervisor talked about the data presentation.

8.   Sp   : iko samo iko [satu spasi ko] satu spasi ko

9. → M6   :   [satu spasi]

10.   Sp   : nampak jadinyo baonggok onggok data tu kan

11.   M6   : iyo

English Gloss

Sp   : this one and this one (should be) [**one space** (it should be) one space

M6   :   [**one space**

Sp   : so (it) becomes clear the data are in groups right

M6   : yes

In this extract, the overlapped talk occurred when M6 responded to the supervisor's current talk by saying in BI '*satu spasi*' (one space). M6 used it to supply a lexical item to the supervisor's talk, and the overlapped talk has the same lexical items.

d. Overlapping to Express Disagreement

Extract 42

Situation: M1 and the supervisor talked about meaning.

122.   Sp   : maknanyo ko akan (P2) maknanyo atau arti maknanyo ko harus satu

123.   kesatuan (P2)=

124.   M1   : =o::.iyo iyo tunggu lu Pak↓

125. →Sp   : kalau iko ndak bisa:: lo (P) anu [do:]

126. →M1   :   [ndak] nyo babeda Pak yo=

English Gloss

Sp   : the meaning or the sense of meaning has to be a unity (P2)

M1   : o:: yes yes wait for a moment father

Sp   : if (it is) this one you (P2) **[can not** [(make)

M1   :   **[no they are different** father

In Line 126, M1 responded to the supervisor's preceding utterances regarding the meaning. M1's utterance that expressed something different overlapped the supervisor's current utterance.

Most of the overlaps produced by the Minangkabaunese participants were in the form of supplying lexical items (see the percentage of the occurrences of the overlaps   in Figure 7).

4.4.4 Showing Politeness through Address Terms

The data of M1 – M6 show that the address terms used to address themselves and others involved the use of the address pronoun *awak/wak* (I) which was employed by M2 once and M3 six times. Most of the time, M1 – M6 addressed themselves by their personal name and their supervisors addressed them by their personal names. They addressed their supervisors by kin address terms such as *Apak/Pak* (father) and *Buk/Bu* (mother). According to Brown and Levinson (1987), address terms showing respect or status deference convey negative politeness.

a.   Address Pronouns

Extract 43

Situation: Sp and M1 talked about literature and culture.

339.   Sp   : itu namonyo Fakultas Budaya tu barubah, karano itu karano dalam

340.   sastra tu kan hasilnya itu kan kebudayaan itu↓

341.→ M3   : karena (P1) *takuik, kalau ditanyo beko* [karena **awak/ wak** *ndak paham*

342.   Sp   :   [*ndak do tu::*]

343.   M3   : *sastra do*

English Gloss

Sp   : the name becomes Faculty of Humanities because literature results in
        culture

M3   : I (P1) am afraid if they ask (about literature) [because **I** don't understand

Sp   :   [no

M1   : literature

To respond to Sp's suggestion to change the proposal to the study of literature, M3
addressed himself by *awak/wak* (I). *Awak/wak* in this context is first person pronoun
for 'I'. *Awak/wak* in Minangkabaunese is a pronoun which can refer to *I, my, me, we,*
or *us*. It depends on the context where it exists and literally it means *body*. M3 used
the pronoun '*awak/wak*' for 'I' to show respect to the supervisor as this pronoun is
used to talk to a respected person in Minangkabaunese.

  b. Personal Name to Address Self

Extract 44

Situation: Sp and M4 talked about getting information from (P3).

19. → Sp   : *selain (P3) // nyo ndak dapek* info *apo apo lain di (P2), selain dari*

20.   (P3) *do↑*

21. → M4   : *indak Bu / dari internet emang ndak do namonyo do Bu↓*

22. →   [*lah* **(P1)** *cari*

English Gloss

Sp   : other than (P3) // can't you (P2) get any information from the others other
        than (P3)

M4   : no mother / there is no name (like that) in the internet mother
        [I **(P1)** have looked (for it)

In Line 19, Sp addressed M4 by her personal name (P2) while M4 (Line 21) addressed Sp by a kin address term '*Bu*' (mother) and M4 addressed herself by her personal name (P1), as in Line 22. The use of the personal name to address themselves was evident in the data of M1 – M6. Personal names were also used by all the supervisors to address M1 – M6. There is no evidence that Sp addressed M1 – M6 with a personal pronoun.

c. <u>Kin Address Terms</u>

Extract 45

Situation: Sp and M1 were discussing aphorisms related to migration (leaving
      home town)

361.   Sp   : iko kan ndak ado hubungannyo dengan merantau ko do

362. → M1   : yang aponyo Pak↑

363.   Sp   : yang (P2) kecek an ko

364.   M1   : o petatah petitihnyo

English Gloss

Sp   : this one doesn't have any relation with migration does it

M1   : **which one father**

Sp   : the one you (P2) have said

M1   : o the aphorism

In this extract, M1 made two requests for information. M1's first query (Line 362) was about which item was talked about by Sp. In delivering this query, M1 used '*Pak*' (father) that is a kin address term of respect for middle-aged and older men. By addressing the supervisor by '*Pak*' (father), M2 displayed politeness and respect that saved the supervisor's negative face.

4.5 Politeness in the Requests Made by Minangkabaunese Participants

The requests issued by the M participants include those to request action and for information. The requests were mostly about information involving confirmation and clarification. Requests for action are evident in the data of M1, M2, M5, and M6.

a. Requests for an Action

Extract 46

Situation: Sp and M5 talked about the theory in Chapter Two.

27.	Sp	: … ha ah punyo sia:: (P2) ambiak ko↑
28. →	M5	: .hhh nggu lah Buk // hmm ///
29.	Sp	: punyo sia↑
30.	M5	: punyo (P3)

English Gloss

Sp	: … oh whose (theory) did you (P2) take
M5	: hhh **wait for a moment mother** // hmm ///
Sp	: whose is this
M5	: (P3)'s

In Line 27, Sp asked M5 about the theory that M5 used in the paper. M5 responded to Sp's query by saying '*hhh nggu lah Bu* // hmm ///' (wait mother), Line 28. '*Nggu lah Buk*' is an imperative. It starts with the verb '*nggu*' which is a short form of the verb '*tunggu*' (wait). '*nggu*' is very informal. '*Nggu lah Buk*' (wait mother) is a request for the action to wait. The particle '*lah*' gave emphasis to the verb 'nggu' (wait). In delivering the directive M5 paused (//) before saying 'hmm' and there were also pauses (///) between M5's utterance and Sp's utterance. This mood derivable-imperative is a direct strategy that conveys the use of a bald-on-record strategy. This direct strategy was modulated using a kin address term '*buk*' (mother) that made the request polite.

b. Requests for Information

Extract 47

Situation: M2 and Sp talked about how to present the data

117.	Sp	: ko nan ko yo mema::ng / lah lah diurutkan lah nilainyo atau baa
118.		ko↑
119. →	M2	: yang ma Pak↑
120.	Sp	: [[ko (xx)]

| 121. | M2 | : [[alah tulah] diurutkan dari yang tertinggi, dari batua yang tertinggi |
| 122. | | Pak |

English Gloss

Sp : what about this one / have (you) arranged the scores in order or what

M2 : **which one father**

Sp : [this (one) (xx)]

M2 : [(I) have those have been arranged from the highest correct score father

In the above extract, M2 delivered a request for information when M2 responded to Sp's query regarding the arrangement of the scores. M2 (Line 119) replied to Sp's query with another query by saying '*yang ma Pak↑*' (which one father) which is a request for information. Sp provided M2 with the required information by saying '*ko*' (this), as in Line 120. This request for information is a direct question that ended in a kin address term '*pak*' (father). The kin address term made the request polite in Minangkabaunese.

c. Requests for Confirmation

Extract 48

Situation: Sp and MI were discussing word meaning.

143.	Sp	: masak itu jo ndak ta tahu
144.→	M6	: iyo berarti yang yang prefik ta tu termasuk ya↑=
145.	Sp	: =masuk

English Gloss

Sp : (you) don't know that (small thing)

M6 : yes **so the prefix *ta* is included yes↑**

Sp : (it is) included

In Line 144, M6 delivered a request for confirmation. The request for confirmation is a declarative question that ends in an appealer '*ya*' (yes) uttered in questioning contour. Sp provided the response by saying '*masuk*' meaning '(it is) included'.

d.   Requests for Clarification

Extract 49

Situation: J5 and the supervisor talked about how to present the findings.

214.   Sp   : a:: tu beko matohari ko, dihitaman / [karano tu data]

215. →M5   :   [oo yang yang] yang iko

216. →   diduluan **yang iko yang pertamo atau kalimat iko↑**

217.   Sp   : =kalimat↓=

218.   M5   : =oo kalimat

English Gloss

Sp   : a:: then the word *sun* is bold typed / [because it's the data

M5   :   [oh this one (should) come

        first **this one that comes first or this sentence**

Sp   : the sentence

M5   : oh the sentence

In this extract, M5 responded to the supervisor's talk regarding the data by saying '*oo yang yang yang iko diduluan yang iko yang pertamo atau kalimat iko↑*' meaning 'oh this one (should) come first this one that comes first or this sentence', (Line 215 – Line 216). M5's utterance is a request for clarification, and the supervisor provided the clarification by saying '*kalimat*' meaning 'the sentence', (Line 217).

e.   Requests for Repetition

Extract 50

Situation: Sp and M4 talked about their next meeting.

450.→ Sp   : bilo lai↑

451.→ M4   : hmm↑

452.→ Sp   : bilo lai katemu↑

453.   M4   : bilo rancak bu↑

454.   Sp   : salasaian lah dalam saminggu ko

English Gloss

Sp   : when (will we meet) again

M4   : **hmm**

Sp   : when (will we) meet again

M4   : when (is it) better mother

Sp   : do it in this week

In Line 450, Sp inquired when the next meeting would be. M4 replied by saying 'hmm' with rising intonation. Sp repeated the query and added the lexical item *ketemu* (meet) in the enquiry. In this extract, 'hmm' uttered with rising intonation is a request for repetition.

4.5.1 Directness Strategies in the Requests Made by Minangkabaunese Participants

The strategies used involved direct requests and conventional indirect requests. The M participants used direct strategies which involved imperatives, direct questions, obligation statements, and performatives. Conventional indirect requests were employed by M1, M5, and M6. All the participants used direct questions, while obligation statements were only used by M6.

a.   Imperatives

Extract 51

Situation: Sp and M1 talked about meaning in aphorism.

122.   Sp   : <u>maknanyo ko akan (P2) maknanyo atau arti maknanyo ko harus satu</u>

123.   kesatuan (P2)=

124. →M1   : =o::.iyo iyo tunggu lu Pak↓

125.   Sp   : kalau iko ndak bisa::lo (P) anu [do:]

126.   M1   :   [ndak] nyo babeda Pak yo=

English Gloss

Sp   : the meaning or the sense of meaning has to be a unity (P1)

M1   : o:: yes yes wait for a moment father

Sp   : if (it is) this one you (P1) **[can not** [(make)

M1   :   **[no] they are different** father

In the extract above, after Sp commented on the unity of meaning, M1 said '*o:: iyo iyo tunggu lu Pak*' meaning 'o:: yes yes wait for a moment, father', Line 124. '*Tunggu lu Pak*' which is an imperative used to request for an action on the part of the addressee (Sp) to wait or to give some time to think. The directive begins with the verb *tunggu* (wait) and followed by an adverb *lu* which is the shortened form of *dulu* (before), in this context, it means 'for a moment'. The mood derivable-imperatives, evident in the data of M1, M2, M5, and M6, are direct strategies that show the use of a bald-on-record strategy. The imperative was modified by the use of kin address term '*pak*' (father) that showed respect to the supervisor.

    b.   Direct Questions

Extract 52

Situation: Sp and M3 talked about interculturalism.

223.	Sp	:	pencampuran budaya / lah wak agiah buku-buku Hamka ka inyo
224.			/ a:: itu
225.→	M3	:	dipangaan tu Pak↑
226.	Sp	:	dianalisis // di- di- diapoan dianalisis itu tu interkulturalisme, jadi
227.			itu wak tanyo itu belum ado pernah yang melakukan penelitian itu,
228.			alun ado lai do ha..jadi yang penting maneliti tu kan iko / mudah
229.			awak kuasoi

English Gloss

Sp   : intercultural / okay I gave him the books written by Hamka / what (is) that

M3   : **(what to) do with (the books) father**

Sp   : to be analysed // to be analysed and that (is) interculturalism and there

        hasn't been any research about that so what is important (in conducting) a

        research (is) this / (it is) easy for us to do (it)

157

M3 responded to Sp's information by saying '*dipangaan tu Pak↑*' (Line 225) meaning '(what to) do with (the books) father'. The request for information is a direct question that, as a direct strategy, was modified using a kind address term '*pak*' (father) that is commonly used to respect the addressee. The kin address term used would make the request polite in Minangkabaunese.

    c. <u>Obligatory Statements</u>

Extract 53

Situation: M6 and Sp talked about the formula of phonemic change.

293.	Sp	: (P3), kaidahnyo ma nyo kaidahnyo tantu lah ngarati kan↓
294.→	M6	: kaidahnyo:: yo yang rumus rumus iko Buk yang parlu ditarangan
295.	Sp	: baok apo Ibu tu (P2) //// buek se iko ndak, misalnyo
296.		iko ndak ba tambah ubah jadi barubah, sehinggo adonyo
297.		panambahan fonem r nah dari awalnyo
298.		<u>tidak ada</u> fonem
299.	M6	: tidak ada fonem

English Gloss

Sp   : (P3), where are the principles (you) have understood them haven't you

M6   : **of the principles these formulas that have to be explained mother**

Sp   : take mine (P2) //// do it like this for example *ba* (prefix) added by *ubah* (to change) becomes *barubah* (change) so there is addition of the phoneme r whereas initially there is no phoneme r

M6   : there is no phoneme

In Line 294, M6 responded to Sp's query about whether M6 had understood the rules. In her utterance, M6 used the lexical item *parlu/paralu* which means 'need or have to'. It is a modal in Minangkabaunese. This request for an action is in a form of an obligation statement that is a direct strategy showing the use of a positive-politeness strategy. M6 used the kin address term '*buk*' (mother) to soften the direct request used, and the direct request followed a kin address term would be perceived polite in Minangkabaunese.

d. Performatives (unhedged)

Extract 54

Situation: Sp and M5 talked about the literature review and discussion chapters.

94. Sp : ado yang object nyo samo, ado yang teori nyo samo

95. M5 : yo

96. Sp : apo yo emang seperti tu::

97. → M5 : tu yang ka (P1) tanyo samo Ibu

98. Sp : ((tertawa)) kalau tinjauan pustaka tu ndak, yang

99. objek nyo samo jo awak

English Gloss

Sp : there are the objects (which are) the same there are the theories (which are) the same

M5 : yes

Sp : is it really like that

M5 : **that's what I will ask you (mother)**

Sp : ((laugh)) if in the literature review the object is the same as ours

In Line 96, Sp made an inquiry concerning the theory and the object of the study. In response to the inquiry, M5 said '*tu yang ka* (P1) *tanyo samo Ibu*' (that's what I will ask you, mother), Line 97. Sp laughed and provided the explanation (Line 98 – Line 99). The declarative uttered by M5 is an unhedged performative showing the use of a positive-politeness strategy. The performative that ends in kin address terms '*ibu*' (mother) would be considered polite in Minangkabaunese.

e. Conventional Indirect Strategy

Extract 55

Situation: Sp and M4 talked about the CD that M4 needed

106. Sp : di:: rumah Ibu ado mah

107. → M4 : ado Bu↑

108. Sp : hmm haa yo ambiak a:: pernah tingga a:: ado vidioge- geografi ko

109. kan↑

English Gloss

Sp   : I have (one) at home

M4   : **(do) you have (it) mother**

Sp   : hmm pick (it) up there is geography in this video isn't there

In response to Sp's information that she had the video, M4 asked for confirmation by asking about its availability by saying '*ado Bu*' meaning '(do you) have (it) mother' (Line 107). Sp confirmed the information by saying 'hmm pick (it) up there is geography in this video isn't there'. A query preparatory is a conventional indirect strategy that shows the use of a negative-politeness strategy.

The Minangkabaunese participants used various head acts, but the dominant strategy of the head acts used in the interaction was direct questions that are the most direct form to request for information (see the percentage of the occurrences of head act strategies in Figure 8).

4.5.2 Internal Modifications

This section presents the syntactical and lexical/phrasal modifiers used in the requests of M participants in their interactions with their supervisors.

4.5.2.1 Syntactical Modifications

The syntactic modification of requests issued in the interactions of M participants in the supervision sessions involved inquiries, declarative questions, ellipsis, and non-lexical item questions. The instances of the syntactic modification used are illustrated in following extracts.

a.   Inquiries

Extract 56

Situation: Sp and M3 talked about CDs and tapes.

292.   Sp   : hmm // cari cari gamaik yang yang baputa kaset, jan cd cd payah

293.   wak dek inyo //

294.→ M3   : baa cd payah Pak↑

295.   Sp   : capek aponyo habis aponyo tigo kali putar habis beko lah lah rusak

296.   cdnyo, kalau jo kaset (xx) / pikiar-pikiar dulu ma ma kiro-kiro yang

297.   mudah … (basambuang).

English Gloss

Sp   : hmm // find *gamaik* (song/music) in tapes not in cd cd is not good

M3   : why is the cd not good father

Sp   : (The cd) easily gets broken if (you) play the cd for three times it will be

broken (but it is not like that) with a tape (xx) / think which one is easier

… (continued)

When Sp asked M3 to find a *gamaik* song in tapes not in a CD (Lines 292 – 293), M3 responded by querying '*baa cd payah Pak↑*' meaning 'why is the CD not good father', Line 294. A request that is started with the lexical item *baa* (why) is an inquiry. The inquiry ended in kin address term '*pak*' (father) that made the direct request polite in Minangkabaunese.

b.   Declarative Questions

Extract 57

Situation: Sp and MI2 talked about the spaces used in the manuscript.

440.   Sp   : ko satu spasi jo ha

441.→ M2   : berarti yang yang kolomnyo satu spasi jo Pak↑

442.   Sp   : kolom satu spasi /// ko (xx) ya

443.   M2   : yo Pak

English Gloss

Sp   : this is also one space

M2   : so (that) means the column is also one space father

Sp   : the column is one space /// this (xx) yes

M2   : yes father

After Sp commented on the spaces used in the manuscript, M2 responded by saying '*berarti yang yang kolomnyo satu spasi jo Pak↑*' that means 'so the column is also one

space father', Line 441. The response is a declarative that ends with a kin address term *Pak* (father) in question contour. The kin address term made the declarative question, a direct strategy, polite in Minangkabaunese interaction.

c. <u>Ellipsis</u>

Extract 58

Situation: M3 and the supervisor talked about the *gamaik* (kind of music) teacher.

378.   Sp   : ha tanya samo (P3), ambo raso seorang Palinggam ado tumah

379.   M3   : Palinggam Pak↑

380.   Sp   : he'e cubo tanyo jo Apak tu, ma ado guru gamaik yang masih hiduik

            Pak, yo dima tampeknyo sabuk ciek … (basambuang)

English Gloss

Sp.   : ha ask (P3) I think there is one Palinggam

M3   : **Palinggam father** (Palinggam is a suburb)

Sp   : he'e try to ask (P3) is there any *gamaik* teacher who is still alive father ask

            him where the location is … (continued)

In this extract, when the supervisor mentioned that there was one *Palingam* (someone from Palingam), M3 asked for confirmation by saying 'Palingam Pak↑' which is an ellipsis ended in a kin address term '*pak*' (father) to respect the addressee.

d. <u>Non-Lexical Item Questions</u>

Extract 59

Situation: Sp and M4 talked about the writers of the legends.

419.   Sp   : kan masih ado yang ka ditambah kan↑

420.→ M4   : hmm↑

421.   Sp   : kan masih ado kan yang ka ditambah kan↑

422.   M4   : ndak

English Gloss

Sp   : these (the writers of the legends) are to be added aren't they

M4 : **hmm**

Sp : these (the writers of the legends) will be added won't they

M4 : no

M4 responded to Sp's query for confirmation as to whether the writers of the legends would be added by saying 'hmm' in rising intonation. Sp repeated the query (Line 421). The non-lexical item 'hmm' uttered in rising intonation functioned as a request for repetition.

Of the syntactical modifications, declarative questions were the most frequently used by the Minangkabaunese participants (see the percentage of the occurrences of syntactical modifications in Figure 9). Eight percent of the declarative questions was ellipsis.

4.5.2.2. *Lexical and Phrasal Modifications*

The lexical and phrasal modifications used by M participants involved address terms, understaters, downtoners, the appealers *kan* and *nak*, and the appealer followed by a kin address term. All the lexical and phrasal modifiers employed were downgraders. Brown and Levinson (1987, p. 147) consider downgraders as 'weakeners' that weaken the imposition of the task on the hearer. The use of downgraders convey a negative-politeness strategy.

  a. Understaters

Extract 60

Situation: Sp and M2 talked about the format of the paper

94. Sp : ndak ado yang pas (xxx) /// samo diateh ko mah

95. → M2 : yo Pak dikatehan setek lai Pak ↑

96. Sp : iko iko so dikatehan / (xxxx) ko tigo diambiak ko ha / hmm / tigo::

97.   ko satu ikokan harus ado siko abstrak list of table

98. M2 : yo Pak

English Gloss

Sp   : none fits (xxx) /// the same position it up right okay

M2   : yes father (it) is position up right **a little bit** father

Sp   : just this and this one are put up right / (xxxx) make these three into one

         there has to be an abstract and a list of tables here

M2   : yes father

In Line 95, M2 responded to Sp's directive by saying '*yo Pak dikatehan setek lai Pak↑*' (yes father (it) is put up right a little bit father). M2 used the lexical item '*setek*' (a little bit) which is an understater to mitigate the force of the request. This understater is followed by an address term '*pak*' (father) that made the request polite.

b. Downtoners

Extract 61

Situation: M6 and the supervisor talked about the prefix *sa* in Minangkabaunese.

92.   Sp   : kalau saikua indak, tapi kalau saruma::h

93.   sapatiduran sakandang

94.   M6   : sakandang

95.   Sp   : ha

96. → M6   : jadi bilangan tu se yang ndak tamasuk ka dalam

97.   itu Buk↑

98.   Sp   : ha ndak ndak, sakandang ta masuak tu↓ ado ndak

99.   data seperti itu

100.   M6   : umm:: ndak ado [doh Buk

101   Sp   :   [ndak ado doh

English Gloss

Sp   : no if (it is) not for one (for animal) but (it is for staying in the) same house

         (sleeping in the) same bed (being in the) same cage

M6   : (being in the) same cage

Sp   : yes

M6   : so **just** that number that is not included ↑mother

Sp   : oh no no (being in the) same cage is included is there any data like that

M6   : umm:: no there [isn't mother

Sp   :   [no there isn't

In Line 96, M6 responded to the supervisor's preceding talk by saying 'jadi bilangan tu se yang ndak tamasuk ka dalam itu Buk↑' meaning 'so just that number that is not included mother↑'. M6 used the downtoner *se* (just) to soften the request and the kin address term '*buk*' (mother) to make the request polite.

   c. <u>Appealer *kan*</u>

Extract 62

Situation: Sp and M1 were discussing about the theory of hermeneutics in the
           literature review

584.   Sp   : iyo:: beko sia yang maagi- ya::ng / menguraikan

585.   tentang hermaneutik, beko (P2) harus piliah (P2) [tamasuak]

586. →M1   :   [hermaneutik yang]

587. →   masuak logi- rasional atau logika tu yo kan↑

588.   Sp   : nda::k maksudnyo yang harus (P2) putuskan, (P2) makai teori <u>sia</u>

589.   beko↑

590. →M1   : (P3) misalnyo kan↑

591.   Sp   : ha (P3) ha jadi seluruh analisis (P2) berdasarkan (P3) itu↓ iko a

595.   iko bagian terakhirnyo

English Gloss

Sp   : yes next you (P2) must choose who describes hermeneutics

M1   : the hermeneutics which is rational or logical **right**

Sp   : no I meant you (P2) have to decide whose theory is to be used

M1   : for example (P3) **right**

Sp   : okay (P3) so you (P2) to analyse it all according to (P3)
      this is the last part

In this extract, M1 delivered two requests for information. In Lines 586 – 587, M1 delivered a request ending in the tag 'yo *kan*' (right) to ask for confirmation. In Line 588, Sp provided the confirmation by saying 'no …' (*nda::k* …). In Line 590, M5 responded to Sp's query with another request for confirmation regarding the theory to be used by using the tag '*kan*' (right) at the end of the utterance. '*Yo kan / kan*' is the same as the English tag 'isn't it' or 'right' and is an appealer to downgrade the force of the request.

   d. Appealer *nak*

Extract 63

Situation: M5 and Sp were discussing about data classification and data presentation

176.   Sp   : ado Ibu baco waktu tu // di jalehan di apo tu
177.   di:: [teori tu]
178. →M5   :   [berarti bab] duo ko dari siko se mulainyo
179. →   bentuk pegang gadai sampai ka bawah nak↑
180.   Sp   : hmm // maknanyo ko ka menjelaskan
181.   berdasarkan/segi budaya

English Gloss

Sp   : I read it that time // explain it in the [theory
M5   :   [so chapter two the mortgage
           starts from here until that one **right**
Sp   : hmm // (you) explain the meaning based on / culture

To respond to Sp, M5 jumped into Sp's current utterance by saying '*berarti bab duo ko dari siko se mulainyo bentuk pegang gadai sampai ka bawah nak↑*' (so Chapter Two the mortgage starts from here until that one right'), Lines 178 - 179. At the end of her utterance she used '*nak*' which is a tag in Minangkabaunese that means 'right', 'isn't it', or 'you know'. '*Nak*' and '*kan*' are appealers used to mitigate a request.

   e. Appealers Followed by Kin Address Terms

Extract 64

Situation: Sp and MI2 were discussing how to do the calculation

246. Sp   : hmm yang (xx) memang sia lah dapek data de::k // hmm baa caro

247.   mencari // baa   caronyo mancari lah dapek dek (P2)↑ / ka diapoan

248.   dek (P2) ko↑

249. →M2   : caro ko jo ndak Pak↑

250. Sp   : hmm (xx) caliak dulu ...

English Gloss

Sp   : hmm who has got the data // hmm how to do it // how to do it have you (P2)

        got it / what are you (P2) going to do with it

M2   : (it is) in this way too **isn't it** father↑

Sp   : hmm (you) check first …

Sp asked M2 about what M2 was going to do with the numbers (Lines 246 – 248). M2 responded by saying '*caro jo ko ndak Pak*↑' (it is in this way too isn't it father) (Line 249). M2 used '*ndak*' (isn't it or right) that is a tag or an appealer followed by the kin address term '*Pak*' (father). The combination of an appealer followed by a kin address term was used to mitigate the request and to make the request polite in Minangkabaunese interaction.

Of the internal modifications, address terms were the most often used by Minangkabaunese participants. All the lexical modifiers used were downgraders that showed the use of negative politeness strategy. The percentage of the occurrences of the internal modifications in the interactions can be seen in Figure 10.

4.5.3 External Modifications

The external modifications used involved preparators, asking the hearer's opinion, and grounders. The instances of external modification used in the interactions of the M participants are provided in the following illustrations.

    a.   Preparators

Extract 65

Situation: Sp and M5 talked about the coding of the letter used.

357. →M5   : Ibu iko ciek lai Bu, ha,kan untuk mangkodekan

358.   surek yang (Pl) pakai ko

359.   Sp   : hmm

360. →M5   : lai mangarati kiro kiro urang tu ko↑

361.   Sp   : iyo kan lai kan di buku ditulis beko a yang

362.   dituliskan beko daftar singkatan

English Gloss

M5   : mother **here is another one** the coding of the letter that I used

Sp   : hmm

M5   : will (they) understand this↑

Sp   : yes it's written in the book isn't it next what will be written is the list of
         abbreviations

In Line 357, M5 said '*Ibu iko ciek lai Bu, ha kan untuk mangkodekan surek yang (P1) pakai ko*' (mother here is another one the coding of the letter that I used). In this utterance, M5 used the preparator '*iko ciek lai*' (here is another one). In this context it means this is another question or problem. It was used before M5 actually delivered the query which was '*lai mangarati kiro kiro urang ko*' (will they understand this), in Line 360. The preparator is an external modifier to downgrade the force of the request. In expressing the preparatory, M5 use two kin address terms '*ibu*' and '*bu*' (mother) to make the request polite and satisfy the supervisor's negative face.

b. Asking the Hearer's Opinion

Extract 66

Situation: Sp and M1 talked about how to write and pronounce the data

90.   Sp   : kan ciek ko kalau ndak ado / kalau ndak ado

91.   pemisahan takah iko a:: / kan ciek jadinyo ikonyo

92. → M1   : tapi kalau urang manyabuik, mangucapkan

93.   dalam di lapangan kan diang- dirangkainyo mah Pak

94.   SP   : hmm

95. → M1   : baa tu Pak↑
96.   Sp   : <u>pasti</u> ado jeda
97.   M1   : iyo yo iyo

English Gloss

Sp   : this is one isn't it / if there isn't any separator like this / this becomes one
          doesn't it
M1   : but when people say them they blend (them) father
Sp   : hmm
M1   : **what about that father**
Sp   : (there) must be a pause
M1   : yes yes yes

In this interaction, M1's argument was contrary to Sp's explanation expressed by saying '*tapi kalau urang manyabuik, mangucapkan dalam di lapangan kan diang-dirangkainyo mah Pak*' meaning 'but when people say them they blend (them) father)' (Lines 92 – 93). Following the argument M1 asked the supervisor's opinion by saying '*baa tu Pak*' (what about that father), Line 95. In saying the argument and asking the supervisor's opinion, M1 used a kin address term '*pak*' (father) to express respect to the supervisor.

  c. Grounder

Extract 67

Situation: M6 and Sp talked about prefixes.

72. → M6   : kalau prefik yang lainkan (P1) ado pakai kayak
73.   seikua saikua itu tu masuk mana↑
74.   Sp   : seikua itu tu kan
75. → M6   : seikua jadi saikua gitu Buk
76.   Sp   : saikua apo aponyo ko↑ apo prefiknyo
76. → M6   : maksudnyo sa
77.   Sp   : ado
78.   M6   : prefiknya (P3)

169

79.   Sp   : ada gak sa↑

80.   M6   : ndak

81.   Sp   : ado::: sarumah kan sa::pamandian sapatiduran,

82.   tapi saikua itu bukan prefik tapi menyatakan satu↓

English Gloss

M6   : I (P1) used other prefix such as *seikua saikua* (one for animal) which (classification do they) belong to

Sp   : *seikua* (the one for animal) is

M6   : *seikua* **(the one for animal) becomes** *saikua* **(one for animal) (it's) like that mother**

Sp   : *saikua* is it about the prefix

M6   : **(I) mean (the prefix)** *sa*

Sp   : is there any

M6   : (according to) P3's prefix

Sp   : is there any (prefix) *sa*

M6   : no

Sp   : ye::s (there is) *sarumah* (stay in the same house) isn't it *sa::pamandian* (in the same bathroom) *sapatiduran* (sleep in the same bed) but *saikua* is not a prefix but it refers to number

In this interaction, M6 asked about the lexical items *seikua saikua* (one for animal) by saying '*kalau prefik yang lainkan (P1) ado pakai kayak seikua saikua itu tu masuk mana*' (Lines 72 – 73). Sp replied to M6's query by saying '*seikua itu tu kan*' (*seikua* is) which actually didn't provide the expected answer (Line 74). M6 provided an explanation by saying '*seikua jadi saikua gitu Buk*' meaning '*seikua* becomes *saikua* (one for animal) (it's) like that mother' (Line 75). When Sp wanted further explanation, M6 provided more explanation by saying '*maksudnyo sa*' meaning '(I) mean (the prefix) *sa*'. In this extract, M6 provided an explanation as a grounder preceded by the query. M6 also addressed the supervisor by '*buk*' (mother) to show respect to satisfying the supervisor's negative face.

Three external modifiers were employed by Minangkabaunese. Grounders and asking the hearer's opinion were frequently used by them. The percentage of the occurrances is presented in Figure 11.

4.6 Summary

M participants conveyed their politeness through the use of backchannelling, other-repetitions, overlapped talk, address terms, and their requestive behaviour in the interactions with their supervisors. They responded to the supervisor's current talk using backchannel responses in different linguistic environments including after rising intonation, clause boundaries, and pragmatic markers. They also responded using other-repetitions of the supervisor's preceding utterance. The other-repetitons were in the form of exact repetitions, reduced repetitions, modified repetitions, and expanded repetitions. Their talk overlapped their supervisor's when they provided backchannel responses, supplied lexical/phrasal items, took over the floor, and expressed disagreement. They addressed their supervisors using kin address terms *Pak/Buk* (father/mother) that are used to address middle-aged or older men/women. They addressed themselves using their personal names, and their supervisors addressed them using using those same personal names.

In their requestive behaviour, M participants employed head act strategies involving mood-derivable imperatives, performatives, obligatory statements, direct questions/locution derivables, and query-preparatories. The direct questions were articulated using inquiries, declarative questions, ellipsis and non-lexical item questions. The internal modifications used involved understaters, downtoners, the applealers *kan* and *nak*, and appealers followed by kin address terms. Combination of internal modifiers was occasionally used in the construction of head acts. They also used external modification involving preparators, asking the hearer's opinion and grounders.

The following chapter, Chapter Five, presents the findings regarding the politeness strategies employed by Javanese speaking English (JSE) and Minangkabaunese speaking English (MSE) students with their supervisors who were L1 speakers of English in an Australian context.

Chapter 5: Findings from the Intercultural Interactions

This chapter presents the findings of Phase Three of this study. These findings address the third research question: to what extent do these differing L1s influence the use of politeness strategies employed by these speakers in thesis supervision sessions in English with academic supervisors who are L1 speakers of English?

To answer the third research question, the research covered two areas. The first examined the politeness strategies of Javanese speaking English (JSE) participants. The second sought to find out the politeness strategies of Minangkabaunese speaking English (MSE) participants.

5.1 The Politeness Strategies of Javanese Speaking English Participants

This section describes the findings on politeness strategies employed by JSE participants in this study. The strategies come from four recordings of Javanese participants speaking English with their supervisors in an Australian university context. In the presentation of the instances, the students are given labels as JSE1 – 4 and the supervisors are identified as Sp. The description of the findings is given in order with instances of each strategy employed and are presented sequentially.

5.1.1 Showing Politeness through Backchannelling

The data of the four participants in the present study show that JSE participants conveyed their politeness using backchannel responses in their interactions. The backchannel responses included lexical items such as *exactly*, *okay*, *yes*, *yea*, and non-lexical items such as *oh*, *yeah*, *hmm*, *yeap*, *aha aha*, and *he'e*. JSE participants also used combinations of lexical and non-lexical items such as *yea yeah exactly* etc. Brown and Levinson (1987, p. 113 and p. 129) suggest that backchannel responses express 'brief agreement' and satisfy the interlocutor's positive-face by showing attentiveness, and understanding of the talk. The following extracts show instances of backchannel responses and their linguistic environments.

a. Hesitation Pauses

Extract 68

Situation: JSE1 and the supervisor talked about the design of the research.

886.	Sp	: let me look at
887.→	JSE1	: **hmm**
888.	Sp	: the more wider picture here, and write about that
889.	JSE1	: hmm
890.	Sp	: so I think a case study, now whether you need more than one
891		can't we I am not so su- I can't give answer at this point↓

In Line 887, JSE1 responded to the supervisor's utterance by employing a short response, a backchannel. The backchannel response occurred at the same time as the pause after the function word *at*. This backchannel response was used to acknowledge the receipt of information and to encourage the supervisor to continue the delivery of the information. The backchannel response in Line 889 occurred after a clause boundary to acknowledge the receipt of information. By showing support and acknowledgement JSE1 expressed politeness to satisfy the supervisor's positive face.

b. Rising Intonation

Extract 69

Situation: JSE3 and the supervisor talked about translation in the Method Chapter.

59.	Sp	: something that struck me was there is nothing about translation↑
60. →	JSE3	: **hmm**
61.	Sp	: in the method chapter↑
61.	JSE3	: umm mean how I translate↑ I think I write↓

The backchannel response *hmm* in Line 60 was uttered by JSE3 after a rising intonation had been produced by the supervisor when uttering the word *translation*. The backchannel used in this linguistic environment corroborated JSE3's understanding of the information given by the supervisor. By showing her understanding of the talk, JSE3 displayed politeness to fulfil the positive face of the supervisor.

c. Clausal Boundaries

Extract 70

Situation: JSE4 and the supervisor talked about the opportunity to sit in the
        supervisor's class.

173

16.   Sp   : I am pleased that you have / it's the best way to pick up, cause I you

17.   know a lot of what I write in my umm chapters and and

18.   journal articles,

19. → JSE4   : **hmm**

20.   Sp   : I use in my teaching practice, ((cough)) and a lot of it is based

21.   on my teaching practice↓

22. → JSE4   : **hmm**

The instances of backchannel responses (Line 19 and Line 22) in this extract were all uttered by JSE4 after a clause boundary. JSE4 uttered backchannel responses after a clause boundary to show the receipt and uptake of the information. JSE expressed politeness to satisfy the supervisor's positive face by showing the receipt and uptake of the information.

f. *You Know*

Extract 71

Situation: The supervisor and JSE1 talked about their ideas and someone related to
           JSE1's research.

378.   Sp   : if he doesn't like it, he can say so **you know**

379.→ JSE1   : **yeah yeah [yeah]**

380.   Sp   :   [umm] I don't think we should get

381.   too worried about this↓

382.   JSE1   : okay, yeah.

JSE1 gave backchannel responses after *you know* was uttered by the supervisor in the preceding utterance. This backchannel (Line 379) shows that JSE1 recognised what had been indicated by the supervisor. By using backchannel responses 'yeah yeah yeah', JSE1 showed his understanding of what the supervisor said before. By displaying his understanding of the talk, JSE1 showed politeness to serve the supervisor's positive face.

The examples of backchannels in the previous extracts explicate that JSE participants

used backchannels in four different environments. They mostly used backchannels after clause boundaries (see the percentage of the occurrences of backchannels in Figure 5).

5.1.2 Showing Politeness through Repetitions

Another politeness device revealed in data is the use of repetitions in the interactions. The data showed that the four JSE participants and the supervisors utilised other-repetitions that indicate their roles as listeners in their interactions. Brown and Levinson (1987, p. 112 - 113) state that repetition is a device to accentuate agreement to the interlocutor's preceding utterance and may satisfy the interlocutor's positive face in communication. The number of other-repetitions delivered by the JSE participants was higher than those by the supervisors. Instances of forms and functions of other-repetitions in the interaction are illustrated in the following extracts.

a. Exact Repetitions

Extract 72

Siatuation: JSE2 and the supervisor talked about magnitude square.

113.→ Sp   : okay, so this is **the magnitude↓**=

114.→JSE2   : = yeah **the magnitude↓**=

115. →Sp   : =**magnitude square**=

116. →JSE2   : =**magnitude square,** the distance between the

117.   intersection of principal component to the new data

118.   that we have to ehh measure↓

119.   Sp   : okay, so let me think about these magnitude features, //

120.   and from the ten second you have / sixty sample::s

In this extract, JSE2 made exact repetitions as well as an expanded repetition in response to the supervisor's preceding utterance (Lines113-114 and 115-116). JSE2 repeated the supervisor's utterance to confirm what had been said by the supervisor. He also used the repeat to initiate his turn and to begin his description of the repeated items. By showing confirmation and turn initiation through the repeats, JSE2 displayed listenership and interpersonal involvement in the talk that fulfilled the supervisor's positive face.

b. Modified Repetitions

Extract 73

Situation: JSE4 and her supervisor talked about how to download a candidacy

　　　　　application form.

517.　Sp　　: and then somewhere there, there would be another hotlink

518.　　　　　　takes you to the ethics site,

519.　JSE4　: okay↓

520.→ Sp　　: and you will download form C guidelines and form C application form

521.→ JSE4　: **candidacy application form↓**

522.　Sp　　: form C is all you need because it's minimum minimum ethics↓ I

523.　　　　　　mean do that in SMAC instead of sending to here administration↓

In Line 521, JSE4 repeated part of the supervisor's utterance and modified what was repeated from 'C application form' to 'candidacy application form'. The repeat was used to acknowledge the receipt of information. By using repetition to show acknowledgement, JSE4 displayed listenership that served the supervisor's positive face.

c. Reduced Repetitions

Extract 74

Situation: JSE2 and the supervisor talked about the results of the

　　　　　experiment conducted.

225.　Sp　　: … /// hhh / so then you have hundred and seventy-three:::

226.　　　　　　(xxx) points don't you↑ **every rotation**

227.→ JSE2　: **every rotation**

228.　Sp　　: yeah // you have more than sixty seconds don't you↑

229.　JSE2　: umm no↑ I still have I still get the sixty seconds … (continued)

JSE2 delivered a reduced repetition in Line 227, JSE2 repeated a part of the supervisor's preceding utterance to confirm and agree with what the supervisor had said. By repeating part of the utterance to make confirmation and agreement to the

supervisor's talk, JSE2 showed emotional agreement to the supervisor's talk that fulfilled the supervisor's positive face.

d. <u>Expanded Repetitions</u>

Extract 75

Situation: JSE1 and his supervisor talked about the references in his research.

1136. JSE1   : yes↓ I can't find this one actually↓
1137.→SP   : CALL yea can't you find it on well **online**↑
1138.→JSE1   : **on line** it's none↓ no, it's none↓ so
1139. Sp   : well do do you have the full reference↑ you have the
1140.   full reference in this book (P3) and (P3)↓
1141. JSE1   : yeah full reference from (P3) and (P3) but
1142.→Sp   : you can't find it now, well if you can, **try to find it**
1143.→JSE1   : I'll **try to find**↓
1144. Sp   : it looks better↓

In Line 1138, JSE1 repeated the last part of the supervisor's preceding utterance. He used the repeat at the beginning of his utterance as an initiation to provide further explanation to the supervisor. In Line 1143, JSE1 also repeated the last part of the supervisor's preceding utterance to confirm agreement with what the supervisor had just said. By repeating part of the supervisor's utterance to make an agreement to the supervisor's talk and to initiate a new turn, JSE1 displayed emotional agreement and listenership that satisfied the positive face of the supervisor.

The presentation of the instances of other-repetition shows that the JSE participants used four forms of repetitions. Expanded repetitions were most frequently used in their interactions. The percentage of the occurrences of other-repetitions is displayed in Figure 6.

5.1.3 Showing Politeness through Overlapped Talk

Overlapping is another device used by JSE participants to express their politeness. The overlaps that took place in the interactions between JSE participants and their supervisors are categorised into those that take the floor from the current speaker and

those that did not. Most of the overlaps delivered by the students did not take control, but there were a few instances in which JSE participants took over the current speaker's position. Although the number is relatively small, overlapping which takes control of the turn exists in the interactions of all four participants. Overlapping with short responses involves overlapping to provide backchannel responses and to supply lexical items or phrases. Extract 11 below provides an instance of overlapping which takes control of the current floor while Extracts 12 and 13 exemplify instances of overlapping which do not take over the current floor.

a. Overlapping to Take the Floor

Overlapping that takes control of the current floor is evident in the data of all participants, but the number of occurrences in each data set is not the same. JSE2 and JSE4 used this type of overlapping more than JSE1 and JSE3.

Extract 76

Situation: JSE4 and the supervisor talked about a student's presentation

562.   Sp   : he was demonstrating a certain degree a certain degree of a
563.   practical interest a little bit, but he had **[a long way to go↓]**
564. →JSE4   :   **[he mentioned he] did**
565.   mention it but e:: in a way that e:: his understanding, so centre
566.   point of his presentation is about the garden as a metaphor,
567.   and he tries to put all the terms in that metaphor↓

In Line 564, JSE4 jumped into the supervisor's current talk and talked along with the the supervisor, and then kept talking after the overlapping while the supervisor dropped out. Brown and Levinson (1987, p. 67) state that interruption can threaten both the negative and positive face of the interlocutor.

b. Overlapping Backchannels

Extract 77

Situation: The student and the supervisor talked about the connection
           between chapters.

213. Sp   : as discussing chapter two, when I talked about
214. →   **[it for ori]entation,**
215. →JSE3   : **[hmm hmm]**
216. Sp   : there is this this this↓ and then I tell you about it <u>here</u>↓
217. JSE3   : hmm

The overlapping (Lines 214 – 215) occurs when the student provided non-lexical backchannel responses to the supervisor's current utterance. JSE3 acknowledged the receipt of information from the supervisor.

   c. <u>Overlapping Lexical or Phrasal Items</u>

Extract 78

Situation: JSE1 and the supervisor discussed the significance of JSE1's study.

147. Sp   : yea. hmm well I add new knowledge on how to develop, I just
148.   put that in how to develop hmm /// hmm and you can
149.   put at the end↓ no, **[no research** has been]
150. → JSE1   :   **[no research yeah]**
151. Sp   : no research has been undertaken, you can leave that out↓
152. JSE1   : okay↓

In Line 150, JSE1's utterance overlapped the supervisor's current talk. The first two lexical items in JSE1's utterance were the same as those of his supervisor's current talk that was overlapped.

5.1.4 Showing Politeness through Address Terms

The use of address terms was the other politeness strategy used by JSE participants. The address terms revealed in the present study show that both the supervisors and the students employed the address pronouns 'I', 'you', and 'we' in their interactions. Both the supervisors and the students addressed themselves as 'I', and addressed others as 'you'. The address pronoun 'we' was also used in their interactions. Besides the address pronouns, the supervisor was also addressed by their first name as in JSE4's data. In addition, there is also an instance in which one of the supervisors was addressed by an Indonesian kin address term '*Pak*' (father) followed by the first name

as in JSE1 data, as exemplified in Extract 81. Some of the instances in the data are found in the following extracts.

a. Address Pronouns

Extract 79

Situation: The student and the supervisor discussed using and not using 'window'.

59. → JSE2 : especially for calculate the statistical / features / **I** think
60. →   because **we** have if **we** use the window, **we** alter the
61. →   original signal↓ it is better for us to find the effective
62. →   with feature extraction, it is not too good [**you** see]
63.   Sp   :   [right yeah]
64.   yeah I am not I am not so sure about that↓ so you you
65.   are taking one second chunk aren't you↑
66.   JSE2 : yea↓

In this extract, JSE2 addressed himself by the address pronoun *I* (Line 59), and then switched to the address pronoun *we* (Line 60) to refer to both himself and the supervisor when he talked about how he had conducted the analysis. JSE2 also addressed the supervisor using the address pronoun *you* (Line 62).

b. First Names

Extract 80

Situation: JSE4 and the supervisor talked about the supervisor's presentation at the end of their supervision session.

648. Sp   : to show the fish there is another swimming pool↓
649. JSE4 & Sp: ((laugh))
650. Sp   : okay,
651. JSE4 : so we move the fish to the swimming pool then↓
652. JSE4 & Sp: ((laugh))
653. →JSE4   : **okay (P2), thank you very much↓**
654. Sp   : alright↓ you're welcome↓

In Line 653, JSE4 addressed the supervisor by the supervisor's first name (P2) in a vocative position.

c. <u>Kin Address Terms</u>

Extract 81

Situation: The student and the supervisor greeted each other in the opening
phase of the supervision session.

1. → JSE1 : okay ***Pak* (P2), nice to meet you**↓ ((laugh))
2. Sp : nice to see you↓

This extract illustrates the way that JSE1 addressed the supervisor by using the Indonesian pattern of address term '*Pak*' (father) followed by the supervisor's first name '(P2)' and by employing the second address pronoun 'you'. The kin address term followed by personal name portrays respect as well as deference. Brown and Levinson (1987) consider that address terms show respect or status deference and therefore convey negative politeness.

**5.2 Politeness in the Requests Made by Javanese Speaking English
Participants**

The directives delivered by JSE1 – JSE4 involved requests for information and requests for an action. Asking or requesting for information is evident in the data of all four JSE participants. Requests for an action is present in the data of JSE3 and JSE1. The following extracts provide instances of each type of directive.

a. <u>Requests for Action</u>

Extract 82

Situation: The student and the supervisor discussed an extension.

446. JSE3 : as I have to pay a thousand, I got this↓ // if I still need extra for
447. one semester because I I told the the:: student service, I still
448. to process for grading if you are able to do the revision
449. during here, so I come back everything is clear already↓
450. Sp : okay,

451.   JSE3   : so I mean it the extension for one semester, until graduation

452.   Sp   : right okay↓

453. →JSE3   : but **you have to:: write here, e: how many units should I**

454   Sp   : o:: okay↓

In Lines 446 - 449 and Line 451, the student explained that an extension for one semester was needed. The student ended the explanation by saying 'but you have to:: write here, e: how many units should I' – (Line 453) which is a request for an action expressed as an obligation statement. A request for an action expressed as an obligation statement is a direct request. The use of direct request showed the use of positive politeness strategy.

b.   Requests for Information

Extract 83

Situation: JSE4 and the supervisor discussed a book about interviews.

364.   Sp   : so you probably wanna have to look at this book I have

365.   mentioned in class a few times

366.   JSE4   : interviews=

367.   Sp   : =interviews yea↓

368.   JSE4   : yea

369.   Sp   : how two perspectives interact↓

370.→ JSE4   : **who is the author↓**

371.   Sp   : in fact you can borrow if you like↑

372.   JSE4   : ((laugh)) currently I search in the e-book shop like,

373.   Sp   : yea,

374.   JSE4   : o no no no no I mean online shop↓

In this extract, when the supervisor talked about the book mentioned in the class JSE4 attended, JSE4 asked the supervisor a question by saying 'who is the author↓', Line 370. This is a request for information expressed as a locution derivable. A request expressed in the form of a locution derivable is a direct request. This direct strategy was used to fulfil the supervisor's positive face.

    c. Requests for Confirmation

Extract 84

Situation: JSE2 and the supervisor talked about a number of the features in JSE2's
     research.

395. Sp : yes well if you reduce the number of features the

396.   flow slow features↑

397.→ JSE2 : **the total features↑**

398. Sp : yes↓ hmm you okay↑

399. JSE2 : okay↓

In this extract, after the supervisor talked about reducing the number of the features,
JSE2 said 'the total features↑' (Line 397), uttered in a rising contour indicating an
interrogative function. 'The total features↑' was used to ask for confirmation and so is
a direct request. JSE2's use of the direct request displayed the use of positive
politeness strategy.

    d. Requests for Clarification

Extract 85

Situation: JSE1 and the supervisor talked about the significance in the study.

72. JSE1 : okay↓ ((laugh)) yeah I mean because the significance

73.   what (P3) said here quite make me confused↓ also fo::r

74.   this one the significance because and here (P) also a::

75.   yes need some more yes maybe information here,

76. →   **what I have to add here because I don't know it**

77. →   **Indonesia is significant enough↑ or CPI <u>itself</u> is**

78.   **significant so**

79. Sp : sorry, I am just not quite clear↓ umm /// this research will

79.   provide vital information for the Indonesian

80.   government to develop appropriate holistic development

81.   study, even though the study focus ((reading and whispering)) why

82.   it is significant climate changes ((reading and whispering)) ///

83.   so what to happen to dot point↑ what break this whole

84.   things up↑ or I am not quite sure is this is this me↑

85.   who said this or (P3)↑

86.   JSE1 : I think I think (P3) talked this one↓

In this extract, JSE1 had two requests in the same utterance. The first one was 'what I have to add here' and the second one was 'I don't know it Indonesia is significant enough↑or CPI <u>itself</u> is significant so' (Lines 76 – 77). The second one was uttered as a request for clarification that was accomplished using a locution derivable, a direct request. This direct request showed the use of positive politeness strategy.

5.2.1 Directness Strategies in the Requests Made by Javanese Speaking English Participants

     a. <u>Imperatives</u>

Extract 86

Situation: JSE3 and the supervisor talked about revision.

1.   JSE3   : e:: a bit over here↓

2.   Sp   : over there↓

3.   JSE3   : e:: I have my own↓

4.   Sp   : you↑

5.   JSE3   : ((la[ugh))

6.   Sp   :   [o::↑ okay:: ((laugh))

7. → JSE3   : e:: just e:: **check if there is e:: detail on the word↓**

8.   Sp   : yeah, okay↓

In Line 7, JSE3 said 'e:: just e:: check if there is e:: detail on the word↓' in which she used a mood derivable-imperative. Mood derivable-imperatives are classified as direct strategies that display the use of bald-on-record strategy.

     b. <u>Direct Questions</u>

Extract 87

Situation: The student and the supervisor discussed the ethics application.

450.	Sp	: okay when you fill out your ethics application, you put my
451.		name on as well as yours↓
452.	JSE4	: yeap↓
453.	Sp	: okay, and umm what I
454.→	JSE4	: **where should I put that idea here↑**
455.	Sp	: yeah↓
456.	JSE4	: okay↓

In the above encounter, JSE4 (Line 454) asked the supervisor by saying 'where should I put that idea here↑' that consists of two questions: 'where should I put that idea' and 'here↑'. Both of them were used to request for information and were expressed using a locution derivable. That is a direct strategy that was used to satisfy the positive face of the supervisor.

c. <u>Obligatory Statements</u>

Extract 88

Situation: JSE3 and the supervisor talked about revising the manuscript.

536.	Sp	: and how it's used and we know that↓ // so that makes
537.		a big <u>difference</u>↓ so I reckon by the time you've done and worked
538.		through (P3)'s things, and through these then it's probably worth
539.		getting it editted↓
540.	JSE3	: yea
541.	Sp	: and then we can go through, probably just about that↓
542.→	JSE3	: **okay↓ so I don't have to go back to <u>you</u> after re[vise↑**
543.	Sp	: [u::mm] // unless
544.		there is something specific

In Line 542, JSE3 asked the supervisor about what she had to do after making the revision by saying 'okay↓ so I don't have to go back to <u>you </u>after revise↑'. This request was uttered as a declarative question and constructed in the form of an obligatory statement. An obligatory statement is a direct strategy that exhibits the application of positive politeness strategy.

d. Need Statements

Extract 89

Situation: The student and the supervisor talked about sending emails.

610.   Sp   : yea // I'll promise you to write emails↓

611.   JSE3 & Sp: ((laugh))

612.   JSE3   : I think there is a one day e:: late about the time↓

613.   Sp   : the notification in your in box as well↑

614.→ JSE3   : yea ((laugh)) **// so need at least two days before↓**

615.   Sp   : oh okay↓

616.   JSE3   : [((laugh))

617.   Sp   : [((xxxx))

618.   JSE3   : so I won't miss you again and so sorry about the paper, I

619.   just I bought only for me↓

620.   Sp   : that's okay, that's alright↓

In this extract, when the supervisor talked about the promise to send an email
(Line 610), the student said that there was a time difference in receiving the emails. In
Line 614, the student said 'yea ((laugh)) // so need at least two days before↓' to the
supervisor. 'So need at least two days before↓' is an ellipsis used to request an action.
There is no agent and object in the form but from the context of the utterance the agent
and the object are evident: '(you) need (to send the email) at least two days before'.
The use of a need statement in a request is a direct strategy that was employed to fulfil
the positive face of the supervisor.

e. Conventional Indirect Strategies

Extract 90

Situation: The student and the supervisor talked about the principal
           component in the student's experiment.

377.   JSE2   : have all these seventy-two↓ I just not sure if it is okay,

378.   if the some or all of the column is greater than the row

379.   I am not sure about that↓

380.   Sp   : okay,

381.→ JSE2   : **do you have any suggestion that who who person that**

382.→   **I can ask about this about the principal component↑**

383.   Sp   : (P3)↓

384.   JSE2   : (P3)↑

385.   Sp   : (P3)↓

In Lines 381 – 382, JSE2 talked about his uncertainty regarding the principal component and asked for information about a person from the supervisor by saying 'do you have any suggestion that who who person that I can ask about this about the principal component↑'. This request asked the supervisor for information concerning a person who JSE2 could ask about the principal component. JSE2 used a conventional indirect strategy to satisfy the negative face of the supervisor.

JSE participants used a range of strategies in the head acts of their requests involving imperatives, direct questions, need statements, obligation statements, and conventional indirect strategies. Direct questions were the most frequently used in their interactions. The percentage of the instances of head act strategies used is exhibited in Figure 8.

5.2.2 Internal Modifications

Internal modifications involve syntactic downgraders and lexical/phrasal downgraders to mitigate the force of the requests. This section details the syntactical and lexical/phrasal modifiers as well as the perspective of the request.

5.2.2.1 Syntactical Modifications

      a.   Conditional Clauses

Extract 91

Situation: The student and the supervisor discussed the results of the
         experiment conducted.

214.   Sp   : next one second could have twenty-two point six

215.   rotations↓ it's not consistent↓ so even even the starting

216.   phase of the inter- rotation different from each one

217.   second chuck↓ so when you're able to get there, I am

218.		just I am worried that you end up with //
219.		<u>rubbish</u>↓ it does not show anything↓
220. →JSE2		: hhh **so if I want to do everything, what steps that I ca::n**
221.		**do that**↓
222.	Sp	: why why do you have to average↓ I am happy with you
223.		still have one second chuck, you go through here,
224.		every one second, you can have thirty-two features,
225.		then ///… (continued)

In the extract above, JSE2 (Line 220) asked the supervisor concerning the steps in the experiment by saying 'hhh so if I want to do everything, what steps that I ca::n do that↓' which is a conditional clause with question words 'what steps' to ask for information. The use of conditional clause showed that JSE2's expressed doubt. By expressing doubtful or pessimistic, JSE1 satisfied the supervisor's negative face.

b. <u>Inquiries</u>

Extract 92

Situation: JSE4 and the supervisor discussed the research paradigm.

306.	Sp	: … I consider that writing my story and retelling
307.		other stories could possibly lead me to my own subjectivity↓ in order
308.		to minimise subjectivity, I see in the questioning reflecting
309.		other voices↓ so / the notion of minimising your subjectivity,
310.	JSE4	: ((laugh))
311.	Sp	: that is what objectionists do↓
312.	JSE4 & Sp: ((laugh))	
313. →JSE4		: oh yes, **how did you realise it**↓
314.	Sp	: I think that's not what you mean
315.	JSE4	: aha
316.	Sp	: because you you're going to be using subject- you are going to
317.		reflect critically on your subjectivity↓

In Line 313, JSE4 asked the supervisor for information in the form of an inquiry by saying 'oh yes, how did you realise it↓'. An inquiry is a direct strategy and the use of it displays the use of positive politeness strategy.

c. Declarative Questions

Extract 93

Situation: The student and the supervisor talked about the revision in the
student's report.

587. JSE3   : yea I'll do that↓
588. Sp   : yea if you don't mind the weekend↑
589. JSE3   : it's just [((laugh))
590. Sp   :   [((laugh))
591.→ JSE3   : **and then I email you and I can go directly to (P3)↑**
592. Sp   : I think so, yea unless there is something you're <u>really</u> struggling with,

In this extract, JSE3 said that she would do the revision and the supervisor asked her to submit it on the weekend. In Line 591, JSE3 said that she would email the supervisor and see the second supervisor (P3) by saying 'and then I email you and I can go directly to (P3)↑'. In this instance, JSE3 issued a declarative question indicated by it ending in a rising intonation. The use of a declarative question showed the application of positive politeness strategy to satisfy the supervisor's positive face.

d. Ellipsis

Extract 94

Situation: The student and the supervisor talked about rotation.

333. Sp   : fifty-eight something like that↓ If you make if you
334.   make the link two rotations and then you shift along
335.→   one rotation, yes you will get thirty↓
336.→JSE2   : **thirty↑**
337. Sp   : yea or twenty-nine↓ so you could <u>choose</u> few
338.   different things↓ … (continued)

In Line 336, JSE2 repeated the last lexical item, which is a number, of the supervisor's prior utterance with rising intonation 'thirty↑' to question the number mentioned by the supervisor. 'Thirty↑' is an ellipsis to request for confirmation. The use of ellipsis showed that JSE2 used positive politeness strategy.

e. Neutral Proposals

Extract 95

Situation: JSE4 and the supervisor talked about candidacy and ethics application
forms.

498.	Sp	: and when do you think you might like to submit the application↓
499.	JSE4	: I thought e:: next week↓
500.	Sp	: okay↓ alright so
501.→	JSE4	**: and is it together with the ethic [application↑**
502.	Sp	: [yeap↓ it's two forms, the
503.		application for candidacy one form↓

In this extract, JSE4 asked the supervisor whether the candidacy application was to be submitted together with the ethics application form by saying 'and is it together with the ethic application↑', Line 501. 'Is it together with the ethic application↑' is a neutral proposal which is a direct strategy. The use of this strategy explained that JSE4 employed positive politeness strategy.

The illustration of syntactical modifications shows that JSE participants used conditional clauses, inquiries, declarative questions, and neutral proposals. Declarative questions were the most frequently used in the interactions. There was 28% of ellipsis in the declarative questions. The percentage of the occurrences is presented in Figure 9.

5.2.2.2 Lexical and Phrasal Modifications

a. Politeness Markers

Extract 96

Situation: The student and the supervisor talked about the objectives and

the methodology of JSE1's research.

12.	Sp	: umm may be I'll sit over here↓
13. →	JSE1	: okay, **please**↓
14.	Sp	: work on here, umm when you say as the objective↑
15.	JSE1	: hmm
16.	Sp	: got e::r four objectives right, hm when you say was
17.		the [methodology]//all I want you to do is to say,
18.	JSE1	: [methodology okay]
19.	Sp	: when you say you are going to use a particular <u>method</u>↓
20.	JSE1	: okay↓

In the extract above, JSE1 (Line 13) responded to the supervisor's utterance (Line 12) 'maybe I'll sit over here' by saying with a politeness particle 'okay, please↓' which is actually an ellipsis. The agent (you) and the verb are elided in JSE1's utterance. The politeness marker *please* was used to mitigate the request and explicitly express the application of negative politeness.

      b. <u>Consultative Devices</u>

Extract 97

Situation: JSE2 and the supervisor talked about rotation and overlap in the experiment.

313.	Sp	: we also talk may be making this two rotations↓
314. →	JSE2	: for this step I did hhh overlap **is it okay**↑
315.	Sp	: overlap is <u>good</u> but each each segment is still only
316. `		one rotation↓
317.	JSE2	: yes one rotation↓

In Line 314, after listening to the supervisor's talk regarding rotation, JSE2 asked the supervisor regarding the overlap used in that step by saying 'for this step I did hhh overlap is it okay↑' which involves the internal modifier 'is it okay' categorised as a consultative device that soften the request. The use of consultative device displayed the use of negative politeness strategy.

c. Understaters

Extract 98

Situation: The student and the supervisor talked about references.

249.→ JSE1   : another question is but **insignificant,** we can we add

250.   some reference or just dot point↑

251. Sp   : just dot just dot point↓ you don't need references↓ no

152.   basically this is just saying what is the wider value↓

In Lines 249 - 250, JSE1 asked the supervisor a question by saying 'another question is but insignificant, we can we add some reference or just dot point↑'. In this utterance, JSE1 used an understater 'insignificant' as well as a preparator 'another question'. The understater and preparator were used to soften the request for clarification and to satisfy the supervisor's negative face.

d. Subjectivisers

Extract 99

Situation: JSE1 and the supervisor talked about the background and the significance of the study.

414. Sp   : he might add a couple of lines, [or something] how does that ↑sound

415. JSE1   :   [okay okay]

416.→ JSE1   : **I think** it is good↓ and I have to add some information

417.   at the background related to the significance↑ or:: it's

418.   enough↓

419. Sp   : umm I think you're already just talking about what the

420.   yea the background to your research↓

In Lines 416-418, JSE1 responded to the supervisor's utterance by saying 'I think it is good↓ and I have to add some information to the background related to the significance↑ or:: it's enough↓'. JSE1 used a subjectiviser *I think* to modify the request for clarification and to express politeness that fulfil the supervisor's negative face.

e.   Downtoners

Extract 100

Situation: JSE3 and the supervisor talked about revision.

3.   JSE3   : e:: I have my own↓

4.   Sp   : you↑

5.   JSE3   : ((la[ugh))

6.   Sp   :   [o::↑ okay:: ((laugh))

7. →   JSE3   : e:: **just** e:: check if there is e:: detail on the word↓

8.   Sp   : yeah, okay↓

In Line 7, when asking the supervisor to check the detail on the word, JSE3 used the downtoner *just* by saying 'e:: just e:: check if there is e:: detail on the word↓'. The use of *just* mitigated the imperative used and expressed politeness to satisfy the supervisor's negative face.

f.   Cajolers

Extract 101

Situation: JSE4 and the supervisor talked about data storage.

441.   JSE4   : but is that okay↑

442.   Sp   : yeap↓ that's fine↓

443. →JSE4   : for having in touch with you↑ [**I mean,**

444.   Sp   :   [because

445.   JSE4   : yeap,

446.   Sp   : but [later on]

447.→ JSE4   :   [the data] storage **I mean**↓

448.   Sp   : we say nobody, but me and my supervisor↓

449.   JSE4   : okay↓ okay↓

In this extract, JSE4 asked the supervisor whether it would be possible to contact him regarding the data storage by saying 'for having in touch with you↑ I mean' (Line 443) and JSE4 continued the utterance, in Line 447, by saying 'the data storage I mean↓'.

In this utterance, JSE4 used a cajoler *I mean* to soften the request and to express politeness to satisfy the supervisor's negative face.

g. Appealers

Extract 102

Situation: JSE1 and the supervisor talked about the methodology.

535. →JSE1   : so is it related to the methodology **right**↑
536.   Sp   : yea↓
537.   JSE1   : like the observation the field and the ground↑
538.   Sp   : yes, when you're developing a policy too … (continued)

In this extract, JSE1 asked the supervisor a question by saying 'so is it related to the methodology right', Line 535. In this utterance, JSE1 used the appealer *right* to modify the force of the request and JSE1's use of an appealer displayed the use of negative politeness.

The above instances of internal modifiers used by JSE participants show that they used internal modifiers involving downtoners, appealers, polite markers, understaters, subjectivisers, cajolers, and consultative devices. The most frequently used were subjectivisers. The percentage of occurrences in the interaction is presented in Figure 10.

5.2.3 External Modifications

a. Apologetic Markers

Extract 103

Situation: The student and the supervisor discussed 'magnitude square'.

111.   Sp   : is it T square or T2↑
112.→ JSE2   : this square **sorry** T square↓
113.   Sp   : okay, so this is the magnitude↓=
114.   JSE2   : = yeah the magnitude↓=

In Line 112, JSE2 responded to the supervisor's query by saying 'this square sorry T square'. JSE2 made an apology 'sorry' as he considered that his response 'this square' was inappropriate and made a repair by saying 'T square'.

b. Gratitude

Extract 104

Situation: The student and the supervisor were discussing the draft.

27.　　Sp　　: but I did read through the whole lot, in terms of
28.　　　　　 what's in there, and I think it's great↓ //
29.　　　　　 right I think there is a lot in here↓
30. → JSE3　: **thank you::**
31.　　Sp　　: and that's <u>fantastic</u>↓

In Line 30, JSE3 expressed her gratitude to the supervisor for the compliment about the draft by saying 'thank you::'. *Thank you* is an expression of gratitude that shows the application of negative politeness.

c. Preparators

Extract 105

Situation: The student and the supervisor talked about the methodology and
　　　　　the objective of the research.

3. → JSE1　: actually **I want to ask you regarding the last comment,**
4.　　Sp　　: yeah,
5. → JSE1　: yeah you gave me especially the methodology because at
6.　　　　　 the moment I am still confused with a: what I have to add
7.　　　　　 in some a:
8.　　Sp　　: yeah,
9.　　JSE1　: this methodology linked to the objective↓
10.　　Sp　　: okay, let's have a quick look again↓

In Line 3 of the above extract, the student uttered a preface 'I want to ask you' for the request that he stated in Lines 5 - 7. By stating that the supervisor be ready with the

request that followed, JSE1 made the request less coercive. By doing so, he fulfilled the supervisor's negative face. This query also includes a reason 'I am still confused' as a grounder to mitigate the force of the request for information.

d. Grounders

Extract 106

Situation: The student and the supervisor talked about data storage.

433. →JSE4   : but (P2) I am thinking about where did I organise my data
434.   collection↓ so imagine I back to Indonesia, and then I do
435.   such interviews with teachers and the other practitioners,
436.   Sp   : yeap
437.→ JSE4   : **and then at home I will track them off,**
438.   Sp   : yeap
439.→ JSE4   : **and then my idea is I will choose send it to you↓**
440.   Sp   : yeap
441.→ JSE4   : **but is that okay↑**
442.   Sp   : yeap↓ that's fine↓
443. →JSE4   : **for having in touch with you↑ [I mean,]**
444.   Sp   :   [because]
445.   JSE4   : yeap,
446.   Sp   : but [later on
447. →JSE4   :   **[the data storage I mean↓**
448.   Sp   : we say nobody, but me and my supervisor↓
443.   JSE4   : okay↓ okay↓

From Lines 433 - 435, JSE4 explained what she would do regarding the data collection and said that she would send the data to the supervisor by saying 'but (P2) I am thinking about where did I organise my data collection↓ so imagine I back to Indonesia and then I do such interviews with teachers and the other practitioners,', (Lines 433 – 435 and Line 437) 'then at home I will track them off,' and Line 439 'and then my idea is I will choose send it to you↓' before she asked the supervisor whether it was okay (Line 441) by saying 'but is that okay↑' and 'for having in touch with you↑' (Line 443). JSE4 provided the explanation as a grounder for what was going to be

conducted before delivering the query. The use of a grounder explains that JSE4 satisfied the supervisor's negative face.

5.3 Summary

In summary, the JSE participants conveyed their politeness through their responses to their supervisors and through their requestive behaviour. They used backchannel responses, other-repetitions, and overlapping talk to indicate their responses to and involvement in the supervisors' current talk. They also used first name, kin address terms, and the address pronoun *we* to show their relationship with their supervisors. Their requesting behaviour showed that they made a variety of different requests involving requests for action, information, confirmation, and clarification. The directness strategies in the head act of the requests showed that they used mood derivable-imperatives, direct questions, obligatory statements, need statements, and query preparatory statements. To modify the force of the head acts, they employed internal modifiers that involved syntactical modifiers and lexical and phrasal modifiers. There was no co-occurrence of internal modifiers in the construction of head acts. The syntactical modifiers involved the use of conditional clauses, inquiries, declarative questions, ellipsis, and neutral proposals. The lexical and phrasal modifiers involved the use of politeness markers, consultative devices, understaters, subjectivisers, cajolers, and appealers. All the internal modifications used by JSE participants were in the form of downgraders. JSE participants also used downgrader external modifications involving the use of apologetic markers, gratitude, preparatory statements, and grounders.

5.4 The Politeness Strategies of Minangkabaunese Speaking English Participants

The findings presented in this section were investigated from three recordings of L1 speakers of Minangkabaunese speaking English (MSE) with their supervisors who were L1 speakers of English in the thesis supervision sessions in an Australian university context. The student participants are given pseudonyms as MSE1 - MSE3 while the supervisors are indicated as Sp. A description of the findings is given in order and instances of each strategy employed are presented sequentially.

5.4.1 Showing Politeness through Backchannelling

Backchannel responses were used by MSE participants to convey their politeness in the interactions with their supervisors who were L1 speakers of English. Backchannelling was identified in the data of three L1 speakers of Minangkabaunese speaking English (MSE) participants showing that they used non-lexical and lexical backchannelling. The non-lexical items involved *ha*, *hmm yea*, *umm*, *yea aah*, *yeah* and the lexical items included *okay*, *right*, *all right*. There was no combination of lexical and non-lexical backchannelling in their interactions. The instances of backchannelling in the data are presented in the following extracts.

    a.   Hesitation Pauses

Extract 107

Situation: MSE3 and the supervisor talked about culture as a variable in MSE3's
           research.

147.   Sp   : I am not saying you should, I am just saying if

148.   you're talking about / [whether] whether

149. →MSE3 :   **[yeah]**

150.   Sp   : struture is appropriate in Australia, and not in

151.   Indonesia, or or whether it is /

152. →MSE3 : **hmm**

153.   Sp   : appropriate in both countries,

154.   MSE3 : yeah

In this extract, MSE3 used two backchannel responses during hesitation pauses in the supervisor's talk. These backchannel responses occurred after a preposition (Line 149) and a verbal auxiliary (Line 152). They were used to signify the receipt of information and to encourage the delivery of the information. By showing support to the talk and the receipt of information through backchannel, MSE3 expressed politeness that served the supervisor's positive face.

    b.   Rising Intonations

Extract 108

Situation: MSE1 and the supervisor talked about the data analysis.

210.   MSE1 : yea U double dot yea

211.   Sp   : hmm / so this is the / for one element↑

212. →MSE1 : **yea**

213.   Sp   : this is the four by four↑

214.→ MSE1 : **yea**

In this extract, MSE1 employed two backchannel responses after a rising intonation used by the supervisor in delivering the lexical items. These backchannel responses indicated MSE1's understanding of what had been said by the supervisor. By showing his understanding to the supervisor's talk through backchannel, MSE1 satisfied the supervisor's positive face.

c. Clausal Boundaries

Extract 109

Situation: MSE3 and the supervisor talked about the analysis in the research.

14.   Sp   : what you got here is basically okay I realised this

15.   is not e: e:: a complete list of what you're doing↓ what

16.   you got here is very much descriptive, you are collecting

17.   information about what is what the current stage is

18. → MSE3 : **yes**

19   Sp   : a:: what I want to know, what I am trying to find

20.   out is what are you going to actually analyse, how

21   are you going to analyse it↓

In Line 18, MSE3 responded to the supervisor's talk using a backchannel response after a clause boundary. The backchannel response was used to show endorsement and the acceptance of what had been said. By showing support and acceptance to the talk, MSE3 expressed politeness that fulfilled the supervisor's positive face.

The above instances of backchannels show that JSE participants used backchannels in three different environments most frequently after a clause boundary. The percentage of instances in the interactions are presented in Figure 5.

5.4.2 Showing Politeness through Repetitions

Repetitions were another politeness strategy used by MSE participants. In the data of MSE participants, there were many instances where both the students and the supervisors repeated each other's words in their interactions. The students and the supervisors employed both self-repetitions and other-repetitions. The forms and functions of other-repetitions delivered by the students are illustrated in the following extracts.

a. <u>Exact Repetitions</u>

Extract 110

Situation: MSE3 and the supervisor talked about depth analysis.

343.   MSE3 : a:: / so far it is:
344.→ Sp   : **starting to get there**
345.→ MSE3 : **starting to get there:**
346.   Sp   : yeah↓ even five is a:: you need to
347.→ MSE3 : **explore a bit more↑**
348.→ Sp   : **explore a bit more depth↓**
349.   MSE3 : hmm

The extract above shows how MSE3 employed other-repetitions. MSE3 produced the other-repetitions in Line 345 by repeating all of the supervisor's utterance (Line 344), and putting the last word in a question contour to request for confirmation. The second other-repetition occurs in Line 348 where the supervisor repeated exactly all the student's prior utterance to initiate the turn by saying 'explore a bit more depth↓'. By repeating the supervisor's utterance, MSE3 showed that he attentively listened to the supervisor and by doing so he saved the supervisor's positive face.

b. <u>Reduced Repetitions</u>

Extract 111

Situation: Sp and MSE2 talked about Sp's planning to be away.

418.   Sp   : because I am also here, and I could print it and all that↓ //
419.   just for your general planning, I will be away **the first**

420.   **two weeks of July↓**

421. →MSE2 : **the first two weeks of July↑**

422.   Sp   : yeap↓ so:: yes I will be away the first two weeks of July

423.   but until then I will be around↓

424.   MSE2 : okay↓

In Line 421, MSE2 repeated the last part of the supervisor's preceding utterance. This other-repetition is a reduced repetition that was used to show the receipt of information and ask for confirmation. The supervisor confirmed the information by saying 'yeap↓ so:: …'. By showing the receipt of information and asking for confirmation through repetition, MSE2 displayed listenership that satisfied the supervisor's positive face.

   c. <u>Modified Repetitions</u>

Extract 112

Situation: MSE1 and the supervisor talked about an imaginary part.

313.   Sp   : say just put value or you can solve for the real

314.   part and **imaginary↓**=

315.→ MSE1 : =**imaginary part↓**

316.   Sp   : now I think this is <u>great</u>↓

317.   MSE1 : yea↓

In this extract, MSE1 made a modified repetition (Line 315) by repeating part of the supervisor's preceding utterance. This modified repetition was used to show agreement with what had been said. By showing agreement to the talk through repetition, MSE1 displayed the use of positive politeness strategy.

   d. <u>Expanded Repetitions</u>

Extract 113

Situation: MSE3 and SP talked about the analytical element in MSE3's research.

80.   Sp   : yea umm I am looking at where your analysis is,

81.   what is **the analytical element↓**

82. → MSE3 : umm **the analytical element** should probably after

| 83. | | I contrasted between the current practice and the initial |
| 84. | | concept↓ there is some flaws about that↓ |

In this extract, MSE3 repeated part of the supervisor's preceding utterance and used the repeat to initiate the turn and offer further explanation or description (Line 82 – Line 84). By repeating part of the supervisor's utterance to initiate the turn, MSE3 displayed listenership and involvement that fulfilled the supervisor's positive face.

MSE participants used three forms of other-repetitions in their intercultural interactions. They mostly used reduced and expanded repetitions. The percentage of the instances is shown in Figure 6.

5.4.3 Showing Politeness through Overlapped Talk

Another device used to express politeness by the MSE participants was through the use of their overlapped talk. MSE participants were engaged in the interactions using overlaps that took the floor from the supervisor's current talk and these consisted of short responses. The overlaps containing short responses involved overlapping backchannel responses and overlapping lexical items and phrases. Illustrations of the instances are presented as in the following extracts.

a. Overlapping to Take the Floor

Extract 114

Situation: The student and the supervisor talked about the current practice.

94.	Sp	: how is that related to theory↓ what is the theory of
95. →		**[theoretical perspective of that↓]**
96. →	MSE3	: **[yeah it's on the last]** and the last four and fifth
97.		points /// I wi::ll using the same way, I will also try
98.		to explore the concept of each structures
99.		intensification↓ what I mean intensification and
100.		extensification intensification I will use
101.		the account of representative concept at the ato
102.		manage key client managers↓
103.	Sp	: yea

In the above segment, overlapping occurs in the interaction between the student (Line 96) and the supervisor (Line 95). The student jumped into the supervisor's current talk when the supervisor was about to say 'theoretical perspective of that' (Line 95), the student took over the supervisor's current talk and kept talking after the overlapping (Lines 96 – 102). Only a few instances of this kind of overlapping are evident in the data of each L1 speaker of MSE.

b. Overlapping Backchannels

Extract 115

Situation: The supervisor and MSE2 talked about topic initiation.

259. Sp   : no↓ I would not talk about [topic initiation↓] no↓ I so in
260.→ MSE2 :   **[yea yea yea]**
261. Sp   : that case the paper and its ↑core is about self-
262.   : presentation↓ … (continued)

In this extract, the overlapping occurred when MSE2 responded using blackchannel responses (Line 260) to the supervisor's talk.

c. Overlapping Lexical or Phrasal Items

Extract 116

Situation: MSE1 and the supervisor talked about the data analysis (equation).

197. MSE1 : probably I just need to clarify the forcing↓
198. Sp   : yeah, how to clarify from basic [**citation to the**] force I know the
199. →MSE1 :   [**basic citation**]
200. Sp   : result, I just can't remember what's this↓=

This extract shows that the utterances overlap in Line 198 and Line 199. MSE1 (Line 199) jumped into the supervisor's current talk (Line 198) when responding to the supervisor by saying 'basic citation'. This response was the same with the supervisor's current utterance and overlapped with what was said by the supervisor 'citation to the'. This overlapping did not take over the current turn as the supervisor kept talking (Lines

198 and 200). Overlapping with short responses delivered by the students is evident in the data of all the MSE participants.

d. Overlapping to Express Disagreement

Extract 117

Situation: MSE2 and the supervisor discussed the introduction in a journal article.

316.   Sp   : when you say introduction, what you mean↓=

317.   MSE2 : =introduction of the the paper↓

318.   Sp   : = like the very very first part or beginning of it↑

319. →   **[or the literature review↑]**

320. →MSE2 : **[no↓ not the beginning] the literature review↓ the**

321.   literature review don't talk about e:: don't talk about

322.   topic initiation↓

In this extract, MSE2 jumped into the supervisor's current talk to express disagreement with what had been said by the supervisor and to provide a further explanation (Lines 320-322).

The instances of overlaps above display that the MSE participants' talk overlapped the supervisors' talk. The most frequent overlapping talk occurred when they supplied lexical or phrasal items to the supervisor's current talk.

5.4.4 Showing Politeness through Address Terms

The address terms used by MSE participants in the interactions with their supervisors involved only the address pronouns. The address pronouns included the use of 'I', 'you', and 'we' which were used by the MSE participants and their supervisors throughout their interactions. They did not use any lexical address terms to address each other. The instances of address pronouns employed by MSE participants are exemplified in the following extracts.

a. Address Pronouns

Extract 118

Situation: MSE1 and the supervisor discussed the data analysis.

111.   Sp   : I know it can be done, just have to think about it↓ so

112.   maybe you can / work on some:: simple explanation↓=

113. →MSE1 : =explanation with a based-acceleration do **you**

114.   mean↑ **I** have a

115.   Sp   : how how to go from Q to S↓=

116. → MSE1 : =yeah / is say that this spend **we** have this, **we** have

117.   the degree of freedom (xx)

118.   Sp   : hmm

119. →MSE1 : and this one, this Y one, and this Y two, and then

120.   we put this as an acceleration↓

121. →Sp   : ahh // no, it has to be actually / for

122.   the real system because with the real system // this is all we have↓

In this extract, MSE1 addressed the supervisor by the address pronoun *you*, and referred to himself by the address pronoun *I* (Lines 113-114). Besides, MSE1 also used the address pronoun *we* (Line 116) to refer to himself and his supervisor when talking about the data and the analysis. Likewise, the supervisor also used the address pronoun *we* to address himself and MSE1.

5.5 Politeness in the Requests Made by Minangkabaunese Speaking English Participants

MSE participants used requests for information and requests for an action. As in the data of the four JSE participants, requests for information are also evident in the data of all MSE participants, while requests for actions can be found in the data of MSE1 and MSE2. The extracts below illustrate the instances of requests.

    a.   Requests for Action

Requests for an action are evident in the data of MSE1 and MSE2.

Extract 119

Situation: The student and the supervisor talked about matrix operation.

379.   MSE1 : it so attractive↓ I need to write

380. Sp   : you want a pen↑

381.→ MSE1 : **no, that's fine↓ you look at this↓ / and the::n**

382. Sp   : and then you write down the individual term for one element↓

383.→ MSE1 : **and after that↑**

384. Sp   : and then plot plot the voltage and the display of frequency

385.   response ///

386. MSE1   : okay↓

In Line 381, after refusing the supervisor's offer of a pen, MSE1 said 'you look at this / and the::n'. 'You look at this↓' is a request for an action, while 'and the::n' is a request for information. Line 382 shows that the supervisor provided the requested information. In Line 383, MSE1 delivered another request for information by saying 'and after that↑' and the supervisor (Line 384) again provided the required information. Thus, this extract illustrates a request for an action as well as a request for information that were performed in a very direct or peremptory way.

b. Requests for Information

Requests for information exist in the data of all MSE participants.

Extract 120

Situation: The student and the supervisor talked about how to gather the data.

370. Sp   : so I am not saying, I am not saying that this thing

371.   should occur↓=

372.→ MSE3 : **=so how to / to:: e:: I mean to put to embed it to**

373**.   embed it into the question↑**

374. Sp   : excellent question↓

375. M & Sp: ((laugh))

376. →MSE3 : **only interview↑**

377. Sp   : yes↓ well e:: and that's what I have been trying to get at

378.   the last couples of meetings↓ / how do you get that

379.   information actually↓ /// … (continued)

In the above extract, there are two requests for information delivered by MSE3. The first was when MSE3 asked the supervisor about the way to formulate the question by saying 'so how to / to:: e:: I mean to put to embed it to embed it into the question↑' (Line 372). The second was when MSE3 made another query (Line 376) by saying 'only interview↑' which is an ellipsis ending in a question contour. These two requests were direct questions showing the use of positive politeness strategy.

c. Requests for Confirmation

Extract 121

Situation: MSE1 and the supervisor talked about acceleration in the experiment.

74.   Sp   : if the J on the T↑
75.   MSE1 : J on the T so:: so this based-acceleration so
76.   that means terrifying this time or this comes and /
77.   or mega square, time acceleration, as we know
78.   that M A A so that means acceleration, or mega
79.   square J or J mega, but in some book I just show
80.   that it just replaces become K, J or mega T, so I
81.   am just using them about the equation **but this I just**
82. →   **talk this as a based-acceleration↑**
83.   Sp   : based-acceleration↓ that's right↓
84.   MSE1 : I just following some book↓

In this extract, MSE1 requested information from the supervisor in Lines 81 – 82. MSE1 ended the utterance using a question contour by saying 'I just talk this as a based-acceleration↑' to ask for confirmation. This request was performed using a direct question that showed the application of positive politeness.

d. Requests for Clarification

Extract 122

Situation: MSE2 and the supervisor talked about self-presentation.

324.   M2   : but talk about self-presentation↓
325.   Sp   : yeap↓ that's right↓

326. →MSE2 : umm hmm **how how self-presentation**

327.   Sp   : hmm

328. →MSE2 : **is approached**

329.   Sp   : hmm

330. →MSE2 : **reciprocally, or do I have to talk** =

331.   Sp   : =I won't talk about reciprocally period↓

332.   MSE2 : hmm yea↓

In this extract, MSE2 asked the supervisor about how self-presentation was approached by saying 'how self-presentation is approached reciprocally, or do I have to talk' (Lines 326, 328, and 330). What had been said by MSE2 was a request for clarification in a form of a direct question that explained the use of positive politeness strategy.

5.5.1 Directness Strategies in the Requests Made by Minangkabaunese Speaking English Participants

   a. Imperatives

Extract 123

Situation: The student and the supervisor talked about how to get information
          through an interview.

381.   Sp   : you might be able to find it↓ now you have to work out how to get that

382   footing to get that kind of information↓

383.→ MSE3 : hmm /// **give me a hint↓**

384.   Sp   : oh no↓ it it's up to you↓ e::

In Line 383, after acknowledging the supervisor's information and after pausing for some time, MSE3 delivered a request for information by saying 'give me a hint↓' which is an imperative. Mood derivable-imperatives are classified as direct strategies displaying the use of bald-on-record strategy.

   b. Direct Questions

Extract 124

Situation: MSE1 and the supervisor talked about the force and the matrix.

329.   Sp   : and then once you worked that out, may be with // if
330.   you ca::n / choose to derive this in full↓ // I mean
331.   write to have all the individual terms clearly↓
332. →MSE1 : **what do you mean↓**
333.   Sp   : in here four by four↑ =
334.   MSE1   : =four by four↓

In this extract, when the supervisor explained the things to be examined MSE1 asked what was meant by the supervisor by saying 'what do you mean↓' (Line 332) which is a direct question. A direct question or locution derivable is classified as the most direct strategy to ask for information. MSE1's use of direct questions showed that he employed positive politeness strategy in the interaction.

c.   Need Statements

Extract 125

Situation: The student and the supervisor were at the end of the supervision session and talked about the time when the supervisor would be away.

422.   Sp   : yeap↓ so:: yes I will be away the first two weeks of July
423.   but until then I will be around↓
424.   MSE2   : okay↓
425.   Sp   : okay↑ ohhh
426.→ MSE2   : **I think I still need your signature on this↓**
427.   Sp   : oh for that thing, yeap sure↓

In Line 426, MSE2 said to the supervisor 'I think I still need your signature on this↓' in which 'I still need your signature' is a request for an action in the form of a need statement. The need statement in this utterance is preceded by 'I think' which is a subjectiviser. The use of a need statement shows the use of a direct strategy presenting the use of positive politeness strategy.

d.　Non-conventional Indirect Strategy

Extract 126

Situation: The student and the supervisor talked about what the Results section was.

267.		… then you talk about how the self-presentation work in the
268.		result section, and then the reciprocality of self-
269.		presentation↓ / does that make sense or not really
270.→	MSE2	: **the last one I missed↓**
271.	Sp	: okay, so in the result section you first talk about how
272.		self – presentation works↑
273.	MSE2	: yea
274.	Sp	: you already do that right↑ and then the second thing is
275.		that you talk
276.	MSE2	: yea
277.	Sp	: about reciprocality↑
278.	MSE2	: in SMP yea yea↓

In Line 269, the supervisor asked MSE2 whether what had been expressed made sense, MSE2 replied by saying 'the last one I missed↓' (Line 270). By uttering this, the student asked the supervisor to repeat what he had said. This hint was taken up by the supervisor as the supervisor replied 'okay,…' (Line 271) and repeated the information. 'The last one I missed↓' is a non-conventional indirect directive that is classified as an indirect strategy displaying the use of negative politeness strategy.

The strategies of the head acts used by MSE participants involved imperatives, direct questions, performatives, need statements, and non-conventionally indirect strategies or hints. Direct questions were those most often used by MSE participants. The percentage of the instances of the interactions is shown in Figure 8.

5.5.2 Internal Modifications

The internal modification used in a request can be determined from its syntactic modification and lexical/phrasal modification. These are used to mitigate and upgrade the force of the requests. This section presents the syntactical and lexical/phrasal modifiers used by the MSE students as well as the perspective of the requests.

5.5.2.1 Syntactical Modifications

The syntactic modification of requests issued in the interaction of MSE participants in the supervision sessions includes declaratives with rising intonation, inquiries, neutral proposals, phrasal and lexical items ending in rising intonation. The instances of the syntactic modifications used are illustrated in following extracts.

a. Conditional Clauses

Extract 127

Situation: MSE1 and the supervisor talked about the approach used.

399.　Sp　　: so this also gives you (likely to be transcy) function↓

400. →MSE1　: **if I change with the:: / (likely to be lap last↑)**

401.　Sp　　: yea↓

402.　MSE1　: yea↑

403.　Sp　　: yea↓

In this extract, MSE1 asked for information from the supervisor by saying 'if I change with the:: / (likely to be lap last↑)', Line 400. This request for information was uttered in the form of a conditional clause. The use of a conditional clause showed uncertainty or pessimistic describing that MSE1 employed negative politeness strategy.

b. Inquiries

Extract 128

Situation: The student and the supervisor talked about depth analysis.

453.　Sp　　: and ones I have named are not necessary the

454.　　　　　one that you are going to employ↓ / why don't you think

455.　　　　　about what they might be

456.→ MSE3　: is that **/ how how many:: e:: aspects that is usually**

457.　　　　　**appropriate for doctorate thesis to be explored in**

458.　　　　　**depth↑ one↑ or**

459.　Sp　　: a small number in a great deal of depth, a large number in

460.　　　　　less depth↓ it's up it's up to you↓

After the supervisor said that it was necessary to demonstrate depth analysis, MSE3 asked the supervisor regarding the number of components appropriately explored in a doctoral thesis by saying 'is that / how how many:: e:: aspects that is usually appropriate for doctorate thesis to be explored in depth↑ one↑ or' (Lines 456-458). In the beginning, the request for information seems to be projected using a neutral proposal 'is that' but after the pause (/) the request was projected using an inquiry which is a direct question. MSE3 used the direct question to satisfy the supervisor's positive face.

c. Declaratives Questions

Extract 129

Situation: The student and the supervisor talked about what the student did in relation to the supervisor's suggestion.

18.   MSE1 : I already e:: did did it at home↓ / finding
19.   equation you want, the / (P3**) he did like what↑ the**
20. →   **using like normalise↑**
21.   Sp   : yes↓ that's right↓ so how [did you do]
22. → MSE1 :   **[yeah but] what you want**
23. →   **me is just yes directly↑**
24.   Sp   : yes↓ so is there you think there is any problem with
25.   my suggestion↑
26.   MSE1 : what I did is just the day before, so I start with this↓ I mean
27.   at the end I can get (x) this, the voltage equation↓

In this extract, MSE1 explained about what had been done and in Lines 18 – 20 MSE1 said '(P3) he did like what↑ the using like normalise↑' which is a declarative ending in rising intonation 'normalise↑'. The supervisor (Line 21) responded with 'yes that's right so how did you do'. This response provides evidence that MSE1's utterance has an interrogative function. In Lines 22 – 23, MSE1 said 'yeah but what you want me is just yes directly↑' which is also a declarative ending in rising intonation 'directly↑'. The supervisor's response in Line 24 makes it evident that these are declarative questions. The use of declarative questions in the interaction showed that MSE1 satisfied the positive face of the supervisor.

d. Ellipsis

Extract 130

Situation: The student and the supervisor talked about analytical elements in the
analysis.

86.   Sp   : yeah, I can't identify the difference↓
87. → MSE3 : **yeah, still descriptive↑**
88.   Sp   : well it's getting a bit more analytical, but if you
89.   need e:: it's not e:: a big issue if you need it for your thesis
90.   research, if you need something a bit more::
91.   umm on the other hand it's probably a good place
92.   to start to start with that↓
93.   MSE3 : okay↓

After the supervisor had said that he could not see the difference, MSE3 (Line 87) said
'yeah, still descriptive↑' to question the supervisor regarding the analysis made. What
was delivered by MSE3 is an ellipsis, a direct strategy. The use of this direct strategy
illustrated that MSE3 employed positive politeness strategy in the interaction.

e. Neutral Proposals

Extract 131

Situation: Sp and MSE1 talked about acceleration.

141.   Sp   : what is what is the mass↓
142. →MSE1 : a**: is it mass from all of them↑**
143.   Sp   : no::
144.   MSE1 : no↑ no ((laugh))
145.   Sp   : no↓

In Line 141, the supervisor asked MSE1 about the mass. Instead of providing the
information, MSE1 responded to the supervisor by asking 'a: is it mass from all of
them↑' (Line 142) which is a neutral-proposal to ask for information. A neutral-
proposal   is a direct question. The use of a neutral-proposal showed that MSE1 used
positive politeness strategy.

f. Aspects

Extract 132

Situation: The student and the supervisor talked about frequency in the research.

287. Sp   : so omega is the driving force↓
288.→ MSE1 : yea, **I was thinking** about e:: / the comment / in here,
289.   I should put one frequency that means like that↑
290. Sp   : yeah↓ omega is the same here, now many
291.   different frequency you solve for each frequency in
292.   turn // so you choose one value kit kit resource //…

In this extract, MSE1 responded to the supervisor's prior utterance by saying 'yea I was thinking about e:: / the comment / in here I should put one frequency that means like that↑', (Lines 288 – 289). MSE1's utterance is a declarative question as it ends in a question contour. MSE1 used the subjectiviser 'I was thinking' that softened the force of the request and showed the use of negative politeness strategy.

This illustration of the instances of syntactical modifications show that MSE participants used conditional clauses, inquiries, declarative questions, and non-proposals. There was one instance of aspect *I was thinking* in the data of MSE1. MSE participants mostly used declarative questions and 46% of them was ellipsis. The percentage of the instances of syntactical modification is displayed in Figure 9.

5.5.2.2 Lexical and Phrasal Modifications

a. Consultative Devices

Extract 133

Situation: The student and the supervisor talked about whether the area chosen is
             legal.

574. →MSE3 : yeah that's:: / yeah should explore that area, **do**
575. →   **you think**↑
576. Sp   : I::
577. →MSE3 : it's it's [legal↑

578.   Sp   :   [I think I [think
579.   MSE3 :   [the lega::l
580.   Sp   : I think you should look if I was doing about
581.   probably look at that, but it's up to you / … (continued)

In this extract, the student asked the supervisor regarding the legality of the area to be explored by saying 'yeah that's:: / yeah should exploring that area, do you think↑' (Lines 57 - 575) and 'it's it's legal↑' (Line 577). 'Do you think' is a consultative device which was employed preceding MSE3's request for information. By using the consultative device 'do you think', MSE3 mitigated the request and fulfilled the supervisor's negative face.

   b.   Understaters

Extract 134

Situation: The student and the supervisor talked about the research question in the
         student's paper.

166.   Sp   : so based macro topic organisation↓ yes so what what
167.   options are they for self-presentation, it is often at the
168.   beginning, but it is not always at the beginning↓
169.   sometimes other topics precede can precede it↓ yea
170.   okay yea that one makes sense↑ ///
171.→ MSE2 : **one small thing,** should I actually put this is question
172.   there↑ I just omit it /// [I don't] see:: that in in
173.   Sp   :   [bu::t] do you usually see at (x)
174.   really have research question, because you're not
175.   supposed to go out of data … (continued)

In the extract above, after the supervisor talked about self-presentation in Lines 166 – 170, MSE2 asked the supervisor by saying 'one small thing, should I actually put this is question here there↑ I just omit it /// I don't see:: that in in' in which MSE2 used the understater 'one small thing' preceding the request for information. MSE2 used the understater to mitigate the force of the request and satisfy the supervisor's positive face.

215

c. Subjectivisers

Extract 135

Situation: The student and the supervisor talked about micro analysis.

205.   MSE2 : I don't have to talk about it then↑

206.   Sp   : but if you not doing↑

207.   MSE2 : aahh

208.   Sp   : that kind of analysis↑ why talk↑ about it

209.→ MSE2 : yea yeap yea, **I think** it's the typical structure

210.   isn't it↑ about the self-presentation in particular↑

211.   Sp   : it is but it is a micro analysis about the self-

212.   presentation sequence … (continued)

In Line 209, MSE2 responded to the supervisor by saying 'yea yeap yea I think it's the typical structure isn't it↑ about the self-presentation in particular↑'. In this utterance, MSE2 had two queries regarding the 'typical structure' and 'self-presentation'. These queries are preceded by 'I think' which is a subjectiviser, which was used to mitigate the force of the request. By lowering the force of the request, MSE2 satisfied the supervisor's negative face.

d. Downtoners

Extract 136

Situation: The student and the supervisor talked about the steps in setting out an
          example.

254.   Sp   : and then you go through when you do the

255.   calculation

256.→ MSE1 : **just** put [diagram↑]

257.   Sp   :   [so::] yeah, you can↓ hhh / see with <u>this</u>

258.   you should be able to plot /[presenters of] hmm a /

259.   MSE1 :   [presenters]

In this extract, when the supervisor provided information about how to do an example, MSE1 asked the supervisor by saying 'just put diagram↑' (Line 256) in which MSE1

used the adverb 'just' to ask whether he could use a diagram. The supervisor responded that MSE1 could do it by saying '[so::] yeah, you can↓ hhh / …'(Line 257). *Just* is a downtoner that was used to modulate the force of the request for fulfilling the supervisor's negative face.

e. Cajolers

Extract 137

Situation: The student and the supervisor talked about the variables explored.

599. Sp   : that's my feel↓ all I say everything is, but that's me↓ ((laugh))
600. →MSE3 : no, **I mean** if I like to to search from the for for the
601.   article about this, is it in the governance↑ or
602. Sp   : a: there would be in governance↓ yes↓ a::
603.   comparative governance↓
604. MSE3 : comparative governance↓

In Lines 600 – 601, when MSE3 asked for information from the supervisor, MSE3 used a cajoler by saying 'no, I mean if I like to to search from the for for the article about this, is it in the governance↑ or'. *I mean* is a cajoler used to soften the request. By lowering the force of the request, MSE3 satisfied the positive face of the supervisor.

f. Appealers

Extract 138

Situation: MSE1 and the supervisor talked about the value of omega.

295. MSE1 : so that means it can be input from one, two
296. →   frequency **right**↑
297. Sp   : yea↓
298. MSE1 : say that frequency from zero or one to::: six hundred
299. Sp   : yea
300. MSE1 : that's telling you about that / the frequency↓ so that
301. →   means that the value of J omega **right**↑
302. Sp   : that's the value of omega↑
303. MSE1 : yea↓

In Lines 300 - 301, MSE1 ended his utterance using the appealer 'right↑' to ask for confirmation from the supervisor. Appealers are lexical modifiers used to mitigate the force of the utterance. By asking the supervisor's agreement or understanding, MSE1 saved the supervisor's negative face.

These instances show that MSE participants used internal modifiers involving downtoners, appealers, understaters, subjectivisers, cajolers, and consultative devices. Subjectivisers were commonly used by MSE participants in the interactions. The percentage of the instances of internal modifiers used by MSE participants is illustrated in Figure 10.

5.5.3 External Modifications

    a. <u>Apologetic Markers</u>

Extract 139

Situation: The student and the supervisor were at the beginning of the supervision
        session.

1.	Sp	: I think I saw you coming at three↑
2.	MSE1	: ((laugh)) there is a bit rain↓ just a little bit late↓
3.	Sp	: okay, because I waited at three:: and and then I got
4.		hungry
5.	Sp and M1 ((laugh))	
6. →	MSE1	: that's fine↓ **sorry**↓

In Line 6, MSE1 expressed an apology to the supervisor by saying 'that's fine↓ sorry↓' after the supervisor said that he had waited for MSE1 at three. 'Sorry' is an apology marker.

    b. <u>Gratitude</u>

Extract 140

Situation: The student and the supervisor talked about the topics people discussed in
        the first meeting.

93.	Sp	: you just want to talk about what topics there are,↑
94.		so::: what people talk about in the first meeting an::d
95.		/// the definition of conversation, you need a pen↑
96. →	MSE2	: yea, **thanks**↓ ((laugh))
97.	Sp	: the definition of conversational topics is probably
98.		fine, ///typical structure first meeting starter

In Line 96, after the supervisor said '… you need a pen↑' which is an offer of a pen, MSE2 expressed gratitude to the supervisor by saying 'yea, thanks↓'. 'Thanks' is a discourse marker to express appreciation of the supervisor's offer.

c. Grounders

Extract 141

Situation: The student and the supervisor talked about the variables explored.

592.	Sp	: it's necessary, but now we have to get into the real
593.		// analogical depth of your thesis↓ that means
594.		looking at what are the variables that you are
595.		going to examine↓
596.→	MSE3	: **I think this is a:: the:: what what is the components**
597.		**of e:: governance isn't it↑ is that any rela-**
598.		**relation to the governance↑**
599.	Sp	: that's my feel↓ all I say everything is but that's me↓ ((laugh))
600. →	MSE3	: **no, I mean if I like to to search from the for for the**
601**.**		**article about this, is it in the governance↑ or**
602.	Sp	: a: there would be in governance↓ yes↓ a::
603.		comparative governance↓
604.	MSE3	: comparative governance↓
605.	Sp	: a:: that's probably the best place isn't it↑ but there
606.		should be some comparative ethics↓
607.	MSE3	: comparative ethics↓ okay↓

In this extract, in responding to the supervisor's prior utterance regarding the variables to be examined in his thesis, MSE3 said 'I think this is a:: the:: what what is the

components of e:: governance isn't it↑ is that any rela- relation to the governance↑'. In this utterance, a sentential hedge 'I think' was employed by MSE3. In addition, there are two queries in the utterance 'this is a:: the:: what what is the components of e:: governance isn't it↑' which is a marked-proposal and 'is that any rela- relation to the governance↑' which is a neutral-proposal. After the supervisor's response (Line 599), MSE3 asked the supervisor again by saying 'no, I mean if I like to to search from the for for the article about this, is it in the governance↑ or'. This utterance consists of a directive to request for information, viz. 'is it in the governance↑' and 'no, I mean if I like to to search from the for for the article about this,' which is a reason as a grounder and the reason was issued preceding the request. The grounder used modulated the request that would satisfy the supervisor's negative face.

MSE participants used three external modifiers involving grounders, gratitude, and apologies. Grounders were the most frequently external modifiers used in the interactions. The percentage of the instances is presented in Figure 11.

5.6 Summary

In summary, MSE participants expressed their politeness in their responses, involvement, and their requestive behaviour. They used backchannel responses, repetitions, and overlapped talk not only to show their involvement in the interactions but also to show attentiveness, understanding, and uptake of the talk. They also expressed disagreement through their overlapped talk. To show their relationship with the supervisors, MSE participants only used the address pronoun *we*. Their requestive behaviour showed that they made requests for action, requests for information, and requests for clarification. The directness strategies in the head acts of their requests showed that they employed mood derivable-imperatives, direct questions, need statements, and non-conventional indirect statements. They used internal modifications to mitigate the force of their requests. There was no co-occurrence of internal modifiers in the construction of head acts. The syntactical modifications involved conditional clauses, inquiries, declarative questions, ellipsis, neutral-proposals, and aspects of the request. The lexical/phrasal modifications involved consultative devices, understaters, subjectivisers, downtoners, cajolers, and appealers. These internal modifications are downdgraders. External modifications were also employed involving apologetic markers, gratitude, and grounders.

In the following chapter, Chapter 6, the alignment of the politeness strategies of J and M participants in their intracultural interactions and those of JSE and MSE participants in their intercultural interactions are presented and the findings are discussed.

Chapter 6: Comparison of Findings and Discussion

This chapter presents a comparison of the findings in the intracultural and intercultural interactions and a discussion of the findings. The comparison involves pragmatic features used to express politeness in the interactions in the thesis supervision sessions. The presentation of the comparison will start with backchannelling, repetitions, overlaps, address terms, and the request speech acts. The discussion will follow after the presentation of the comparison of each component.   The chapter ends with a summary.

6.1 Backchannelling

Backchannelling in this study refers to the short verbal responses that the interlocutor provides to the on-going speaker. In this section, the findings of backchannel responses in this study are compared by looking at the similarities and differences in the intracultural and intercultural interactions followed by a discussion of the comparisons.

6.1.1 Comparison of Backchannelling in Intracultural and Intercultural Interactions

In the intracultural and intercultural interactions of the Javanese students, the first similarity between J and JSE participants was that both groups used both lexical and non-lexical items. However, JSE participants employed more varied use of lexical and non-lexical items for backchannel responses. Backchannel responses uttered by JSE participants included lexical items such as *exactly, okay, yes*, and non-lexical items such as *oh, yeah*, *yea*, *hmm, yeap, aha aha*, and *he'e*. They also used a combination of lexical and non-lexical items such as *okay yeah yeah*, *yea yeah exactly, yea exactly*, etc. J participants only used a lexical item from an honorific speech level *nggih* (yes) and a combination of *nggih* and the interjection *o nggih* (o yes) or kin address terms *pak/(i)bu* (father/mother). The non-lexical items such as *em*:: (only J1) and *hmm* (only J1 and J6) were rarely used. The percentage of backchannels used in the intracultural and intercultural interaction is presented in Figure 5

The second similarity was that J and JSE participants produced backchanelling in similar discourse environments. J and JSE participants produced backchannelling after

hesitation pauses, rising intonations, and clause boundaries. In these discourse environments, J and JSE participants delivered backchannelling mostly after clause boundaries and rising intonation. These were found in the data of all J and JSE participants, except for J4. The other similarity in delivering backchannelling was that J and JSE participants used them with hesitation pauses. Although they were similar in their use of backchannelling in this environment, there were differences in the particular environment of hesitation pauses. JSE participants used backchannelling after auxiliary verbs and prepositions, while J participants employed them after the function word *nek* (if) and *ning* (but).

Backchannelling used by J and JSE participants was also different in some other discourse environments, such as after *you know*. JSE participants used backchannels after *you know* in turn-final positions. Backchanneling after *you know* was used only a relatively small number of times, but was found in the data of JSE1, JSE3, and JSE4. Of the other minor differences, J participants used backchannelling after the lexical item *ngono* or *ngenten lho* (it's like that), and *nggih* (yes).

The examination of backchanelling in the data of L1 speakers of Minangkabaunese revealed similarities and differences. Both M and MSE participants used lexical and non-lexical backchannel responses. M participants used varieties of *yes*: *iyo*, *yo* and *ya* and a combination of *yes* and kin address terms such as *yo pak/buk* (yes father/mother), or *o:: iyo* (o:: yes). They employed the non-lexical items *he'e*, *he::*, *o::*, and *hmm*. Similarly, MSE participants utilised lexical and non-lexical backchannel responses. The lexical items include *okay*, *yes*, *yeah that is right*, and *hmm I see*. The non-lexical items include *hmm*, *yeah*, and y*ea*.

M and MSE participants' backchannel responses were found in similar linguistic environments. They delivered backchannel responses after rising intonation, and clause boundaries. Backchannel responses after rising intonation and clause boundaries were evident in the data of all M and MSE participants.

The M and MSE participants also produced backchannelling in some different linguistic environments. MSE participants uttered backchannel responses in the context of hesitation pauses, after prepositions as well as after the auxiliary verb 'to

be'. However, the M participants delivered backchannelling after the Minangkabaunese particle *lah* (you got it, okay, or it is done).

In brief, this study revealed that J and JSE participants were different as the J participants used a *krama* (HL) backchannel response and JSE participants employed various lexical backchannel responses. JSE participants also delivered backchannels in different linguistic environments such as after *you know* and J participants used backchannelling after *ngenten* (like this, HL) or *ngono lho* (like that, LL). This study also found that M and MSE participants were similar in the way that the M participants used a lexical item *iyo* (yes) and its varieties while MSE used backchannel responses using some different lexical items. They were different as MSE used backchannelling after hesitation pauses, while M participants used backchannelling after the particle *lah.*

	Clau	Ris	Ngo	Hes	Lah	Ykn
■ J	58%	23%	14%	5%	0%	0%
■ JSE	71%	14%	0%	12%	0%	3%
■ M	50%	44%	0%	0%	6%	0%
■ MSE	77%	18%	0%	5%	0%	0%
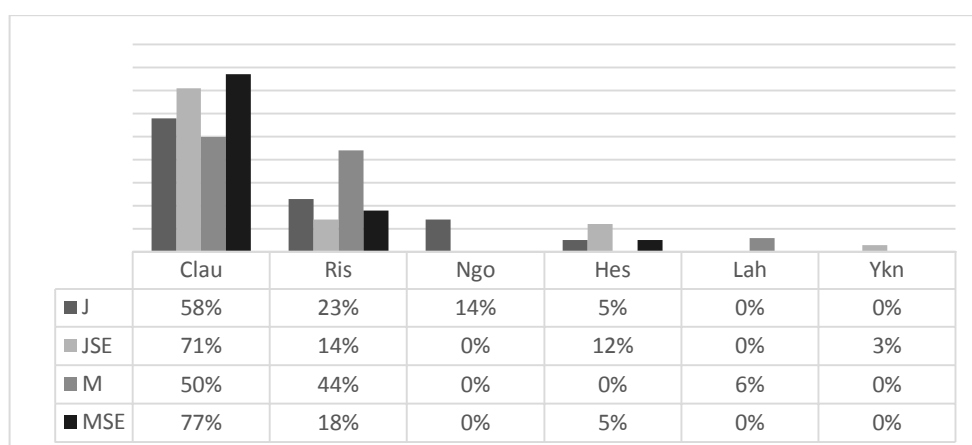
Figure 5 Backchannels in intracultural and intercultural interactions

6.1.2   Discussion of Backchannelling in Intracultural and Intercultural Interactions

In academic discourse like a thesis supervision session, the students and the supervisors are in a formal situation in which their status is clear. In Javanese culture, how the different status between the student and the supervisor is perceived results in the use of a lexicon from the honorific speech level *nggih* (yes) as evidenced in the backchannel responses by the J participants. In her study of Javanese women and politeness, Smith-Hefner (1988, p 537) reported that a Javanese has to choose one of the speech levels to signal the status between the speaker and the addressee. The use

of *nggih* suggests that the speaker engaged in on-going talk had a higher status than the J participants. The backchannel response *nggih* uttered by the J participants in the thesis supervision session was regarded as socially appropriate behaviour (Fraser & Nolen, 1981). In this case, politeness is the central element related to the use of backchannelling (Heinz, 2003). In other words, politeness in Javanese is not enough only realised by expressing backchannels in the interactions, but also by the appropriate choice of speech level. For example, the use of *krama* in the interaction would make the speaker appear polite.

The use of *nggih* (yes) in L1 Javanese interactions is in accordance with Bowe, Martin, and Manns' (2014, p. 101) explanation that, in Javanese culture, the Javanese frequently employ short responses or backchannelling *ya* or *iya* (yes) or *huh eh*. *Huh eh* is a device for giving acknowledgement and it appears as the English 'uh-huh' (Bowe et al., 2014. p. 101). The backchannel responses in Bowe et al.'s study did not emerge from a formal context or a different status interaction. The backchannel responses used are not from the honorific speech level, but they are lexical items in *ngoko* (LL). *Ya* and *iya* (yes) are used when the speaker and the addressee are of the same status, familiar or friends, and in informal settings. In Javanese culture, it is expected that every Javanese should be mindful of their status in the society and behave themselves appropriately. A Javanese, who chooses appropriate speech levels and behaves appropriately, will be well appreciated.

Nggih (yes) may be culturally-specific to L1 speakers of Javanese as it is honorific vocabulary. The linguistic environment *ngono lho* (like that), *ngene ki* (like this), *ngeten* (like this) or *ngeten nggih* (like this yes) was another device that provoked the backchannel response *nggih* from the J participants. *Ngono lho* or *ngene ki* is lexically from *ngoko* (LL) and they were uttered mostly by the male supervisors. Female supervisors seemed to convey mutual respect and tended to use *krama* (HL) and mixed it with *ngoko* (LL). Instead of saying *ngono lho* or *ngene ki*, the female supervisors uttered *ngeten* or *ngeten nggih* (HL) that means 'like this yes'. The presence of these lexical items in turn final positions triggered the use of the backchannel *nggih* (yes) from J participants. The backchannel response *nggih* expressed by J participants did not only show support (Maynard, 1997), agreement (White, 1989), polite listenership (Lambertz, 2011), and preference of positive politeness strategies (Brown & Levinson,

1987), but they also conveyed respect and deference that saved the supervisors' negative face (Brown & Levinson, 1987, p. 178).

The lexical items *iyo, yo,* and *ya* (yes) used by the M participants were the main lexical backchannel responses. Of these three varieties of backchannel response *yes*, M participants made use of the BI lexical item *ya* (yes) most in their interactions. The limited kinds of lexical backchannel responses used by M participants may suggest that L1 speakers of Minangkabaunese have a preference to use a smaller variety of backchannel responses in their interactions. Furthermore, the lexical items *iyo, yo,* and *ya* (yes) do not convey any respect in the interactions. M participants used backchannels to acknowledge and show acceptance of what had been said by the supervisors as a way to satisfy the supervisor's positive face (Brown & Levinson, 1987).

The use of the pragmatic marker *lah* in the turn-final position seemed to lead to the M participants producing backchannel responses. Using the marker *lah* in the turn-final position is very common in interactions between Minangkabaunese. It may mean *you got it*, *okay*, *it is done*. The particle *lah* in Minangkabaunese is used as an emphatic and solidarity marker (Moussay, 1998) as well as a politeness marker (Revita et al., 2007). The particle *lah* can be used as an imperative to provide emphasis. The instance of the emphatic marker *lah* can be seen in '*salaisaianlah dalam saminggu ko*' meaning 'finish or do it in this week' (M4, Line 454). In this utterance, the particle *lah* functions to emphasise the verb *salaisaian* (finish/do). An instance of the particle *lah* in the turn-final position can be seen in Chapter 4, Extract 34.

JSE and MSE participants used quite a number of different lexical items as backchannel responses showing their repertoire of communicative strategies in English. This occurred when they had to communicate in English in the Australian context. The culture where the interactions occurred seemed to shape both JSE and MSE participants' backchannnelling. Heinz (2003, p. 1137) maintains that cultural and language systems determine the differences in backchannel behaviour. The differences were in the form of non-lexical and lexical items, occurrences, and the purposes for which backchannelling was used. Deng's (2008, p. 311) cross cultural study on backchannelling showed that Australian speakers produced a higher percentage of

226

lexical expressions as backchannel responses. His finding suggests that the Australians expect the use of backchannel responses that are likely to be lexically contentful in their interactions. Furthermore, Deng (2008) suggested that the use of a large number of backchannels as a conversational style showed Australian speakers' preference for using positive politeness strategies and expressing solidarity. Failing to provide backchannel responses may result in the interpretation of a lack of cooperation and involvement.

Similarly, Tao and Thompson (1991) investigated the backchannelling behaviour of L1 speakers of Mandarin Chinese for whom English was their dominant language. Their study revealed that the participants uttered more English backchannel responses than the Mandarin Chinese when speaking Mandarin Chinese. Using a sociolinguistic approach, Hymes (1972) suggests that language norms and rules usually govern how individuals should interact with each other in particular situations and cultural settings. JSE and MSE participants used their available repertoire of backchannel responses in English that are not employed in Javanese and Minangkabaunese interaction. JSE and MSE participants seemed to accommodate the way backchannel responses are used in an Australian context (Giles, Coupland, & Coupland, 1991). They showed attentiveness, cooperation, and involvement with their supervisors' immediate preceding talk. According to Brown and Levinson (1987, p. 113), the backchannel responses expressed 'emphatic agreement' to the supervisor's talk. To this end, they expressed camaraderie and saved the supervisor's positive face (Brown & Levinson, 1987).

The results of backchannelling in this study was in contrast to Suprapto's (2012) study on *aizuchi* that revealed that Indonesian L2 speakers of Japanese used *aizuchi* at irrelevant times and with limited lexical variation. The difference might be due to the context of interaction as Tannen (1986, in Lambertz, 2011, p. 16) suggested that the context of interaction can greatly influence the frequency and use of backchannels.

The linguistic environment of the clause-final *you know* is specific to L1 speakers of English. It is an addressee-oriented pragmatic device which is used to ensure the 'taken-for-grantedness' of what is being uttered (Coates, 1989, p. 117 in Stubbe & Holmes, 1995, p. 69). The use of the clause-final y*ou know* asks for the interlocutor's

cooperation and acknowledgment of the topic. The productions of *you know* in the turn-final position by their supervisors invited JSE participants to utter backchannel responses. JSE participants took up the signal from the use of *you know* by the supervisors and provided the assurance using backchannel responses.

Backchannelling and turn-taking procedures can express politeness between the speaker and the addressee in the interaction (White, 1997). In Javanese interaction, politeness was embedded in the proper choice of speech level (see the Extracts 1 – 4, in Chapter 4). It was shown in the *krama* speech level chosen for the backchannelling response in the interaction of J participants with their supervisors who were also L1 speakers of Javanese. The choice of *krama* (HL) speech levels as backchannelling and as a means of interaction did not only show being polite but also deference. The *krama* speech levels showed that there was a status difference between the J participants and their supervisors. Honorific words in Minangkabaunese and English are associated with address terms, so honorific words were not found in the interaction of MSE and JSE participants when they communicated in English with their supervisors who were L1 speakers of English. However, the use of backchannelling in the interaction of JSE and MSE participants and their supervisors displayed their uptake of the content of the talk. The backchannel responses also showed explicit understanding, agreement, and collaboration in moment-by-moment talk (Clark & Krych, 2004; Schegloff, 1981). Backchannelling used in the interactions also conveyed attentiveness to the supervisor's talk or a positive politeness device (Brown & Levinson, 1987) to contribute to the interaction.

The occurrence of backchannelling after hesitation pauses by MSE participants showed that they did not deliver the backchannel responses at the end of a turn-constructional unit, a transition relevance place (TRP). TRP is where the turn-change from one speaker to another commonly occurs (Sacks, Schegloff, & Jefferson, 1974). Sacks et al. did not explicate how TRP is realised linguistically in the interaction, but the constructional unit is defined syntactically in terms of sentences, clauses, phrases, and words. However, the production of backchannelling after hesitation pauses often occurs when a speaker has not performed an utterance thoroughly and is followed by a pause. MSE participants used backchannelling to provide a signal to the supervisors to continue with the delivery of the information in progress (Lambert, 2011, p. 13).

228

Thus, the backchannelling employed was supportive and cooperative as it did not gain the floor and kept it for a while with the supervisor. Furthermore, the backchannel responses from the addressee depends on the nature of the dialogical interaction. They show the primary role of the addressee as the recipient and collaborator of the exchange in the interaction who may project further direction of the talk (Gardner, 2001). Svennevig (1999) argued that showing attentiveness and using self-oriented comments to show alignment to the speaker in an interaction are ways of being polite in the interaction.

In summary, the participants in this study used backchannel responses to show the participants' role as listeners who were attentive, supportive, and polite in their interactions. Thus, the participants used backchannel responses as positive politeness devices in their interactions. On the other hand, the Javanese backchannel *nggih* associated with status relationships expressed respect or deference or to convey negative politeness. Moreover, there were linguistic environments of backchannel responses that were culturally-specific such as *you know*, *lah*, and *ngono/ngenten lho*. The backchannel responses were frequently used after clause boundaries and rising intonation both in the intra and intercultural interactions. The backchannels used in the intracultural and intercultural interactions were different as JSE and MSE participants displayed greater variability of lexical backchannels.

6.2 Repetitions

In the interactions of thesis supervision sessions, many instances of other-repetitions or allo-repetition (Tannen, 1989) were identified. The other-repetitions identified in this study are the immediate other-repetitions in a sequential organisation that occur in the local context of the talk. This section discusses the findings of other-repetitions employed in this study that were presented in Chapter 4 and Chapter 5. The presentation compares the other-repetitions used by J, JSE, M and MSE. The percentage of the instances is presented in Figure 6.

6.2.1 Comparison of Forms of Other-repetitions in Intracultural and Intercultural Interactions

The dialogical repetitions examined in this study show that the forms of repetition used in the interactions in the thesis supervision sessions between J or JSE participants and

the supervisors had similarities and differences. The forms of repetition analysed in sequential organisation include exact, reduced, modified and expanded repetitions (see Extracts 5, 6, 7, 43, 44, 45, and 46). J and JSE were similar in delivering the forms of repeats. J and JSE used exact repetitions as evident in the data of J3, J5, and JSE2. Reduced repetitions were also used by J and JSE participants, except for J4. J and JSE also used modified repetitions and expanded repetitions. Only JSE3 did not use expanded repetitions. Thus, J and JSE employed the same forms of repetition in their interactions in thesis supervision sessions.
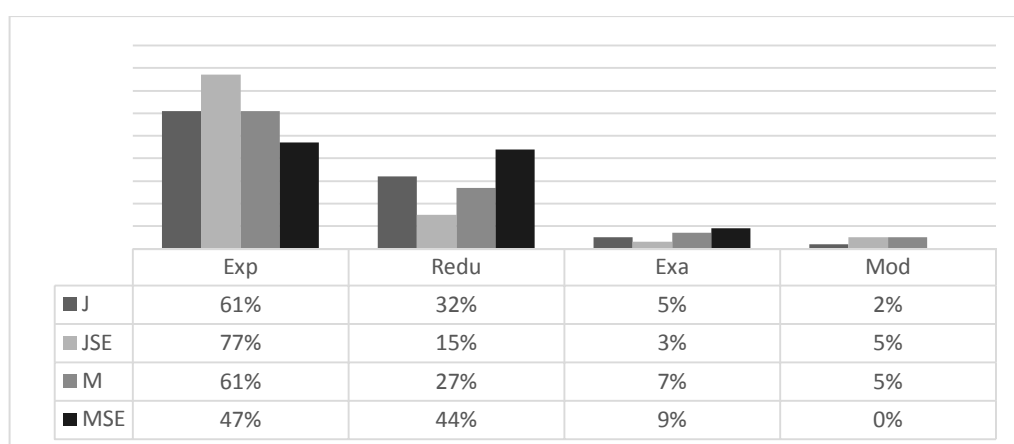

	Exp	Redu	Exa	Mod
■ J	61%	32%	5%	2%
■ JSE	77%	15%	3%	5%
■ M	61%	27%	7%	5%
■ MSE	47%	44%	9%	0%

Figure 6 Forms of other-repetitions in intracultural and intercultural interactions

In the interactions, M or MSE and the supervisors also employed similar and different forms of repetition. They used all four forms: exact, reduced, modified, and expanded repetitions. Exact repetitions were evident in the interactions of M participants such as M2 and M6. Similarly, MSE participants used exact repetitions, evident in the interactions of MSE1 and MSE3 with their supervisors. Reduced repetitions were found in the interactions of all MSE participants. For M participants, reduced repetitions happened only in the interactions of M4. Both M and MSE participants delivered expanded repetitions in their interactions with their supervisors. However, MSE did not produce modified repetitions. These repetitions were only evident in the data of M5 and M6. In other words, M and MSE used three similar forms in their interactions, but only M repeated the supervisor's immediate prior utterance using modified repetitions.

In conclusion, J and JSE used exact, reduced, and expanded repetitions in their interactions with the supervisors. M and MSE also produced similar forms except for modified repetitions that don't exist in the data of MSE. The lack of modified repetitions in the data of MSE shows that this form of repetition used by MSE was different from those of JSE.

6.2.2 Comparison of Functions of Other-repetitions in Intracultural and Intercultural Interactions

The findings show that J and JSE participants repeated the supervisors' preceding utterances for different purposes or functions. The repeats delivered appear to have functioned as acknowledgement of the collected information, a request for confirmation, targeting the next action, a clarification, or a confirmation. Although J and JSE participants used the repeats for these purposes, they differed in the way they used the forms to express the functions. J used exact repetitions when asking for confirmation and for targeting the next action, while JSE repeated the supervisor's utterance exactly when requesting for confirmation. J used reduced repetitions for almost all the functions found in this study while JSE used this repeat for acknowledging the receipt of information and for confirming information. J used expanded repetitions for requesting for confirmation, targeting the next action, and providing confirmation, but not for acknowledging or clarification. JSE did not employ these kinds of repeats to request for information. In summary, J and JSE used repetition for different functions, and they employed different forms to express those different functions.

M and MSE also used different forms for different purposes. M used four forms of repetition and MSE employed three of them in their interactions. M used exact repetitions to acknowledge the receipt of information (see Extract 35) while MSE delivered this form of repetition for both requesting for confirmation (see Extract 110) and acknowledging the receipt of information. Reduced forms were evident in the interactions of M participants to acknowledge the receipt of information, a request for clarification, and confirmation. MSE used reduced repetitions for four functions viz. confirmation, acknowledging the receipt of information, requesting for clarification, and requesting for confirmation. Expanded repetitions occur in the interactions of both

M and MSE. M employed them to request for clarification and confirmation, and for targeting next actions. MSE used expanded repetitions only for targeting next actions.

The similarities between the participants of J, JSE, M and MSE lay in their different use of forms to represent functions. They used similar forms of repetition to express different functions. The difference was that J and JSE did not use the repeats to request for clarification and MSE did not use repetitions to seek clarification.

6.2.3 Discussion of Other-repetitions in Intracultural and Intercultural Interactions

In the interactions in this study, J, JSE, M and MSE used other-repetitions to acknowledge that the supervisors' utterances had been received or heard. Tannen (1989) describes this acknowledgment of receipt of information as the speaker's *active listenership* towards the speaker of the preceding turn. By acknowledging the supervisor's immediate previous utterance, the student participants signalled to the supervisor to continue the delivery of the information. Johnstone (2008, p. 173) maintains that other-repetitions can establish solidarity and create a harmonious atmosphere between the speaker and the addressee which is the main aim of interaction. By repeating the supervisor's immediate preceding utterance the student participants showed that they were attentively involved in the interaction. It was important for them to display that they were attentively listening to the supervisor. Brown and Levinson (1987, 113) categorise repetitions as an involvement strategy to highlight emotional agreement with what the speaker has just said.

Providing confirmation and clarification using other-repetitions or echo answers, in the sense of Svennevig (2003), occured in the interactions when there was a neutral proposal from their supervisor. In her study, Bazzanela (2011, p. 428) demonstrated that a response to a question may be made by repeating the query or part of the question as an answer. As Schegloff (1996, pp. 175-180) describes, the repeats used as confirmation showed that the student participants reinforced that they agreed with what the supervisor had just said. The confirmation was shown by repeating what was being agreed with. Murata (1995), in her study of native/non-native conversations, found that the repeats that signal agreement to the interlocutor's prior utterance show solidarity and build rapport in an interaction. The findings of this study are similar

and different at some points with her findings. This study is similar to Murata's findings in terms of the function of the other-repetitions as solidarity repetition. The participants of this study repeated part or the whole utterance of the supervisors to show their acknowledgement, participatory listenership, approval or confirmation of what the supervisors had said. The participants used repetition to show cooperation, camaraderie or solidarity with their supervisors. The difference is that the other-repetitions in this study were more frequent in the intracultural interactions than those in the intercultural interactions.

In the interactions in this study, the student participants of all groups produced other-repetitions when responding to the supervisor's prior turn. They delivered the repeats to initiate or start the next turn. These were articulated in the form of the expanded repetitions. The repeats were those lexical items that were in turn-final positions of the supervisor's immediate previous utterance. These repeats were then used in the initial position of their current utterance. Thus, the repeats were used not only to start the turn but also to maintain the delivery of their next utterance that provided further information. By positioning the repeats at the beginning of the utterance the student participants had more time to prepare what they were going to say. Using repetitions at the beginning of the utterance seemed to be part of the student participants' communication strategies. As Svennevig, (2003, p 290) also found, this strategy not only showed their alignment and agreement with the supervisor's previous utterance, but also informed the supervisor that what is going to be said next is related to the repeats. In accordance with Brown and Levinson's (1987) politeness theory, showing alignment and agreement to the supervisor's prior utterance shows that the student participants satisfied the supervisor's positive face in the communication.

The student participants of this study also used other-repetitions as requests for confirmation and clarification. The repeat itself shows there is something that needs confirming or clarifying. According to Deen (1997), a request for confirmation is utilised as a double check. By repeating the supervisors' utterances with rising intonation or as an interrogative function, the participants in this study displayed their understanding that the provided information should be given confirmation or validation. It is the primary cognitive function of other-repetitions to make certain the accurate acceptance or understanding of the delivered messages (Dumitrescu, 2008, p.

669).   From the point of view of conversation analysis, echo questions showed that they applied a particular strategy in their conversations. The particular strategy in this instance is "keeping and handing over the floor" (Oropeza-Escobar, 2011, p. 7). So, they held the floor while delivering the echo question to elicit particular information, and afterwards offered the floor back to the supervisors. This showed that both the supervisor and the student had equal rights to the floor in the thesis supervision sessions. Thus, the interaction was jointly developed and constructed. Oropeza-Escobar (2011, p. 4) considers that co-construction of the interaction shows that the speaker and the addressee are cooperative and supportive. Following Grice's (1975) Cooperative Principle, to be cooperative is regarded as one of the goals of interaction.

The difference between the Javanese groups (J and JSE) and the Minangkabaunese groups (M and MSE) was that the Javanese group did not use other-repetitions to request for clarification. The M and MSE's repetitions might have been triggered by lack of shared knowledge. It is difficult to know whether the repeats are requests for clarification or requests for confirmation, as both may have the same forms. Examination of next turn responses or proofs can provide a solution. According to Hutchby and Wooffitt (2002, p 14) in determining the function of an utterance, the next-turn proof or next-turn response needs to be taken into account. It is the way the next speaker interprets and responds to the repetitions that determines what the function of the repetition is. An example in the use of the echo question in this study is illustrated in Extract 142.

Extract: 142

Situation: MSE3 and Sp talked about surface look.

188.   Sp   : so when you're looking at quite simply this is work

189.   here this is work there a:: that's very superficial /

190.   surface look (xx) on

191.   MSE3 : ↑**super- look**

192.   Sp   : surface you are looking at the top you are not

193.   looking at / what underlies it what I want is (x) not

194.   what I want

The above extract shows that the student participant produced an echo question by repeating part of the supervisor's prior utterance with rising intonation. The student participant repeated the lexical items that were the source of the trouble and needed clarifying. The utterance 'super-look' was delivered in rising intonation that had an interrogative function. The repeat of 'look' was preceded by the lexical item 'super' which was actually MSE3's misapprehension of the lexical item 'surface'. The different intonation indicated the function of what was repeated. The repeat might have been understood as a request for confirmation or clarification. However, by looking at the supervisor's response it is clear that the echo question was a request for clarification. The supervisor's response provided both correction and clarification. The correction was directed to the first item of the utterance 'super-'that becomes 'surface'. Then, the supervisor clarified the lexical item 'surface' in relation to the context of the interaction.

The instance of other-repetition in the repair sequence in Extract 142 is in line with Kurhila's (2001, p. 1089) study that analysed answers of repeat parts of the questions in native and non-native interactions. The examination showed when a non-native speaker had a query that involved a non-standard form, the native speaker provided a standard form. The use of the echo question in this extract shows the student participant wanted to capture the supervisor's attention to signal that they could not 'encode linguistically' (Knox, 1994, p. 205). This study supports Sawir's (2003) findings of other-repetitions that were used to make sure of the repeated items.

While the above examples indicate similarity in the forms used, J also employed different ways from JSE in repeating the supervisors' preceding utterances. These different ways are related to the Javanese use of speech levels. Speakers of Javanese show deference and respect by using *krama* (HL), the Javanese honorific language. The difference is culturally specific to Javanese where the speaker has to take into account the status in choosing a particular speech level to communicate with the addressee. Based on her cross-cultural study of repetitions in English and Japanese, Murata (1995) found that the use of other-repetitions was a reflection of the different values in English and Japanese cultures. J delivered their repetitions in *krama* or alternated *krama* and BI (see Extracts 6 and 7). So, they repeated the phrase, but translated it into a higher level that shows that they continued to speak in the speech

level required by the different status between them and the supervisor. The other-repetition in *krama* level did not only show alignment as a way of being polite, but also expressed politeness displaying respect or deference for fulfilling the supervisor's negative face.

The findings of other-repetition in this study show that intonation is salient in determining whether the repeats are requests for confirmation and clarification or answers to confirm and clarify the immediate preceding utterance (echo answer). The use of repeats with rising intonation shows that the repeats may be a request for confirmation or a request for clarification. Perrin, Deshaies, and Paradis's (2003), Sawir's (2003), and Simpson's (1994) studies showed the significant role of prosodic features and intonation in interpreting and identifying the functions of other-repetitions This study is in line with these studies that reveal the importance of intonation to identify or interpret the function of other-repetition in the interaction. Immediate following response was found to be a valuable tool to identify requests for confirmation and clarification in this study, and showed how the interlocutor interpreted the immediate preceding turn.

In summary, the other-repetitions identified in this study are the immediate responses from the student participants to the supervisor. J and JSE participants used similar forms and functions of other-repetition. In contrast, there are differences between the repeats employed by M and MSE participants both in forms and functions. MSE participants did not use modified repetitions and did not use the repeats to ask for clarification.

The findings also showed that the student participants used the other-repetitions to question, answer, and respond to the supervisor's immediate previous utterance. The repeats that they used showed the use of communication strategies as well as politeness strategies. As communication strategies, the student participants used other-repetitions to negotiate meaning and to co-construct the interactions. They used repetitions to fulfil their academic need to gain information from their supervisor. Using other-repetitions, they communicated that the source problem needed confirming and validating. As politeness strategies, the repeats employed appear to show interest and express agreement to what the supervisor had just said. The repeats also show the

student participants' participation and cooperation in the interaction. Showing interest, agreement, participation and cooperation in the interaction displayed positive politeness strategies (Brown & Levinson, 1987).

6.3 Overlapping

Overlaps in this study refer to the utterances that occur simultaneously with part or the whole utterance of the on-going talk in a sequence in the thesis supervision sessions. In this section a comparison of the findings of overlaps in J and JSE participants' data, and in M and MSE participants' data will be presented and the comparison will be followed by a discussion of the findings. The percentages of the occurrences in Figure 7)

6.3.1 Comparison of Overlaps in Intracultural and Intercultural Interactions

The findings about overlaps in this study show that J and JSE participants' utterances overlapped with those of their supervisors. J and JSE participants' overlaps were almost all of the same types. The overlaps were used to add information in the form of a word or a phrase to the supervisor's utterances. Supplying information overlaps occurred in all the data of J and JSE participants except for JSE2. The overlaps also took place when J and JSE participants acknowledged the receipt of information through backchannel responses. These backchannelling overlaps occurred in the data of J and JSE participants except for J3 and JSE4. The overlaps also happened when they took over the floor in the interaction. These overlaps were evident in the data of all JSE participants and the data of J1, J3, J5, and J6 for J participants. J and JSE participants were different in that their overlaps resulted from early responses given to the supervisor's utterance. JSE participants did not produce early responses overlaps.

M and MSE participants' overlaps were also similar and different in some respects. The overlaps uttered by M and MSE participants were in form of a word or a phrase used to supply information for the supervisor. These kinds of overlaps were evident in the data of all M and MSE participants. The overlaps were also in form of backchannelling to acknowledge what the supervisor had just said. The backchannelling overlaps were found in the data of M1, M2, M4, and M5 for M participants and MSE2 and MSE3 for MSE participants. Their utterances also

overlapped with the supervisor's utterances in expressing disagreement in the data of M1 and M5 and MSE2 as well. Floor-taking overlaps are evident in the data of all M participants and in the data of MSE2 and MSE3 for MSE participants.
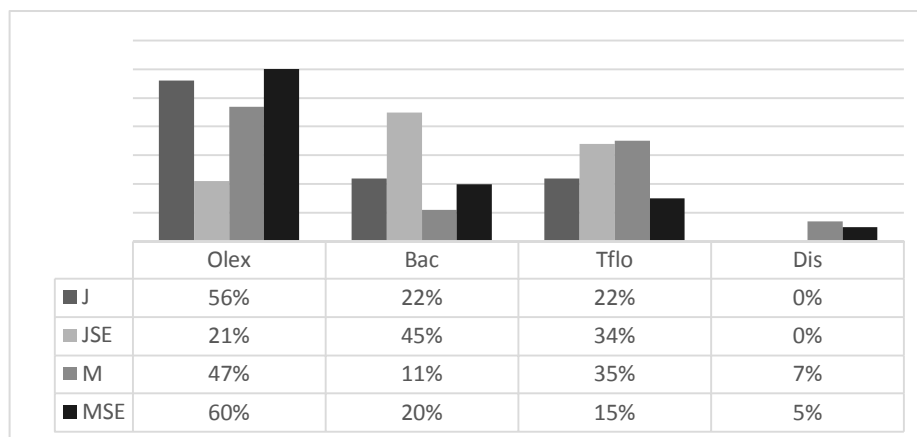
	Olex	Bac	Tflo	Dis
J	56%	22%	22%	0%
JSE	21%	45%	34%	0%
M	47%	11%	35%	7%
MSE	60%	20%	15%	5%

Figure 7 Overlaps in intracultural and intercultural interactions

In summary, J and JSE participants' overlaps were similar in supplying information, for acknowledging through backchannelling, and for holding the floor of the interactions. M and MSE participants' overlaps were also similar in supplying information, for acknowledging through backchannelling, for holding the floor of the interactions, and for expressing disagreement. JSE and MSE participants were different insofar as there were not any overlaps expressing disagreement with the supervisor's utterances in the data of JSE participants.

6.3.2 Discussion of Overlaps in Intracultural and Intercultural Interactions

The student participants' overlaps in this study involved supplying a short amount of information using a word or a phrase, and backchannel responses. Adding a word or a phrase to their supervisors' talk could only be done when the student participants listened attentively to their supervisors' talk. Otherwise, the supplied information would not be related to the content of their supervisors' talk. The student participants placed themselves in a supportive or cooperative position with their supervisors by supplying and completing words. They also showed attentive listenership through backchannel responses when talking with their supervisors to show their interest in the supervisors' talk and to encourage the supervisors to continue delivering the

information. According to Murata (1994), these overlaps are an unintentional infringement. Tannen (2005) considers that interruption displays interpersonal involvement and active listenership that are used to demonstrate participation in the interaction. Active involvement in the interaction then triggers the occurrence of overlaps. The overlapped talk expresses affiliative, cooperative, or camaraderie with the speaker (Bennett, 1981). In other words, the student participants' overlapped talk was cooperative interruptions or 'rapport interruptions', in the sense of Goldberg (1990), to show sympathy, interest, and solidarity. Showing sympathy, cooperation, interest and solidarity may demonstrate the student participants' choice of a positive politeness strategy. Even though interruption is considered impolite or improper behaviour in Javanese and Minangkabaunese, the J and M participants made interruptions in the interactions. However, this study also tried to view interruption from the emic perspective and revealed that the interlocutors in the interaction did not perceive it as impolite (see Extract 143 for an example).

The student participants' overlaps in this study also included floor-taking overlaps and disagreement overlaps. According to Murata (1994), floor-taking and disagreement overlaps are categorised as intrusive interruptions. Similarly, Bennett (1981) states that floor-taking overlaps are evaluated as impoliteness as one takes the floor of the interaction from a current speaker. Although in floor-taking overlaps the speaker who overlaps keeps developing what is being talked about, they create threats to the current speaker's territory as the process of delivering the message is disrupted (Murata, 1994). Similarly, disagreement expresses an opinion that is different from that of the current speaker. These overlaps thus pose threats to the current speaker's territory as they convey disagreement with the current speaker (Murata, 1994). The absence of disagreement interruptions in the data of both J and JSE participants may be related to the Javanese face work strategies that are designed to maintain the other's face (Wijayanto, 2011, p. 42). In Javanese culture, confrontation is perceived as rude and unfavourable (Hopstede, 1991, p. 58). Nadar (1999, p. 3) stated that, in Javanese culture, expressing disagreement in an academic setting (e.g., classroom) is considered remarkable and is uncommon. According to Brown and Levinson (1987, pp. 232-233), interruptions are face threatening-acts and threaten both the interlocutor's negative and positive face.

Although floor-taking overlaps are intrusive interruptions (Murata, 1994), Hutchby (1992, 2008) argues that overlaps have a moral dimension that is significant in interactions. He suggests that (im)politeness should be observed in the interaction from what the speaker and the addressee display and how they perceive what is exchanged. Overlaps that are considered to be intrusive in their sequential organisation may not be evaluated as intrusive by examining the moral dimension and what is displayed by the speaker who has been interrupted. An example from the intercultural interaction from JSE2's data illustrates whether the overlap that is categorised as intrusive in the rule of turn-taking is also perceived as intrusive or impolite by the interlocutor in the interaction.

Extract 143

Situation: JSE2 and Sp talked about overlap in JSE's research

67.	Sp	: you have ten second duration yea
68.	JSE2	: I take one second and two second two second↓
69. →	Sp	: you have any overlap betwee[:::n the windows or::]
70. →	JSE2	: [yea hhh when] I calculate
71.		the feature assertion I use the overlap / so as
72.		I told you before that I have two hundred and
73.		seventy- three that the point it means that I put
74.		every one rotation of the interval↑
75.	Sp	: okay,
76.	JSE2	: that is two hundreds and seventy-three
77.	Sp	: right,
78.	JSE2	: and I take overlap one of [fifty percent of this
79.	Sp	: [alright
80.	Sp	: okay
81	JSE2	: so total I get I get sixty sample instead of thirty
82.	Sp	: right↓ yes okay, that's good yeah

The beginning of JSE2's utterance in Line 70 overlapped with Sp's elongated lexical item 'betwee:::n' in Sp's query regarding overlap. As Sp appeared to be trying to find out the following item(s) to be delivered, JSE2 jumped in and talked along with Sp until Sp dropped out, and JSE2 continued speaking. In terms of sequential

organisation, JSE2 took over the floor from Sp. Floor-taking overlaps are considered to be intrusive interruptions. However, there are some points that should be taken into account. First, the overlap occurred because of the elongated 'betwee:::n' delivered by Sp. The production of an elongated sound may trigger the listener to jump into the interaction. Secondly, it seemed that JSE2 attentively listened to Sp. So, when Sp was taking time to look for the following items to be uttered, JSE2 had got the point of Sp's query. Then, JSE2 jumped in to provide a reply or the information that Sp wanted to know about in JSE2's research. At this time, JSE2 played the role as an expert who knew very well about what exactly had been done in analysing the data in the research. So, the supervisor could know whether what had been conducted was on the right track. Looking at JSE's overlapped talk in the thesis supervision sessions, floor-taking may be an intrusive interruption in terms of sequential sense, but Sp did not consider the proposition was rudeness. The Sp's response using backchannelling showed that Sp gave rapport and encouragement to JSE2 to continue the delivery of the information.

The thesis supervision meetings have a clearly observable status and power relationship. Student participants' overlapped talk involved cooperative and intrusive interruptions in their interactions. In this setting, it is clear that the student participants had a lower status than that of their supervisors. Based on her study on interruptive strategies, Bargiela-Chiappine and Harris (1996, p 292) claimed that participants with lower status infrequently interrupted and were not often interrupted. Similar to Bargiela-Chiappine and Harris (1996), Farley's (2008) study stated that interruptions were associated with status. Her study showed that her subjects rated those who interrupted with greater status than those who were interrupted. This claim is not relevant to this study. This study has a different result from that of Bargiela-Chiappine and Harris's study as well as Farley's. The possible explanation is that Bargiela-Chiappine and Harris's study was in a different setting viz, management meetings in business discourse. The power relationship in the thesis supervision session and that in the management meeting is very different, as is the purpose. In Farley's study, it was an experiment where the subjects were asked to rate the status of the person who interrupted and was interrupted. Nor was it an investigation of naturally-occurring talk. In the thesis supervision sessions, while it is true that the supervisors have higher status or power, the relationship with the supervisee is more like collaborative teamwork in

the meeting for the production of new knowledge from the research. Even the meeting can be in the form of a friendly interaction. In addition, both the student participants and their supervisors share a mutual understanding of what is to be achieved from their collaborative work. In contrast, the finding of overlaps in this study is in line with Bettie's (1981) study. Her findings showed that the students made interruptions more often than the tutors. She argued that students interrupted more to impress the tutor, and the students believed that being aggressive was favourable.

In the intercultural data, the occurrences of cooperative and intrusive overlaps were different from those of the intracultural data (Javanese speaking Javanese and Minangkabaunese speaking Minangkabaunese). In the data of the JSE participants, the occurrences of backchannelling (cooperative overlaps) and floor-taking overlaps (intrusive interruptions) were greater than those in the J participants' data. In the MSE participants' data, the occurrence of overlapped backchannels and lexical and phrasal items increased, while floor-taking overlaps decreased compared to those in the M participants' data. The findings from the JSE and MSE data were slightly different from those of Murata's (1994) study. Murata's findings showed that the cooperative style of the Japanese participants switched to the more intrusive North American style when the Japanese participants were involved in the conversation in English. In this study, both the cooperative (overlapped backchannels) and intrusive interruptions increased when the Javanese were speaking English with their supervisors, except for the overlaps of words supplied. On the other hand, MSE participants increased the cooperative interruptions and decreased the intrusive interruptions in their intercultural interactions. In the intercultural interactions, it is possible that the interlocutors converge in their communication style for power or social acceptance (Giles et al., 1991).

In summary, the student participants' overlaps involved cooperative and intrusive interruptions that could be considered to be impolite or rude in Javanese and Minangkabaunese. The cooperative overlaps showed the students' sympathy, interest, and solidarity with the supervisor's talk that signal positive politeness. The intrusive interruptions may display impoliteness as they pose threats to the current speaker. The occurrence of overlaps in this study showed that students even the J and M participants, who had lower status than that of the supervisor, did overlap their talk with the

supervisor's talk. In the intercultural interactions of JSE participants the cooperative and intrusive overlaps increased, while in the interactions of MSE participants, the cooperative overlaps increased, but the intrusive ones decreased.

6.4 Address Terms

Address terms are apparent in the interactions between student participants and their supervisors in the thesis supervision sessions. In the thesis supervision context, the asymmetrical relationship between the supervisors and the student participants is obvious. In this section, the findings about address terms in this study are discussed by comparing the findings of address terms in J and JSE participants' data, and in M and MSE participants' data. A discussion will follow the comparison of the findings.

6.4.1 Comparison of Address Terms in Intracultural and Intercultural Interactions

The address terms used by J and JSE participants in their interactions with their supervisors involved address pronouns and kin address terms. Both J and JSE participants addressed self by using the first person pronoun 'I', but J used the honorific first person pronoun *kula* (I) to address self. JSE participants also used the second person pronoun 'you' to address others and J participants used the honorific second person address pronoun *panjenengan* (HL). Kin address terms were also noticeable in their interactions. J participants used the kin address terms *bapak/pak* (father), and *ibu/bu* (mother), and the kin address term *bu* followed by personal name. The kin address term *bapak*/*pak* was in the data of J1 – J4 while *buk*/*bu* or *buk*/*bu* followed by the person's name, was in the data of J4 and J5. To address the supervisor JSE participants used their first name. An instance of an Indonesian kin address term '*pak*' (sir) followed by the first name to address the supervisor is evident in the data of JSE1. Besides lexical address terms, JSE participants used the address pronoun 'we' while talking to the supervisor. Thus, J and JSE participants were similar in their use of address terms involving address pronouns and kin address terms. The difference is that J used honorific address pronouns and kin address terms while JSE only used first names to address the supervisor, an Indonesian kin address term, and the address pronoun 'we'.

Similarly, M and MSE participants also used address terms involving address pronouns, personal names, and kin address terms. First, the address pronoun *awak/wak* (I) was utilised by M2 and M3 to address self, and all M participants also employed a personal name to address self. To address the supervisors they used kin address terms *apak/pak* (father) and *buk/bu* (mother). The supervisors addressed them by their personal names. MSE used the address pronouns 'I', 'you', and 'we'. The similarity in the use of address terms between M and MSE is that both M and MSE used the address pronoun 'I'. The absence of the address pronoun 'you' and 'we' in the data of M participants makes it different from the MSE data. In the data of the MSE, there was no personal name, as the first person pronoun was used to address self, and no kin address terms or first names were employed in addressing the supervisor.

In using address terms, both J and M used kin address terms or kin address terms followed by a personal name, mostly in the final position of their utterances. J and M delivered as well as responded to different kinds of acts and used kin address terms at the end of their utterances. They used kin address terms in the final position when delivering neutral proposals, queries, requests for clarification, requests for confirmation, and requests for action. They also used kin address terms in the final position when providing information, replying to queries, rejecting, confirming, clarifying, accepting, and responding to directives. The difference between J and M in using kin address terms in the final position is the degree of their use for individual acts delivered. J more frequently used kin address terms in the final position when replying to queries, delivering queries, and accepting. M used them more when giving and requesting for information.

In summary, the similarity between J and JSE was in the use of address pronouns and kin address terms. They were different because J used honorific address pronouns, while JSE used the address pronoun 'we' and first names to address the supervisor. M and MSE were similar in the use of the address pronoun 'I'. However, they are different because M used a personal name to address self and kin address terms to address the supervisor, and MSE used the address pronouns 'you' and 'we'. J and M participants' use of address terms were also different. J used the honorific address pronoun *kula* for 'I' to address self, while M participants used personal names and the address pronoun *awak* for 'I'. JSE participants were different from MSE participants

244

in using address terms as JSE used the first name and kin address terms to address the supervisor while MSE did not employ the two kin address terms.

6.4.2 Discussion of Address Terms in Intracultural and Intercultural Interactions

There were similarities and differences in the intracultural interactions between J or M participants and their supervisors. The findings reveal that J participants used honorific address pronouns and parent kin address terms in their interactions with their supervisors. The use of address terms in Javanese address pronouns is complex and sophisticated. Not only do such terms express hierarchical relationships between the speaker and the hearer but they are also attached to the Javanese speech levels. In an interaction, a Javanese has to choose from a large number of address pronouns and other terms of address to show their relationship with the addressee and how they will manage their relationship. Geertz (1976) explains that using address terms in Javanese is governed by Javanese *tata krama* (etiquette) which embodies cultural norms and language use. The social status and familiarity of the speakers determine the choice of linguistic forms and speech style in Javanese interaction. According to Poedjosoedarmo (1968, p. 55), the selection of an address pronoun indicates the degree of politeness shown in the speech level to which the pronouns belong.

In their interactions, the J participants retained *kula* (honorific 'I') to address the self. They addressed the supervisors as *pak* (father) or *bu* (mother) followed by their personal name and *panjenengan* (honorific *you*). J participants addressed self using the address pronoun *kula* for 'I' to humble self and to show respect to the supervisor who had higher status than the J participants. J addressed their supervisors by *panjenengan* (honorific *you*) to show their *aji* (self-worth), to be polite, and to show *kurmat* (deference). According to Geertz (1961), the notion of respecting (*ngajeni*) another's self-worth is crucial in any interaction in Javanese in which the interlocutors' status and distance plays a significant role. By employing the address pronoun *panjenengan* (HL) to address the supervisor and the address pronoun *kula* for 'I' to address self, the J participants displayed the necessary degree of politeness as well as status deference to the supervisor. At the same time J participants also used kin address terms *pak* (father) or *bu* (mother) to address their supervisors. These kin address terms, social identity markers, show respect and solidarity among members of one big family. The

choice of honorific speech levels showed respect as well as deference that reflected the use of negative politeness, in the sense of Brown and Levinson (1987), in their interactions.

In the intracultural interactions, M participants addressed their supervisors using the kin address term *apak/pak* (father) or *buk/bu* (mother) that may or may not be followed by a personal name. M did not address the supervisor by address pronouns. They addressed self by their personal name and the address pronoun *awak* for 'I'. In interactions, a Minangkabaunese has to take into account his/her position in relation to the interlocutor in terms of age or social status or the combination of both. Johns (1985, p. 4) claims that the relationship between the speaker and the addressee can be seen from the address terms and personal pronouns selected in the interaction. The use of the first person pronoun *awak* for 'I' that refers to one's own body shows that the M participants were expressing closeness to their supervisors and conveyed affection and respect, as the supervisors were older than them. M participants applied *kato mandaki* (literally, words that climb). This can be seen in the use of the first person address pronoun *awak* (I) to address self and *pak* (father) and *bu* (mother) followed by a personal name to address the supervisor. Besides the address pronoun *awak* (I), all M participants used personal names to address self and the first person pronoun. The supervisors addressed M participants by their personal names. According to Johns (1985) addressing self by using personal names is common in Minangkabaunese and many other parts of Indonesia. The use of personal names is also common in addressing friends, children, and pupils to show more intimacy.

J and M participants appeared to be respectful. They addressed the supervisors in a different way than the supervisors addressed them. The different address terms used showed that they had an asymmetrical status relationship. Brown and Gilman (1960) explain that the selection of address terms that are non-reciprocal in the interactions shows an asymmetrical relationship. Both J and M participants used the kin address terms *pak* (father) or *bu/buk* (mother) followed by a personal name to address their supervisors. The address terms *pak* (father), and *bu/buk* (mother) do not only refer to one's real father or mother, but also to those who are socially superior. They delivered the kin address terms mostly at the end of their utterances (or the end of a turn constructional unit). Of the kin address terms uttered, J produced 92% of them at the

end of their utterances while M used 88% of them in that position. Lerner (2003, p. 186), who conducted an examination of the action of the positions of address terms in multiparty interactions, states that post-position address terms seem to 'personalise' the inquiry or message. In a multiparty, a speaker addresses a participant's name to single out the designated recipient. In dyadic interactions, like the thesis supervision sessions in this study, positioning the address term at the end of their utterances is not personalising the act as the recipient is clear. However, it may signal to the addressee that the turn will be handed over to the addressee or it calls for the addressee's attention to be aware that the turn is being transferred.

In the intercultural interactions, the findings show that JSE participants used first names to address their supervisors. A Javanese will never address a supervisor using a first name in the Javanese context as it may show disrespect and impoliteness. *Unggah-ungguh basa* (linguistic etiquette) is fundamental in any Javanese social intercourse. Wijayanto (2013) maintains that Javanese linguistic etiquette is conducted by obeying the principles of speech levels. The speech levels for the address pronouns or the use of kin address terms should be appropriately selected in relation to the status of the supervisor. Poynton (1989, p. 68) noted that in the Australian context, first names were the preferred address terms over last names. Using first names may display friendliness. The use of first names is more appropriate to the casual nature of Australian society. The informality of Australian society in using address terms is something with which Indonesians and people from many different parts of the world have to familiarise themselves. According to Clyne, (2009, p. 407) addressing by first name will decrease the social distance between the interlocutors in Australian English. Addressing their supervisors by their first name shows that the JSE participants had accommodated to the supervisor's address mode, even though it is contrary to the address mode in the Javanese context. Using first names to address the supervisor is to acknowledge intimacy or closeness. Liddicoat, Brown, Dopke, and Love (1992, p. 546) stated that using first names gives an impression of friendliness. From the sequential organisation examination, JSE4 (see Extract 106 Line 433) delivered the address term in the vocative position, that is, at the beginning of the turn that is a marked case (Rendle-short, 2007, p. 1508). Rendle-short (2007, p. 1510) suggested that positioning the address terms at the beginning of the utterance called the supervisor's attention to the fact that what was going to be delivered was something

different or significant in the talk. Besides, by using the address terms the force of an act produced could be modified (Martiny, 1996). Different from JSE participants, MSE participants did not use the first name or title followed by last name (TLN) in their interactions with their supervisors, who were L1 speakers of English. There was an absence of lexical address terms in the interactions between MSE participants and their supervisors.

JSE and MSE participants employed different address terms in their intercultural interactions with their supervisors. Besides using the first name, JSE1, addressed the supervisor by employing the Indonesian kin address term *pak* (father) followed by first name at the beginning of their interaction. Kin address term *pak* followed by first name is an Indonesian addressing pattern. Addressing the supervisor, who was an L1 speaker of English, by the Indonesian kin address term *pak,* may signal that the supervisor had a knowledge of Indonesian and so the address term was used. In addition, by addressing the supervisor using the Indonesian pattern of address terms, as well as alternating the language, JSE showed solidarity and intimacy with the supervisor. Both JSE and MSE used the address pronoun 'we'. This address pronoun 'we' was not used in the intracultural interactions between J or M participants and their supervisors.

The asymmetrical relationship in the thesis supervision sessions is reflected in the use of address terms in the interaction. The Javanese participants used the address pronouns '*panjenengan*' to address the supervisor and '*kula*' to address self, as well as the kin address terms *pak/bu* (father/mother) followed by first name. The asymmetrical relationship in the Minangkabaunese interactions is displayed in the use of the lexical address terms *pak/bu* (followed by first name) to address the supervisor. The absence of the address pronoun 'we' in the interactions of J or M and their supervisor indexes the asymmetrical relationship in the intracultural interactions. Brown and Gilman (1960) stated that the formal address terms are employed in asymmetrical relationships. Although the pronominal and lexical address terms used portrays the status hierarchy of the relationships, they also encode closeness, solidarity, and politeness.

In the intercultural interactions, the asymmetrical relationship between JSE participants and their supervisors is ambiguous, as shown in the use of first name as well as the Indonesian pattern of address. Besides lexical address terms, the address pronoun 'we' was also employed inclusively to show solidarity with the supervisor. The MSE participants did not use lexical address terms in the interactions, the address pronoun 'we' was used inclusively as well as exclusively. In her research, McIntire (1972, p. 290) revealed that the students took avoidance action to address the supervisors by using address terms that expressed intimacy. McIntire stated that avoidance of the use of address terms showed the participants' uncertainty about the norms. The absence of lexical address terms in the interactions of MSE participants and their supervisors may show that they diverged from the supervisors' address mode (Giles, Bourhis, & Taylor, 1977). In his study of address terms in intercultural interactions, Clyne (2009) stated that the values in the cultural norms possibly make a speaker renounce using the address mode of the addressee.

In contrast to the use of lexical address terms in MSE participants' interactions, the presence of first names, the address pronoun 'we' and the lack of title and last names in the intercultural communication shows that the relationship in the thesis supervision sessions is more proportioned and equal in the Australian context. The possible explanation for this may be explained by Giles et al.'s (1977) accommodation theory. As such, the students accommodated the supervisor's address mode culture. Furthermore, they may, by the time of the study, have immersed themselves in the academic culture of thesis supervision sessions in the Australian context. Another relevant factor is the length of time of knowing each other which may contribute to the ease of addressing each other (Slugoski & Turnbull, 1988 in Fukusima, 2003, p. 83) and the degree of familiarity between them and their supervisors (Holmes, 1990). In their intercultural study on e-mail requests in higher education in Britain and Australia, Merrison et al. (2012, p. 1094) found that Australian students treated their supervisors or academics as social partners who are equal, even though they had a different social status.

In summary, J and M participants used the lexical address terms and address pronouns in intracultural interactions with their supervisors. By using the address terms, they showed deference (asymmetry) as well as closeness and solidarity. Deference in J's

interactions was displayed by using honorific address pronouns. Both J and M participants used post-position address terms to address their supervisors. They employed post-position kin address terms to call the supervisors' attention to a change of turn. JSE and MSE participants used slightly different address terms in their interactions with their supervisors in the Australian context. JSE participants used first names and Indonesian address patterns to address their supervisors to show closeness, friendliness, and solidarity. JSE participants used pre-post position first names to attract their supervisor's attention to the fact that what was going to be delivered was important. MSE participants did not use lexical address terms. Both JSE and MSE participants used the address pronouns 'we' in their interactions with their supervisors. On the contrary, the address pronoun 'we' was absent from the intracultural interaction of J and M participants.

6.5 Head Act Strategies in Intracultural and Intercultural Interactions

In this section, the linguistic politeness strategies described earlier are discussed. The discussion starts with a comparison of the linguistic politeness used in the intracultural and intercultural interactions. Linguistic politeness is commonly asserted from the linguistic directness that is displayed in head acts. Thus, the central focus of this discussion is on the head acts employed in the interactions, the comparison and discussions of internal modifications and external modifications follow consecutively.

6.5.1 Comparison of Head Act Strategies in Intracultural and Intercultural Interactions

The head acts employed in the intracultural interactions of J and M participants with their supervisors showed that both groups used direct questions and conventional indirect strategy (see the percentage of the instances in Figure 8). The strategy most used in requesting for information was direct questions. The two groups employed different strategies in requesting for actions. Requests for actions were seldom evident in the interactions of M participants and their supervisors and rarely in the interactions of J participants and their supervisors. Most of the head acts for requests for actions selected by M participants were in the form of mood-derivable imperatives, performatives, obligatory statements, and conventional indirect strategies. J participants used conventional indirect strategies to request actions from their supervisors.
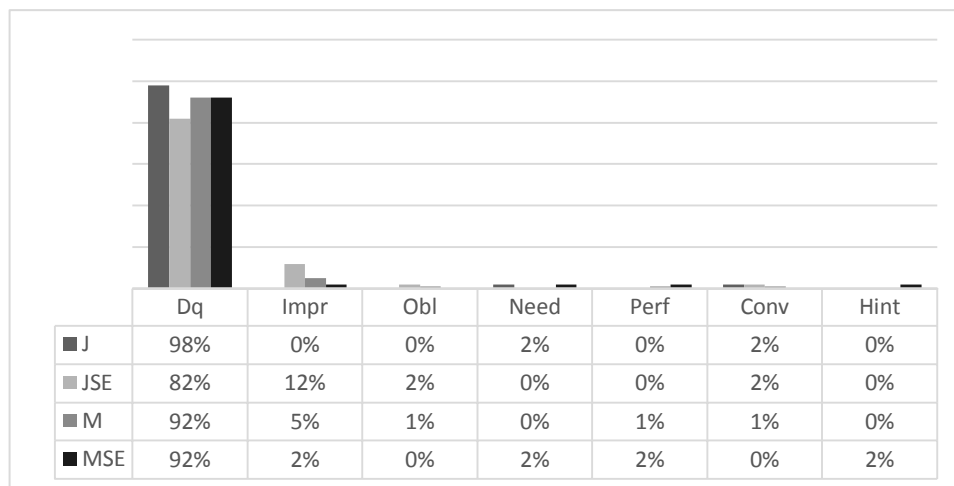
	Dq	Impr	Obl	Need	Perf	Conv	Hint
■J	98%	0%	0%	2%	0%	2%	0%
■JSE	82%	12%	2%	0%	0%	2%	0%
■M	92%	5%	1%	0%	1%	1%	0%
■MSE	92%	2%	0%	2%	2%	0%	2%

Figure 8 Head act strategies in intracultural and intercultural interactions

The head acts used in the intercultural interactions of JSE and MSE participants with their supervisors showed that both groups employed similar strategies in their head acts. The head act most frequently selected by both groups was direct questions. Direct questions were evident more in the interactions of MSE participants and their supervisors than in the interactions of JSE participants. JSE participants used more mood derivable-imperatives. The difference   was due to the JSE participants not employing hints and performatives, while MSE participants did not use obligatory statements.

There are similarities and differences in the head acts used by Javanese in their intracultural and intercultural interactions. Both J participants and JSE participants repeatedly used direct questions but they infrequently employed conventional indirect head acts. J participants and JSE participants were different in the use of mood derivable-imperatives, need/want statements, and obligatory statements. JSE participants sometimes employed mood derivable-imperatives, need/want statements, and obligatory statements in their interactions with their supervisors, while J participants did not.

M participants and MSE participants also employed some similar and some different head acts. They were similar in their use of mood derivable-imperatives, direct questions, and performatives. They were different in their use of need/want statements and hints. MSE participants rarely used need/want statements and hints that were not evident at all in the interactions of M participants.

In summary, the most frequently used head act strategies in the intracultural and intercultural interactions of all groups were direct questions to request for information. The most infrequently used head act strategies were obligatory statements, need statements, performatives, conventional indirect strategies, and hints. J participants were different from JSE participants in their use of head act strategies as J participants did not use mood derivable-imperatives, obligatory statements, and need/want statements. Conventionally indirect strategies were absent in MSE participants' interactions. The lack of mood derivable-imperatives in the intracultural interactions of J participants made their head act strategies different from those of JSE, M, and MSE participants. The head act strategies used in intercultural interactions of JSE and MSE participants were different as there were no hints in the interactions of the JSE participants.

6.5.2 Discussion of Head Act Strategies in Intracultural and Intercultural Interactions

The focal point of the sequence of a request is its head act. The head act conveys the illocutionary force of the requestive utterances (Blum-Kulka et al., 1989a). The directness level of a requestive utterance is investigated from the strategy used in the request heads. In this study, the head acts employed in the requestive utterances of each group varied from two to five types. J participants used direct questions, and conventional indirect strategies. JSE participants used mood derivable-imperatives, direct questions, obligatory statements, need statements, and conventional indirect strategies. M participants used mood derivable-imperatives, direct questions, obligatory statements, performatives, and conventional indirect strategies. MSE participants used mood derivable-imperatives, direct questions, need statements, performatives, and hints.

It is interesting that direct questions were employed by the Javanese participants and the Minangkabaunese participants both in intracultural and intercultural interactions and that direct questions employed to request for information appear to be the most favoured. Direct questions are impositive strategies. Hassal (1999, p. 595) stated that direct questions were the most direct strategy to request for information. The result of his study showed that direct requests were frequently chosen to request for information by the participants who were Indonesian. Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford (1993, p. 280),

stated that a request for information is a speech act that corresponds to the status of the students. Using direct questions to request for information in the thesis supervision sessions where the status difference between the speaker and the hearer is clear may lead questions. However, it is necessary to take into account the requestive goal and the context of the interactions. Information requests may, on the one hand, be about sensitive matters or matters of great concern or, while on the other, they may be to ask for common or factual information. Donahue and Diez, (1985, p. 307) maintain that different strategies were used more in requesting for problematic information than when asking for information relating to research. In this study of thesis supervision sessions, the students asked questions to get valuable information, suggestions, or confirmation on the development of their research projects and the transfer of that information was the main concern of thesis supervision sessions. It is the right of the students academically to get information using requestive utterances.

Direct questions may be used to achieve clarity of the message and for efficiency in interactions. As Blum-Kulka (1987, p. 31) points out, the "pragmatic clarity of the message is an important part of politeness", and the requestive goal holds an influential role in the choice of strategies used (Blum-Kulka, Danet, & Gherson, 1985). Economidou's (2005, p. 267) study showed that being clear and the requestive goal motivated Greeks to use direct questions in their telephone conversations. Besides the notion of clarity and requestive goals, direct questions appear to be the standard form to request for information. Direct questions were dominantly used to request for information in the studies of Hassal (1999), Dalton-Puffer (2005), Nikula (2008) and Economidou-Kogetsidis (2002). The use of direct requests and direct questions to ask for information in intracultural and intercultural interactions portrayed the positive politeness strategy being employed (Brown & Levinson, 1987).

Being direct in requesting for information is not consistent with the ethos of indirectness in Javanese (Geertz, 1976; Sukarno, 2010) and Minangkabaunese society (Revita et al., 2007) or Indonesian society generally (Hassal, 1999). In the intracultural interactions of J participants, the direct questions were delivered using the *krama* (HL) speech level as a decisive way of accommodating politeness considerations. Poedjosoedarmo (1968) and Sukarno (2010) found that the choice of speech level was associated with contextual variables such as formality, status, and the age of the

addressee. Thus, the honorific speech level internalised in the direct questions to ask for information by itself expresses politeness and shows deference. For Javanese, it is not the direct/indirect forms alone that can express politeness, but the appropriate choice of speech levels in relation to the status of both the speaker and the addressee. In the intracultural interactions of Minangkabaunese, the linguistic etiquette of '*kato nan ampek*' (the four strategies) also provides a way to use the language by considering the status of both the speaker and the addressee. Marni (2013) describes the way the use of appropriate address terms and pronouns in interaction is essential to show politeness. In the interactions in this study, M participants, as well as J participants, used the address terms *pak* or *buk/bu* (father or mother) to show respect or deference. There was a high use of address terms and appealers followed by address by the Javanese participants and address terms by the Minangkabaunese participants in their requests (see the discussion on internal modification in section 6.6.2) to mitigate the imposition of the requestive utterances.

The high use of direct requestive utterances and direct questions to ask for information in the intercultural interactions may be influenced by the components of power such as social status, institutionalised role, and age (Fukusima, 2003) or by transferring the strategies used in asking for information in their first language. Institutionally, the student participants did not have power over their supervisors. However, the participants' role as students may also be relevant to the notion of rights and obligations in the supervision sessions. Dalton-Puffer and Nikula (2006) and Nikula (2008) claimed that the frequent use of direct questions in their studies was the effect of the participants' roles as teachers and students, and their direct questions to ask for content-related matters were considered acceptable. In this context, students have the right to get the information relevant to their research project, and the supervisors have the obligation to provide guidance. Regarding the strategies used in the participants' first language, the Javanese participants and the Minangkabaunese participants used direct questions in their intracultural interactions with their supervisors. Using direct questions to request for information seems to be acceptable in both Javanese and Minangkabaunese in intracultural interactions. This acceptable way of using direct requestive utterances in the first language culture seems to occur correspondingly to the intercultural interactions between the Javanese participants and the Minangkabaunese and their supervisors who were L1 speakers of English. Adefriza

and Jones (2013) provided another possible explanation for the use of direct strategies. Their study found that Indonesians applied more direct and face-threatening strategies than those employed by his Australian participants. They noted the finding challenged the stereotype of speech behaviour of Indonesians.

The results of the analysis showed that both Javanese and Minangkabaunese participants did not use hints to request for actions or information in their intracultural and intercultural interactions, except for the MSE participants who infrequently used hints. The Javanese participants did not use any hints in their intracultural or intercultural interactions with their supervisors. This finding again does not seem consistent with the ethos of indirectness in Javanese and Minangkabaunese culture (Geertz, 1976, p. 224; Nadar, 2007, p. 174; Errington, 1984 in Revita et al., 2007, p. 206). In their research on requests in Minangkabaunese, Revita et al. (2007, p. 206) stated that Minangkabaunese frequently employed indirectness in their requests. In the intercultural interactions, hints occasionally occurred. The infrequent use of hints in the intercultural interactions could signal a pragmatic deficiency in the foreign language. However, it also occurred similarly in the intracultural interactions. So, the infrequent use of hints in the intercultural interactions may be a reflection of their experience in their first language discourse culture as suggested in the research of Blum-kulka (1991) and Dalton-Puffer (2007, p. 197). The other possible explanation for the infrequent use of hints is that hints might not be the appropriate strategy when requesting for information in this situation.

The number of requests for actions that occurred in the intracultural and intercultural interactions was small. The request for actions in intracultural interactions was 2% for J and 8% for M, while it was 19% for JSE and 6% for MSE in the intercultural interactions. Though the student participants very infrequently used them, it is interesting to examine the strategies used by them when requesting for action from their supervisors. In their intracultural interactions, J participants made the requests for action using a query preparatory, a conventional indirect strategy (see Extract 13, Chapter 4). The requests were expressed using *krama* and BI to convey respect or deference to their supervisors. In the M intracultural interactions, they used requests for actions more than the Javanese did. The requestive intention to ask for goods and services (action) involved mood derivable-imperatives, obligatory statements,

performatives, and conventional indirect strategies. Hassall (1999) found that more than 50% of his Indonesian participants used conventional indirect strategies by asking about the availability of the desired items, the interlocutor's ability or permission. The finding in Hassal's study was slightly different from that of this study. Similarly, the finding of this study did not complement Nadar's (1998) study of requests used by Indonesian learners of English. The findings of that study showed that the learners preferred using conventional indirect strategies. The difference may be due to the different source of data used as Nadar used DCT. In this study, conventional indirect strategies were rarely employed to request for action by the M participants. The mood-derivable imperatives were employed without any request mitigators such as *please*. Even though this direct strategy was infrequently used, it was an interesting phenomenon that was employed in the thesis supervision sessions where there is status deference. One of the M participants had a requestive intention when asking the supervisor to ask something of another lecturer. The sequential interaction is illustrated in the following extract.

Extract 144

Situation: M6 and SP discussed the suffix and the space used

227.   Sp   : cobak ajo tanyo ka (P3) (P3) ado (P2)

228.→ M6   : alun lai Buk itu (P3) tanyo Buk

229.→ Sp   : entah tanyolah

230.→ M6   : tanyolah Buk

231.   Sp   : lah iko pelokan sadonyo lah

232.   M6   : iyo buk /// iko satu satu spasi lo beko ↑Buk

233.   Sp   : a:: benar iko satu spasi iko satu spasi jadi nampak saonggok onggok

234.   data tu lah

235.   M6   : iya

English Gloss

Sp   : try to ask (P3) (P2) (has) (P3) already here

M 6   : not yet mother there she is ask (her) mother

Sp   : no ask (her)

M 6   : ask (her) mother

Sp   : okay (you) revise this all

M 6   : yes mother /// this one will also be one space mother

Sp   : a:: right this one (is) one space this one (is) one space so (it) seems that each is a group of data okay

M 6   : yes

After the supervisor had M6 ask (P3) something that they discussed, M6 (Line 228) responded by saying '*alun lai Buk itu buk (P3) tanyo Buk*' meaning 'not yet mother there she is ask (her) mother'. The request was very direct using a mood derivable-imperative. At first the supervisor responded to the request my saying '*entah tanyolah*' meaning 'no ask (her)'. This response was also direct. Responding to the supervisor's refusal, M6 delivered the request in a very direct way again by saying '*tanyolah Buk*' meaning 'ask (her) mother'. In M6's second requestive utterance, M6 did not only use the imperative form but M6 also used the particle '*lah*' to give stress. The kin address term '*buk*' softened the direct request. The supervisor did not give a response to the requestive intention and, then, asked M6 to make revisions.

The above interaction shows that mood derivable-imperatives were used by M6 as a direct strategy to request for actions. This mood derivable-imperative strategy made the strategies employed by the M participants different from those of the J participants. On the contrary, the conventional indirect strategy in requests for actions that was employed by the J participants showed that the Javanese employed negative politeness strategies using the form and *krama* speech levels. The M participants employed both the mood derivable-imperative and conventional indirect strategies meaning that they used both positive and negative politeness strategies (Brown & Levinson, 1987). However, the negative politeness and the positive politeness was performed by J and M participants in different ways. The J participants employed the *krama* speech levels together with the modal '*badhe*' meaning 'would'. This also happened when they expressed their requestive intentions using direct questions. The direct questions were delivered using the *krama* (honorific) speech level that expresses politeness by itself (see Extract 18, Chapter 4). The use of *krama* speech level made the direct questions polite in Javanese. Thus, J participants maintained the negative face of the supervisor.

The lack of mood derivable-imperatives and need/want statement strategies in the intracultural interactions of J participants and need/want statements in the M intracultural interactions is worthy of note. These strategies were evident in the intercultural interactions of both JSE and MSE participants. The absence of the mood derivable strategy in the interactions of the Javanese may not be a coincidence. It may reflect the ethos of indirectness in Javanese interactions (Sukarno, 2010). The absence of need/want statements may mean that these need/want strategies may be perceived differently in the intracultural interactions so that they did not use them. It is possible that the use is not frequent, as found in Hassal's (1999, p. 596) study on request strategies in Indonesian, which showed that the Indonesian participants, who were mostly Javanese, only used 'want' statements twice (4.4%).

In summary, in intracultural and intercultural interactions the Javanese and Minangkabaunese participants used some similar and some different head acts reflecting the use of different politeness strategies. Direct strategies using direct questions were the favoured positive politeness strategy. Though, J participants also used direct strategy using direct questions, the way the Javanese delivered the direct questions was different as they used the refined (*krama*) speech level that made the direct requests polite. Thus, J participants maintained the supervisor's negative face through the use of *krama* to deliver direct questions. The realisation of head acts might be influenced by the different cultural backgrounds. In the intercultural interactions, more positive politeness strategies were used in the interactions.

6.6. Internal Modification Strategies

After the discussion of the head acts employed in the intracultural and intercultural interactions, this section proceeds with a discussion of the internal modifications evident in the interactions. Internal modifications function to upgrade or downgrade the force of requests. They take place in the construction of the request itself. The lexical and phrasal downgraders cover the mitigators or mitigating devices including polite markers, appealers, consultative devices, hedges, etc.

6.6.1 Comparison of Internal Modification Strategies in Intracultural and Intercultural Interactions

The syntactical modifications used in expressing the head acts were similar both in the intracultural and intercultural interactions. They preferred to use declarative questions. Figure 9 presents the syntactical modification used in the intracultural and intercultural interactions.

There were similar and different lexical and phrasal modifications employed in the intracultural interactions. J and M participants were similar in that both of the groups used appealers, appealers ending in address terms, and address terms. The main difference is that M participants used understaters, while J participants used downtoners. The primary lexical downgraders were address terms for M participants and a combination of appealers and address terms and only address terms for J participants.

	Decla	Inq	Npro	Cond	Nlex
■ J	77%	16%	0%	7%	0%
■ JSE	45%	34%	19%	2%	0%
■ M	80%	17%	0%	1%	2%
■ MSE	59%	31%	6%	4%	0%
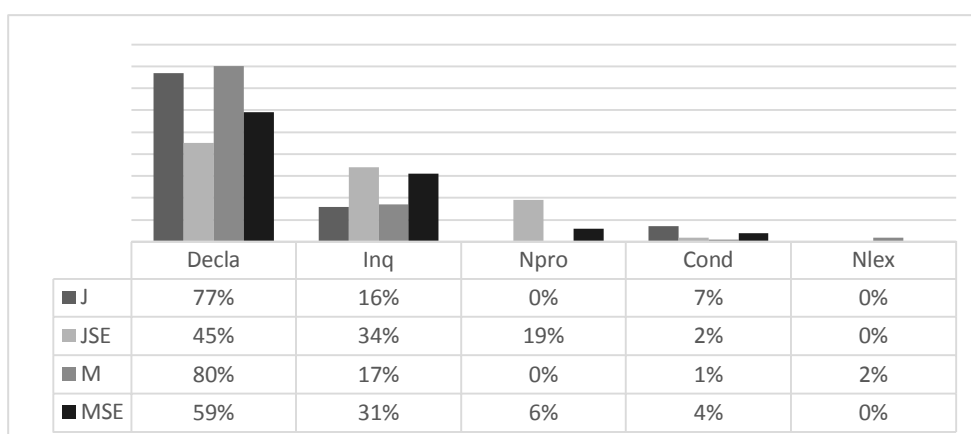
Figure 9 Syntactical modifications in intracultural and intercultural
        interactions

The internal modification strategies employed in the intracultural and intercultural interactions of J participants and JSE participants had similarities and differences (see the percentage of instances in Figure 10). Both J and JSE participants used appealers, and downtoners.   JSE participants employed more internal modifiers including politeness markers, understaters, subjectivisers, cajolers, and consultative devices. J participants did not use these strategies, but they used address term at the end their utterances 51% of the time.   Besides, when they used appealers, the appealers sometimes ended in address terms. The most typical lexical downgraders used by J

participants were address terms and appealers while JSE participants selected subjectivisers as their preferred lexical downgraders.

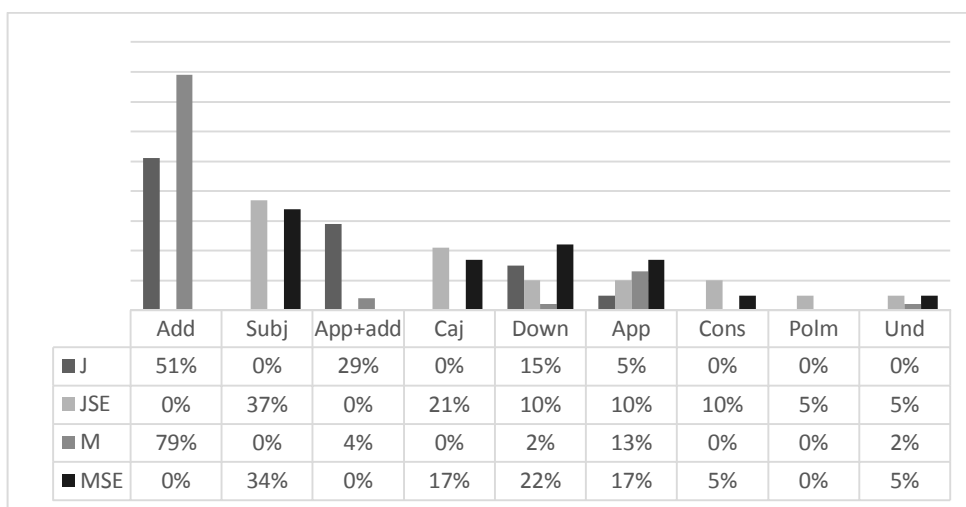|	Add	Subj	App+add	Caj	Down	App	Cons	Polm	Und
■ J	51%	0%	29%	0%	15%	5%	0%	0%	0%
■ JSE	0%	37%	0%	21%	10%	10%	10%	5%	5%
■ M	79%	0%	4%	0%	2%	13%	0%	0%	2%
■ MSE	0%	34%	0%	17%	22%	17%	5%	0%	5%

Figure 10 Lexical and phrasal modifications in intracultural and intercultural interactions

M and MSE participants also employed internal modification strategies in similar and different ways. M participants and MSE participants were similar in their use of appealers, downtoners, and understaters. They were different as they did not share the same lexical downgraders. M participants used address terms and appealers followed by address terms, but MSE participants employed subjectivisers, cajolers, and consultative devices. The primary lexical downgrader for M participants was address terms while subjectivisers were the key downgrader for MSE participants.

JSE and MSE participants used similar internal modification strategies. Both of the groups employed appealers, understaters, consultative devices, subjectivisers, downtoners, and cajolers. Both groups employed subjectivisers as the most typical lexical downgraders in requests. Both groups only infrequently produced understaters. JSE participants utilised consultative devices twice as many times as those utilised by MSE participants. On the other hand, MSE participants utilised downtoners twice as many times as those utilised by JSE participants. JSE participants' use of lexical downgraders was different from those of MSE participants in the use of polite markers insofar as MSE did not use them in their interactions with their supervisors. The main lexical downgrader for both groups was subjectivisers.

In summary, the main syntactical modification used was declarative questions and the main lexical modification strategies employed by all the participants were lexical downgraders. J and M participants were similar in their use of address terms, and appealers ending in address terms. The favoured lexical downgraders for them were address terms. In the intercultural comparisons, JSE used more lexical downgrader strategies. The main lexical downgrader for JSE participants was subjectivisers which was different from that of J participants. MSE participants also employed more lexical downgrader strategies with subjectivisers as the favoured strategy. This was different from that of M participants.

6.6.2 Discussion of Internal Modification Strategies in Intracultural and Intercultural Interactions

Declarative questions were the most frequent syntactical modifications used in both intracultural and intercultural interactions. The choice of using declarative questions by Javanese and Minangkabaunese participants in the intercultural interactions may not be a coincidence as the construction of questions in English is different from those in their first language, and even in their second language, Bahasa Indonesia. The differences may involve tenses, word order, question words, and rules used in forming the questions. Using declarative questions might be a way for them to avoid the complexity of forming the questions and making errors. This finding is relevant to Walkinshaw and Kirkpatrick's (2014, p. 287) study, which showed that the EFL speakers often avoid employing complicated language to make themselves clearer or more inteligible. Besides, the interlocutors identify a question from the intonation contour employed. Pienemann, Johnston, and Brindley (1988) maintained that declarative questions are the second stage of development of making questions in English as a second language. In contrast, the JSE and MSE participants were postgraduate students with, maybe, relatively advanced levels of English proficiency and possibly advanced levels of sociopragmatic knowledge. Their awareness of the supervision session context may have guided them to use syntactical modifiers relevant to the context of the interactions. This finding complements Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford's (1993) study of student-faculty advising sessions that found the non-native speakers were direct and used inappropriately the linguistic mitigators to lessen the force of their direct suggestions.

Appealers and address terms were the primary internal modifiers in the intracultural interactions. The J participants frequently delivered the address terms and the appealers with kin address terms '*pak/bu*(*k*)' (father/mother), while M participants used the the address terms frequently. Using kin address terms in their productions of the requests seemed to be a strong preference for both J and M participants. Moreover, they used kin address terms mostly at the end of their utterances. They used the kin terms actually to construct their relationship with their supervisors. The kin address terms indicate their asymmetrical relationship as well as closeness, solidarity, and respect. Blum-Kulka et al.'s (1989a) and Reiter's (2002) research showed that internal modifiers, such as the kin terms, were used to soften the requestive force of the utterances and show respect or deference. Blum-Kulka (2005, p. 266) claimed "mitigation can index politeness regardless of levels of directness" and that the illocutionary force of requestive utterances is not merely based on how the request is constructed. The kin address terms '*pak*/*bu*(*k*)' (father/mother) are internal modifiers that mitigate the force of the request (Faerch & Kasper, 1989). They signal positive politeness as well as negative politeness (Brown & Levinson, 1987) as the kin terms can express in-group markers as well as respect. Moreover, the use of address terms to end the requests shows that J and M participants were highly oriented to status deference (Geertz, 1976).

The J and M participants modified their direct questions by using appealers or tags, such as '*kan*' (right, isn't it) for the Minangkabaunese and *nggih* (yes) for the Javanese. Hassall (2012, pp. 230-1) also found that Indonesian native speakers used the appealer '*ya*' (yes) in most of the direct questions employed. Wouk's (2001) study found that the Indonesian discourse marker (and agreement particle) '*ya'* has a similar function to that of tag questions in English but was used about five times more than the equivalent tag in English. The frequent use of '*ya'* in interactions shows solidarity. Blum-Kulka et al. (1989b, p. 285) state that tags have the "function to elicit the hearer signal". They provide signs for the availability of turn for the addressee. Thus, the tags used did not only ask for validation or confirmation of the requested information but also sent the signal to the supervisors to take over the turn. Moussay (1998, p. 92) noted that, in Minangkabaunese, the particle '*kan*' is used in questions aiming to get an agreement from the addressee. In this case, the speaker is sure of the agreement from the addressee. Thus, the participants used the particle '*kan*', '*ya/iya*' (yes) or

'*nggih*' (yes) to draw their supervisor to agree with what they had said. According to Hassall (2012, p. 231) the tag used asks for the addressee's cooperation and softens the impositive force of the request. For the Javanese, politeness emerged from the use of *krama* speech level, while the appealer made the request a bit indirect. Brown and Levinson (1987, p. 152) suggest that appealers are softeners that function as a negative politeness strategy.

In the intracultural interactions, both the J and the M participants infrequently used the negator appealer. J participants employed '*boten bu*' (no mother, see Extract 20) while the M participants used '*nak/ndak*' (no/not). Pan (2010, p. 169) stated that negation mitigates the force in the requests. Negation is considered to be semantically ambiguous. On the other hand, they had to formulate their request briefly and intelligibly so that they could get the desired information from their supervisors. Leech (1983) stated that the negators implicitly say that the speaker assumes that the addressee cannot or does not want to perform what is requested and the speaker wants to make sure about the truth of the assumption. The finding of the infrequent use of negation in this study was in line to the finding of some scholars such as Schauer (2004), and Woodfield (2008). Brown and Levinson (1987) suggest that negation expresses uncertainty regarding the interlocutor's ability and willingness to give what is requested. Negation tends to downgrade the force of the request, and it functions as a negative politeness strategy.

In the intercultural interactions, the JSE participants very infrequently used the politeness marker, 'please', while MSE participants did not use politeness markers at all. Faerch and Kasper (1989, p. 233) explained that this marker functions to show both the force and the mitigation of the request. The findings of politeness markers in this study are similar to the findings of Economidou-Kagetsidis' (2008, p. 125) and Woodfield's (2012, p. 21) studies. Economidou-Kagetsidis investigated Greek learners' interlanguage English requests. She reported that the L1 effect and the different value of the politeness marker 'please' between the Greeks and the English was determined by the infrequent use of the politeness marker 'please'. She argued that the Greek marker *parakalo,* that is similar to the English 'please', was not used by Greek speakers as much as English speakers used 'please'. Similarly, Woodfield's (2012, p. 21) study also showed that the learners in her study infrequently used

politeness markers. In contrast, Barron (2008) reported that 'please' as an illocutionary force indicating device (IFID) frequently occurred in her English data.

The finding of politeness markers in this study is not to the same as the findings of some other studies viz. Faerch and Kasper (1989), House (1989), Göy et al. (2012) and Beltrán (2014). These studies found that interlanguage learners or L2 speakers tended to overuse and rely on the politeness marker 'please'. The reason is that the interlanguage learners in their studies were those who were at the early stage of learning English. The JSE and MSE participants of this study were those who were postgraduate university students in Australia. Their English could be classified as at an advanced level given the English entry level required for international students to attend universities in Australia. Another explanation for the infrequent use of the politeness marker 'please' in the JSE and MSE participants' interlanguage requestive utterances is that it may be a reflection of their L1 language. However, the participants in Beltrán's (2014) study were similar to the participants in this study in that they were undergraduate and postgraduate students. Her finding showed that *please* was the most frequent mitigator used by the participants, and thus is contrary to the finding of this study. A reasonable explanation is that the data collection method of this study was different from that of Beltran. Beltran used a production questionnaire while this study used recorded naturally-occuring data. For the Javanese, it is the appropriate choice of speech level in relation to the status of the interlocutor that determines politeness in Javanese language and culture (Poedjosoedarmo, 1968; Sukarno, 2010). During their interactions, the J participants in this study mostly employed the *krama* speech level (HL) to show politeness, respect or deference. So, although the politeness marker *please* is an overt politeness marker in English (Economidou-Kogetsidis, 2008), the JSE participants infrequently employed the politeness marker *please* in the interactions, while MSE did not use it at all.

The findings of this study showed that different kinds of downgrader internal modifiers were used in the intercultural interactions including downtoners, appealers, consultative devices, cajolers, and subjectivisers. The downtoner *just* was evident in the interactions of MSE participants who used it more than the JSE participants. According to Brown and Levinson (1987, pp. 146-151), this downtoner minimises the object of the requests, and makes them unforceful or reduces the effect of the act. The

use of the downtoner *just* signals a negative politeness strategy in the interaction. The consultative device *do you think* was another internal modifier used. The JSE participants employed more consultative devices than the MSE participants. Based on previous studies of modifiers, Hassall (2012) stated that *do you think* is one of the most frequent internal modifiers used by L1 speakers of English. Cajolers were the other internal modifier used by the participants in the intercultural interactions. The JSE participants used more cajolers in their interactions than did the MSE participants. Cajolers are hearer oriented. Using cajolers, the participants made the information or things talked about becoming more apparent for the supervisor. The other internal modifiers used in the intercultural interactions were subjectivisers. Subjectivisers are used to express the speaker's subjective opinion regarding what is in the proposition. The most commonly used lexical modifiers used were *I think*, while *I was thinking* was used once. Blum-Kulka et al. (1989b) explained that these lexical modifiers soften the assertive force of the request of the speaker.

It is interesting that both the JSE and the MSE participants used more varied internal downgraders in their intercultural interactions with their supervisors who were L1 speakers of English than in J and M participants' intracultural interactions with their supervisors who were L1 speakers of Javanese or Minangkabaunese. The internal modifiers employed by the participants in this study were lexical and phrasal downgraders. Such downgraders used by the participants operate as negative politeness strategies to mitigate the imposition of the requestive behaviours (Brown & Levinson, 1987). The possible explanation may be that living in an English language community seemed to affect the way the JSE and MSE participants used internal modifiers. As students, they had contact with L1 speakers of English in the language community. Living in the language community and interacting with L1 speakers of English in varied situations may have enhanced their pragmatic awareness of using different kinds of internal modifiers to soften their requestive behaviour. They may have noticed how the L1 speakers use internal modifiers in their interactions. Thus, they used their pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic knowledge (Thomas 1983; Kasper, 1998) when interacting in an asymmetric relationship (Scollon & Scollon, 2001).

Another explanation of the use of these internal modifications in their intercultural interactions can come from communication accommodation theory (Giles et al., 1991). Accommodation theory suggests that, in intercultural interactions, the interlocutors tend to converge or diverge in their linguistic codes and that these are associated with the interlocutor's power or for their need to get approval in social interaction (Giles et al., 1991). Gallois and Callan (1991) found that in intercultural interactions, L2 speakers converged in their speech style with those of L1 speakers. The participants in the intercultural interactions in this study were all postgraduate students in universities in Australia. In their home country, Indonesia, the participants have similar academic status to those of their supervisors. Having student status and living as a linguistic minority in Australia, the participants in the intercultural interactions were socially and linguistically unequal compared to those of their supervisors.

Another interesting thing about the findings of this study is the absence of the frequent use of address terms at the end of direct questions or the other requests in the intracultural interactions in the intercultural interactions. Even though the kin address terms are very commonly employed in the interactions of all ethnic groups in Indonesia, kin address terms were mostly absent in these students' intercultural interactions. They occurred only once viz. in the interactions of a Javanese participant with his supervisor when he greeted the supervisor (see Extract 81, Chapter 5). The lack of use of kin address terms in the intercultural interactions may be related to the rarity of the equivalent English terms of address 'sir' and 'madam' in the Australian context. Besides, it is very uncommon to address a supervisor using 'sir' and 'madam' in Australian context. Thus, the participants' cultural knowledge filtered out the kinship address terms as not being relevant in the Australian cultural context and influenced the way they addressed their supervisors. Giles et al.'s (1991) accommodation theory explains this phenomenon as the participants altering their speech to address their supervisors in the Australian way.

In summary, the Javanese participants and the Minangkabaunese participants employed internal modifiers to mitigate their requestive behaviours in their intracultural and intercultural interactions. In their intracultural interactions, both ethnic groups used lexical and phrasal downgraders. The J participants mostly used the co-occurrence of address terms and appealers in *krama* level, while the M

participants mainly employed address terms. These lexical modifiers can redress the impact of the request and modify the act by mitigating the illocutionary force. For J participants, the internal modifiers would make the requests a bit indirect, and *krama* speech level would express politeness that satisfied the supervisor's negative face. In the intercultural interactions, the JSE participants and MSE participants employed more varied internal modifiers that were absent in the intracultural interactions. The participants used only lexical and phrasal downgraders that may convey negative politeness strategies (Brown & Levinson, 1987). The use of different internal modifiers suggests that the participants adapted themselves to the way in which the language community uses the language. Communication accommodation theory seems relevant to explain the phenomena found in this study.

6.7 External Modifications

The functions of external modifiers are similar to those of the internal modifiers. External modifiers can 'downgrade' or 'upgrade' the force of a requestive utterance (Faerch & Kasper, 1989; Trosborg, 1995). The downgraders will mitigate the imposition of the request while the upgraders will reinforce the force of the requests. External modifiers occur in the environment close to the requests. Their position may either precede or follow the requests. This section presents the comparisons of external modifications in the intracultural and intercultural interactions. The discussion of the external modifications will follow.

6.7.1 Comparison of External Modifications in Intracultural and
Intercultural Interactions

The external modifications or supporting moves used in the intracultural interactions of J and M participants showed some similarities and some differences (see Figure 11 for the percentage of the instances). They were similar in the use of grounders, preparators and asking the hearer's opinion. The difference was that J participants used gratitude statements that were not present in the interactions of M participants. Grounders were the preferred external modification for both groups in their intracultural interactions.
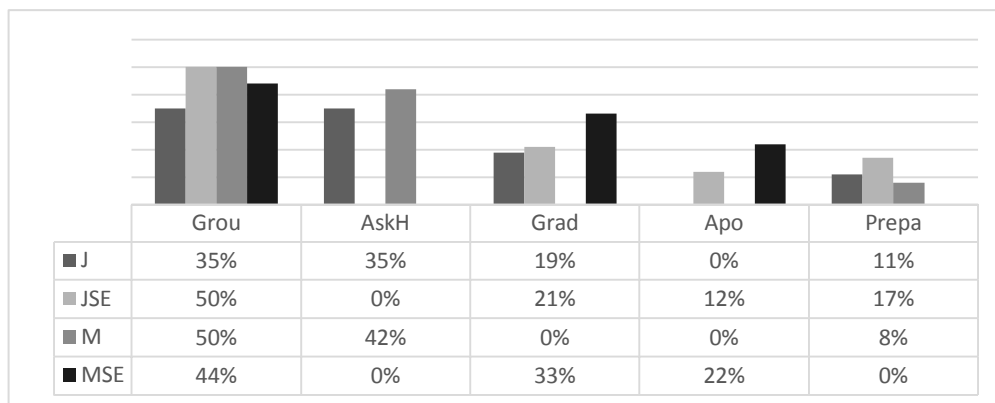
	Grou	AskH	Grad	Apo	Prepa
■ J	35%	35%	19%	0%	11%
■ JSE	50%	0%	21%	12%	17%
■ M	50%	42%	0%	0%	8%
■ MSE	44%	0%	33%	22%	0%

Figure 11 External modifications in intracultural and intercultural

interactions

In their interactions, the J and the JSE participants used similar external modifiers including preparators, grounders, and gratitude. JSE participants used another strategy to express apology. Both groups used grounders as their main external modifications.

The intracultural and intercultural interactions of the M and MSE participants were similar in their use of grounders. They were different in their use of external modifications as M participants employed them to express preparators and to ask the hearer's opinion in ways that were not evident in the interactions of MSE participants. Similarly, gratitude and apologies were evident in the interactions of the MSE participants but were not evident in the interactions of the M participants. Both M and MSE participants used grounders more than the other external modification strategies.

In their intercultural interactions, JSE and MSE participants used similar external modifications, including grounders, gratitude, and apologies. They were different insofar as only the JSE participants used preparators. Both JSE and MSE participants used grounders as their highest external modification.

In summary, the external modifiers employed by Javanese and Minangkabaunese in the intracultural interactions were similar and different from those in their intercultural interactions. J and JSE participants were similar in the use of preparators, grounders, and gratitude. In addition, the use of apologies by JSE participants made them different from J participants in the use of external modifiers. The use of grounders made M participants and MSE participants similar. M participants' use of preparators and

asking the hearer's opinion made them different from MSE participants as they used gratitude and apologies. Grounders were the favoured external modifiers in their intracultural and intercultural modification.

6.7.2 Discussion of External Modification in Intracultural and Intercultural Interactions

Grounders were the preferred form of external modification in the intracultural and intercultural interactions in this study. Faerch and Kasper (1989, p. 239) state that a grounder is an effective mitigator. The grounders employed were in a form of reasons and explanations that preceded or followed requests. The frequent use of grounders in the intracultural interactions mirror the way the Javanese and the Minangkabaunese typically address a request to their interlocutors. They justify by providing explanations and reasons for the requested act so that the interlocutors see the explanation or reasons for making the request. When the interlocutors have listened to the justification, they are expected to be cooperative, to act in accordance with the requested act. In a similar way, the JSE and MSE participants used grounders in their intercultural interactions. The use of grounders in intercultural interactions might have been influenced by the way L1 speakers of Javanese or Minangkabaunese construct their requestive behaviours. However, the finding may also conform to the common way of interaction of L1 speakers of English. Barron's (2008) study regarding requests in Irish English and English English showed that the preferred external modifiers employed were grounders. Similarly, Woodfield (2012), Rue and Zhang (2008), as well as Faerch and Kasper (1989), found that grounders are the most frequent supporting moves used in requestive behaviours.

The findings on grounders in this study are comparable to Hassall's (2012, p. 216) regarding external modification used by L1 speakers of Indonesian and Australian learners of Indonesian. Hassall found that both L1 speakers of Indonesian and Australian learners of Indonesian frequently used grounders. Nadar (1998) and Economidou-Kagetsidis (2008, 2012) also found that grounders were the most frequently used supporting moves in their studies. Faerch and Kasper (1989) considered that grounders appear to be the most frequently supporting move employed regardless of the speakers' level of proficiency. Grounders were considered to be syntactically and pragmalinguistically more simple than internal modifiers.

Grounders seem to be frequently used both by L1 and L2 speakers as they can explicitly express politeness (Faerch & Kasper, 1989). According to Brown and Levinson (1987, p. 128), grounders express cooperation as they implicitly say "I can help you" or "you can help me". Thus, they will modulate the force of a request so that it is polite. Grounders can convey a positive politeness strategy with the assumption that the interlocutors will be cooperative with the requested act. For the Javanese, grounders would make their request indirect as the use of *krama* speech level has expressed politeness in the interactions.

It is interesting that apologies were absent in the intracultural interactions but were evident in the intercultural interactions of both the JSE and MSE participants. The absence of apologies in the intracultural interactions may be because what was exchanged did not require the participants to utter an apology. An absence of apologies in the intracultural interactions possibly shows that apologies are not common in the requestive behaviour of the Javanese and the Minangkabaunese. This finding of this study is contrary to Sudartini's (2014) description in her study of Javanese women's language. She found that Javanese women used a lot of apologies when talking to others. However, the female Javanese participants in this study did not produce any apologies in their interactions. This difference may be related to the context of interactions in this study and the one that Sudartini described. In her paper, the interactions were between males and females.

There are only a few research studies focusing on detailed external modifications in heritage languages in Indonesia. Sukamto's (2012) article on Korean learners of Indonesian and L1 speakers of Indonesian provided examples of apologies used in the requests of the L1 speakers of Indonesian (pp. 4-7). However, there was no discussion dealing with the apologies used by the L1 speakers of Indonesian in her study. Besides, Sukamto's data were collected based on DCT governed by three situations: hierarchy, deference, and solidarity. In contrast, the data of this study were naturally-occurring data that describe how the language is used in real life. The absence of apologies might be related to the issues discussed in the exchange which in this case were not very imposing as most of the requests were for information. In contrast, Merrison et al. (2012, p. 1094) found that apologies were a tactful means to acknowledge the debt in the requestive utterance. The production of apologies in the intercultural interactions

may show that the Javanese and the Minangkabaunese participants were influenced by their pragmatic awareness in the use of apologies in their interactions with their supervisors.

Another interesting finding was the use of gratitude in the intercultural interactions of MSE participants. Gratitude was absent in the M participants' intracultural interactions but was found in the intracultural and intercultural interactions of the J and JSE participants. The existence of gratitude in the intercultural interactions of MSE participants may be influenced by the routine use of gratitude or *thanking* in English speaking communities. Hassall (1996, in Hassall 1999, p. 598) explained that the way his Indonesian subjects used *thanking* was affected by the norms of Western culture. In their interactions, the Indonesians employed *thanking* less frequently than the Australians did. In other words, the MSE participants accommodated the routine *thanking* practices from the Australian community. Brown and Levinson (1987, p. 210), state that, in *thanking*, "S can redress an FTA by explicitly claiming his indebtedness to H". The speaker's acknowledgement of a debt conveys a negative politeness strategy.

In their intracultural interactions, both J and M participants used the modifier asking the hearer's opinion to persuade the supervisor to comply. This modifier is commonly used by Indonesians in their interactions. This strategy does not only show that the J and M participants were cooperative by involving the supervisor in the activity and had common ground by seeking agreement from the supervisor, but also showed that the speaker believes that the addressee may be able to provide the expected answer. By doing so, the requestive intention may be more acceptable. To be cooperative and to seek agreement conveys the use of a positive politeness strategy (Brown & Levinson, 1987, p. 102). However, this strategy was not used in the intercultural interactions.

Preparators were another external modifier that existed in the intracultural and intercultural interactions of the Javanese participants. Preparators were absent in the intercultural interactions of the Minangkabaunese. Preparators in the interactions of the J and JSE participants comprised the main element. '*Badhe nyuwun pirsa*' meaning 'could (I) ask for information', and it was likely the same element was used in the

intercultural interactions. In Javanese prefaces before a request for information are commonly used. Hassall (2012, p. 234) suggested that preparators can express tentativeness about imposing on the hearer, and hence make the question less coercive. However, Hassall (2012, p. 235) and Sifianou (1992, p. 183) found that preparators or prefaces are infrequently employed before a request for information in English. The use of preparators in the requestive behaviour of JSE participants may be influenced by their L1 pragmatic knowledge. They were not aware that a preface used to request for information shows that the request is possibly about sensitive information. So, even though the JSE participants were postgraduate university students and stayed in the English language community, they still had to acquire more interlanguage pragmatic knowledge. This may be culturally-specific as the context of using prefaces before a request for information in English is different from that in Javanese.

The findings on preparators in this study complement Hassall's (2012) findings. His Australian learners of Indonesian never employed prefaces before direct questions. He argued that the learners did not use prefaces due to the lack of pragmatic knowledge of the use of prefaces in Indonesian as well as the different pragmatic use of prefaces in English. In contrast, the Javanese participants of this study used prefaces, as prefaces are routinely used preceding a request for information in Javanese and Minangkabaunese. Similar to Hassall's argument, the use of prefaces in JSE participants' English requestive behaviour may be influenced by the lack of pragmatic knowledge in the use of a preface in English. Thus, they transferred their routine use of prefaces in Javanese to their interlanguage interactions. Beltrán (2014) reported that the first six months of staying in an English speaking country was crucial to developing pragmatic awareness. Her participants' repertoire of modifiers had increased by the end of their stay abroad.

In summary, the Javanese and the Minangkabaunese participants employed external modifiers or supporting moves to mitigate the imposition of their requestive behaviour. For the Javanese, the external modifiers would make their requests indirect as they expressed politeness by using *krama* speech level which is already polite. Grounders were the most preferred external modifiers used in both intracultural and intercultural interactions. The use of preparators preceding the request in their intercultural interactions shows that the participants lacked pragmatic knowledge of the use of

prefaces in English. It seems that the length of stay in an English speaking community did not influence the different perspective of the use of prefaces. On the contrary, the use of some external modifiers such as apologies and gratitude may be accommodated from the interactions within the language community.

6.8 Summary

This chapter presented the comparisons and discussion of the findings from Chapters Four and Five regarding the politeness strategies employed in the thesis supervision sessions. The investigation of politeness strategies involved features of naturally-occurring interactions such as backchannelling, repetition, overlaps, address terms, and the strategies in the request speech acts.

The participants conveyed their politeness by using backchannelling. They used backchannel responses to show cooperation and attentiveness to the supervisor's talk. The backchannel responses existed in different linguistic environments that may be culturally specific such as after *you know* in intercultural interactions, after '*ngono/ngenten lho*' (how it's like), the particle '*lah*' in intracultural interactions. JSE and MSE participants used more varied backchannels in their intercultural interactions that may result from converging their language to that of their supervisor and the language community in which they were then operating. The J participants employed backchannels not only to show cooperation but also to express deference or negative politeness as was shown by the chosen honorific speech level.

The Javanese participants and the Minangkabaunese participants demonstrated their communication strategies as well as politeness strategies through their use of other repetitions in their intracultural and intercultural interactions. The repeats show interest, agreement, and cooperation that may satisfy the Minangkabaunese interlocutor's positive face. For the J participants, they repeated part or all of the utterance of the supervisor but translated it to the higher speech level to show respect or deference that satisfied the supervisor's negative face.

Overlapped talk was another device used to express the participants' politeness in their intracultural and intercultural interactions. The overlaps were used for supplying information, for acknowledging the receipt of information through backchannelling,

for holding the floor of the interactions, and for expressing disagreement. The Javanese did not overlap their utterances to express disagreement in either their intracultural or intercultural interactions. The occurrence of overlaps in this study shows that even students who had lower status than that of the supervisor overlapped their talk with that of the supervisor. The cooperative and intrusive overlaps increased in the intercultural interactions which may have resulted from the students accommodating the communication style of the supervisors and the language community in which they were situated.

Politeness was also expressed through the use of address terms by the J and M participants. They used the lexical address terms and address pronouns to show respect or deference (asymmetric) as well as closeness and solidarity. J participants showed deference using honorific address pronouns. JSE participants used first names and Indonesian address patterns to the supervisor to show closeness, friendliness, and solidarity. JSE participants used pre/post position first names to attract the supervisor's attention to the fact that what was going to be delivered was important. MSE participants did not use lexical address terms. Both JSE and MSE participants conveyed positive politeness strategies by using the address pronoun 'we' in their interactions with the supervisors to show symmetry. The absence of the pronoun 'we' in the intracultural interactions might show a way to avoid implying a symmetrical relationship, as showing status deference is a norm in the language and culture of both Javanese and Minangkabaunese.

Politeness was also displayed in their requestive behaviour. Direct questions were the most frequently used head act strategies in requesting for information in intracultural and intercultural interactions for all groups. Using direct questions to request for information seemed acceptable in the intracultural interactions and seemed to be transferred to the intercultural interactions. To request for actions, the J participants used conventional indirect strategies expressed in *krama* speech level. They also used *krama* to deliver the direct questions, and the use of *krama* made the direct request polite. The M participants used mood derivable-imperatives and conventional indirect strategies that showed the positive and negative politeness strategies employed to requests for action. In the intracultural and intercultural interactions, the participants only infrequently used hints. The infrequent use of hints is contrary to the indirectness

ethos in the two ethnic groups. Mood derivable-imperatives and need/want statements were absent in the interactions of J participants, while need/want statements were absent in the interactions of M participants. However, they were found in the intercultural interactions of the JSE and the MSE participants. This finding showed that they used more positive politeness strategies in their intercultural interactions.

The preferred syntactical modifiers used were declarative questions that were similar both in intracultural and intercultural interactions. All the lexical and phrasal modifiers used in this study were downgraders that showed the use of negative politeness strategies. The J participants mostly used address terms and appealers in *krama*, while the M participants mostly employed address terms. These lexical modifiers can redress the impact of the request and modify the act by mitigating the illocutionary force. In the intercultural interactions, the JSE participants and MSE participants employed more varied lexical/phrasal modifiers that were absent in the intracultural interactions. Subjectivisers were the preferred downgraders in the intercultural interactions. The use of different internal modifiers showed that, to a certain degree, the participants adapted themselves to the way the language community used the language. Communication accommodation theory seems relevant to explain the phenomena that were found in this study.

External modifiers were also employed to minimise and soften the force of the imposition. Grounders were the most preferred external modifiers used in both intracultural and intercultural interactions. The use of preparators preceding the requests in JSE participants' intercultural interactions shows that the participants lacked pragmatic knowledge in the use of prefaces in English. It seems that the length of stay in an English speaking community did not influence the different perspective in the use of prefaces. On the contrary, the use of other external modifiers such as apologies and gratitude may be adopted from the interactions within the language community. The presence of supportive moves in the interactions portrays the positive politeness strategies employed in the interactions. For the Javanese, the supportive moves would make the requests indirect as politeness in the interaction was expressed by the chosen speech level.

The conclusions and implications of this study are presented in Chapter 7. The description provides the conclusion for each research question followed by the implications of this study and recommendations for future research.

Chapter 7: Conclusions and Implications

This chapter presents the conclusions, implications, and recommendations for future research of this study. The conclusions are drawn from the findings and discussion in the previous chapters regarding the interactional features, and the request speech acts to convey politeness in the thesis supervision sessions. The implications of the research provide theoretical implications relevant to interlanguage pragmatics, politeness theory, and practical implications. The practical implications are relevant for language instructors and classroom teaching, textbook writers, curriculum writers, and intercultural thesis supervision sessions. This chapter will end with some recommendations for future research related to this area of study.

7.1 Conclusions

This study aimed to answer three research questions that guided the investigation of politeness strategies.

7.1.1 Maintaining Other's Negative Face

The first research question investigated the politeness strategies employed by students who were L1 Javanese speakers in interaction with their academic supervisors who were also L1 Javanese speakers in thesis supervision sessions conducted in Javanese (intracultural interactions).

In their intracultural interactions with their supervisors in Javanese, the Javanese participants employed various strategies to convey their politeness and maintain the other's negative face. As Javanese, throughout the interactions, the students chose the *krama* speech level to express respect and deference to their supervisors. They correspondingly expressed the hierarchical relationships shown in their choice of speech levels in their use of address terms. The choice of the honorific first person address pronoun *kula* for 'I' and the honorific pronoun *panjenengan* for 'you' showed that the student participants followed the concept of *andhap-asor* in Javanese culture that means to be humble and at the same time to respect the addressee. They consistently used *krama* and provided the backchannel response *nggih* (yes) to convey uptake, attentiveness and approval of their supervisor's talk as well as to maintain harmony in the interactions. Thus, the backchannel responses in Javanese showed not

277

only approval and attentive listenership, but also conveyed respect or deference to the supervisor's negative face. To show active listenership (Tannen, 1989) and to enhance involvement in the interactions, the J participants employed other-repetitions by translating parts of or the whole utterance of the supervisor into the higher level of speech, *krama*. This kind of repetition appears to be culturally-specific to Javanese. Using repetition at the beginning of the utterance seemed to be their communicative strategy to show their alignment and agreement to the supervisor's talk and to maintain status deference by translating the repeated element into the higher speech level that satisfied the supervisor's negative face.

The J participants also communicated their politeness strategies in the interactions by showing active involvement through their overlapped talk. The overlaps occurred when they acknowledged the receipt of information and supplied information in terms of words or phrases to the supervisor's talk and in offers to take the floor. The use of overlaps contrasts with the Javanese etiquette *tata krama* (good conduct) that is not to interrupt while another is speaking. Even though they did overlap, the Javanese student participants did not use disagreement overlaps. The absence of disagreement overlaps may be related to the Javanese face-work strategies that maintain the other's face.

The findings showed that in the supervision situation of unequal status, they used direct questions in *krama*, the honorific speech level, as the most preferred head act strategy. The direct questions were used to ask for information, confirmation, clarification, and repetition from their supervisors. The interrogatives and declarative questions were employed in the head acts of the direct questions. Direct questions are the most impositive strategy and very forceful when requesting for information. The J participants very infrequently used requests for action and expressed their requestive intention for an action using conventional indirect strategies. The use of direct questions in the interactions of J participants seems to be contrary to the Javanese ethos of indirectness. However, they consistently communicated their direct requests as well as the conventional indirect strategies using *krama* speech levels as a decisive choice of politeness associated with the social status of the interlocutors. Thus, the direct questions used by themselves were polite as the *krama* used expressed politeness and showed deference.

The syntactical constructions employed in the requestive behaviour shows the internal modifications employed to soften the force of the request speech acts. The J participants modified the head acts internally using interrogatives, conditionals, and declarative questions. They used declarative questions more than any of the others. They also used lexical and phrasal downgraders such as address terms, consultative devices, and appealers. Appealers and address terms were the most frequently used in the interactions. The J participants frequently used address terms at the end of their requests or utterances. In this study, the J participants produced head acts with compound internal modifiers. The co-occurrence of lexical and phrasal downgraders to make the head acts indirect was relatively high, especially the co-occurrence of appealers and address terms. For the external modifications, the J participants used preparators, grounders, asking the hearer's opinion, and gratitude. Grounders and asking the hearer's opinion were the most preferred supporting moves employed. All the internal and external modifiers employed by the J participants were downgraders demonstrating their preference for negative politeness strategies. For the Javanese, the internal and external modifiers used would make the requests a bit indirect as the *krama* used expressed politeness in the interactions.

In summary, in the intracultural interaction, the J participants consistently maintained the other's negative face. They employed the concept of Javanese culture *andhap-asor,* that is to humble self and respect others, through their consistency in the choice of the higher speech level, *krama*. Their interactions in the supervision sessions were mainly characterised by politeness through the use of *krama*. Their politeness strategies conveyed approval, attentive listenership and active involvement that may save the supervisor's positive and negative face. The direct strategy of employing direct questions in the head acts of the requestive behaviour was made indirect by using lexical and phrasal downgraders, as well as supportive moves. Moreover, they expressed their direct questions in *krama* to make the direct questions polite and to show deference and respect to their supervisors.

7.1.2 Maintaining Other's Positive and Negative Face

The second research question focused on the investigation of the politeness strategies employed by students who were L1 Minangkabaunese speakers in interactions with their academic supervisors who were also L1 Minangkabaunese speakers in the thesis

supervision sessions conducted in Minangkabaunese. In the dialogic interactions of thesis supervision sessions, the M participants displayed their politeness strategies that cared for the other's positive and negative face. The M participants employed backchannel responses to play their role as supportive, attentive listeners, and engaged listenership in collaborative interaction. In this case, the M participants and their supervisors satisfied each other's positive face. They employed other-repetitions as communication strategies to acknowledge the receipt of the information, ask for confirmation as to whether their understanding was accurate, to ask for clarification for better understanding of what was discussed, and to co-construct their interactions with their supervisor. These strategies showed that they and their supervisors were cooperative and supportive. Showing agreement to the supervisor's preceding utterance and being cooperative and supportive showed that the student participants satisfied the supervisor's positive face. They also conveyed politeness in their active involvement in the interactions through their overlapped talk. The M participants' utterances overlapped with their supervisor's current talk to supply information, to acknowledge through backchannel responses, to express disagreement, and to take over the floor. These overlaps, classified as cooperative interruptions, express affiliation, and cooperation that convey their positive politeness. On the other hand, the overlaps to take over the floor and to express disagreement are considered as impolite as they create threats to the supervisor's positive face (Brown & Levinson, 1987, 66-77).

In their requestive behaviour, the M participants used direct questions as the most frequent head act strategy. The direct questions were employed to request for information, clarification, and confirmation. They used interrogative and declarative questions. They used declarative questions more often than interrogatives. The frequent use of direct requests is considered not appropriate to the ethos of indirectness in Minangkabaunese culture. To request for actions, the M participants used more varied strategies involving mood derivable-imperatives, obligatory statements, performatives, and conventional indirect strategies. Mood derivable-imperatives are a very direct strategy and were the most used. Thus, direct questions and mood derivable-imperatives, that are considered to be impositive, were the preferred strategies. The M participants internally modified their requests by using downgraders to soften the force of their request speech acts. They used understaters, downtoners,

address terms, combinations of appealers and address terms, and appealers only. The most frequent internal modifiers employed were address terms. Besides, address terms were frequently used at the end of the requests or utterances. They used different internal modifiers collaboratively in a head act, especially using an appealer and an address term in the same head act. The use of address terms to address self and others by the M participants showed that the M participants sometimes applied *kato mandaki* (words that climb), that is used to speak to those who are older or have higher status. The address terms were mostly in the post-position of their utterances. The post-position address terms did not only call for the supervisor's attention but also softened their request speech acts. Besides internal modifiers, the M participants employed grounders, preparators, and asking the hearer's opinion. The most preferred supporting move was a grounder.

In summary, in the intracultural interactions the M participants used politeness strategies that complied with the other's positive and negative face. They expressed their politeness using different communicative strategies such as backchannel responses, other-repetitions, and overlaps to show engaged listenership, support, and high involvement in the interactions. The direct strategies employed were direct questions and mood derivable-imperatives. The direct questions were modified using internal modifiers predominantly in the forms of address terms and appealers, and external modifiers particularly in the form of grounders. They communicated their negative politeness strategies using kin address terms and other downgraders.

7.1.3 L1 Forms and Norms in L2/FL Interaction

The third research question investigated the extent to which these different L1s influenced the use of politeness strategies employed by these speakers in thesis supervision sessions in English with academic supervisors who are L1 speakers of English.

In their intercultural interactions, the JSE participants used positive politeness strategies to preserve the other's positive and negative face. They exhibited their politeness through engaged listenership, involvement, and active involvement in the interactions. They showed their attentiveness and uptake of the content of the supervisor's talk using various backchannel responses. They also used involvement

strategies including other-repetitions to request for confirmation, to provide clarification, and to initiate a new turn. These involvement strategies showed their active listenership, understanding or agreement with the supervisor's preceding utterance and active co-construction of the interactions. Similarly, they displayed active involvement in the interactions through their overlapping talk. Their utterances overlapped those of their supervisors to show the receipt of information, to supply short information, and to take over the floor. However, floor-taking overlaps create threats to another's territory and are considered intrusive. So, although the JSE participants satisfied their supervisors' positive face by showing active listenership, interest, agreement to the talk, and being supportive and cooperative in the interactions, they also displayed a strategy that threatened the supervisor's negative and positive face with their use of disruptive interruptions (Brown & Levinson, 1987, p. 67).

The JSE participants displayed their positive politeness strategies in their use of request speech acts. In the head acts, they preferred to use direct questions and very rarely used conventional indirect strategies. They used direct questions to request for information, confirmation, clarification, and repetition. The head acts were in the form of interrogatives and declarative questions. To request for actions, JSE participants employed mood derivable-imperatives, need statements, and obligatory statements. There was no co-occurrence of internal modifiers in the construction of head acts. To mitigate the head acts regardless of their directness, the JSE participants used various internal modifiers involving consultative devices, appealers, polite markers, understaters, subjectivisers, downtoners, and cajolers. Subjectivisers were their preferred form of lexical downgrader, but the politeness marker *please* was infrequently used. These lexical downgraders may show how they tried to soften the head acts. Besides, they also used first names to address the supervisors, as well as the Indonesian pattern of address terms: kin address term followed by the first name. The use of varied internal modifiers may be the influence of the experience of living in an English language community that broadened their pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic awareness. Similarly, they softened the head acts by using supporting moves. They used preparators, grounders, gratitude, and apologies. Their preferred supporting moves were grounders that explicitly expressed politeness. The use of preparators to ask for information showed that their sociopragmatic awareness in their

use was, nevertheless, affected by the routine use of preparators in their L1. Their use of preparators was not influenced by their length of stay in an English language community.

In summary, in their intercultural interactions JSE participants constantly used positive and negative politeness strategies. In their interactions, they displayed their positive politeness strategies using backchanneling to show attentive listenership, repetitions to show interest, and agreement to the supervisor's talk, using overlaps to show active involvement. They mostly used direct questions to ask for information. They also mitigated the head acts using internal modifiers in which subjectivisers were their preferred downgraders. Likewise, they used external modifiers of which they preferred grounders most.

The MSE participants also employed communication strategies to express their preference to take care of other's positive and negative face. They displayed their role as attentive listeners by using varied backchannel responses to show their uptake and agreement to the content of the talk. Being supportive and attentive in their interactions, they satisfied the supervisor's as well as their own positive face-wants. In addition, they conveyed politeness by being actively involved in the interactions using other-repetitions to acknowledge the receipt of information, to request for confirmation, clarification, and information. They used other-repetitions to co-construct their interactions as well as to show interest, agreement, and cooperation in the thesis supervision sessions. Active involvement in the interactions was also displayed through their overlapped talk. Through the overlapping talk they expressed cooperation and camaraderie with the supervisor; however, their overlaps were also used to express different opinions and floor-taking that threatened their supervisor's positive face-want. Showing engaged listenership and active involvement revealed MSE participants' preference for positive politeness strategies.

The MSE participants' most preferred strategies in the head acts were direct requests. The direct requests were employed to ask for information, clarification, confirmation, and repetition. Interrogatives and declarative questions were used in the construction of the head acts. To request for actions, they used direct strategies including mood derivable-imperatives and need statements. To soften the direct requests, they used

internal modifiers involving consultative devices, understaters, appealers, subjectivisers, downtoners and cajolers. Subjectivisers were the most preferred lexical downgraders. There were no lexical address terms used in their interactions. In addition, they also mitigated the coerciveness of the direct questions using supportive moves involving grounders, gratitude, and apologies. They used grounders more than the other supporting moves.

In short, in their intercultural interactions the MSE participants communicated their preference for positive politeness strategies through attentive listenership using backchannel responses, showing interest and agreement by using repetitions, and showing active involvement as well as disagreement by using overlaps. The most frequent head acts for their request speech acts were direct requests that were softened using internal modifiers of which subjectivisers were the most frequently used. Similarly, they softened the head acts by using supporting move, the most frequent of which were grounders. The use of downgraders showed the MSE participants' use of negative politeness strategies.

The second part of the third research questions was to investigate the extent to which these differing L1s influenced the use of politeness strategies employed by these speakers in thesis supervision sessions in English with academic supervisors who are L1 speakers of English.

The findings showed that the J participants, in their intracultural interactions, did not overlap their utterances to express different opinion, while the M participants did. Similarly, the JSE participants, in their intercultural interactions, did not express different opinion in their overlapped talk, while the MSE participants did. This phenomenon may reflect the way the J and M participants communicate in their L1 culture. The instances of backchannel responses to express politeness in the environment after clause boundaries were relatively high both in the intracultural and intercultural interactions. This phenomena may show that both the Javanese and the Minangkabaunese preferred to show support or agreement to the talk in this discourse environment that was also reflected in the way they used backchannel responses in their intercultural interactions.

284

The findings of the intracultural interactions showed that the participants employed the most direct strategy, direct questions, in their interactions with their supervisors who were Javanese or Minangkabaunese. Likewise, direct questions were used in the interlanguage interactions of Javanese or Minangkabaunese speaking English with their supervisors who were L1 speakers of English. The use of direct questions to request for information in the intercultural interactions may be influenced by the L1 transfer as direct questions to request for information were extremely common in both the intracultural and intercultural interactions. Besides, the syntactic modifications used were interrogatives and declarative questions, in this case the occurrence of declarative questions was higher than those of interrogatives. The high number of instances of declarative questions reflected the use of interrogatives in Javanese and Minangkabaunese. Javanese and Minangkabaunese have no morphosyntactic marking to differentiate between declarative questions and interrogatives, except when there is a question word. In these languages, questions are marked based on their intonation. Thus, they communicated in their L2/FL based on their L1 linguistic patterns and tended to use declarative questions in their interlanguage.

The use of more than one internal modifier in the construction of head acts in the intracultural interactions did not seem to influence the use of the internal modifiers in the interlanguage behaviour. Even though the participants used various internal modifiers in their interlanguage requests, they did not employ co-occurrence of internal modifiers in the head acts, especially in terms of tense and aspects. Likewise, this may be influenced by the nature of Javanese and Minangkabaunese as verbs are not inflected for tense and aspect forms in these languages. It is possible to find the equivalent vocabulary in the base form but not in the inflected form such as 'was wondering', 'could', 'would', etc. So, inflected forms that are commonly used in the conventional indirect requests in English are not available in these languages. The lack of inflected forms of tense and aspects in their L1 may have led the participants to infrequently use inflected forms in their internal modifiers. For example, in Extract 132 (line 288) "yea I was thinking about e:: / the comment / in here I should put one frequency that means like ↑that". However, this was the only instance of an inflected form in the internal modifiers. The lack of co-occurrence of internal modifiers displayed the participants' repertoire of internal modifiers used to express politeness in their interlanguage interactions.

The use of prefaces or preparators in JSE interactions and overlaps expressing different opinion may reflect how the Javanese and the Minangkabaunese use their L1 in their L1 culture. The routine use of a preparator before a request for information in Javanese seemed to influence the JSE participants to employ prefaces before a request for information in their interlanguage interactions in the L2/FL culture. Thus, the JSE participants communicated and produced their interlanguage based on their L1 norms.

Another observed phenomenon was the use of the Indonesian address patterns in the intercultural interaction. The occurrence of kin address terms followed by first name might have been used to show that they knew each other well, so it may express solidarity. It might also have been used to show respect or deference as in the use of the word *pak* (father). However, this phenomenon possibly shows that the participants were influenced by their L1 norms when they were using their L2/FL in the L2/FL cultural context. Similarly, expressing disagreement by MSE participants in their interlanguage behaviour may be caused by their L1 culture as Minangkabaunese are considered to be more open (Heider, 1991) and aggressive (Geertz, 1973, p. 315).

To sum up, the different L1s did seem to influence the JSE participants and the MSE participants when using their politeness strategies in their intercultural interactions. There were commonalities and differences between Javanese and Minangkabaunese due to the nature of their L1s and the way the Javanese and Minangkabaunese use their L1 in their culture. The use of direct questions and the tendency to use declarative questions may be due to the L1 influence as questions are mostly marked using intonation in these languages. The lack of tense and aspects in the nature of the participants' L1 may have influenced the participants' production of syntactic constructions underlying the scheme of indirectness in the sense of Brown and Levinson (1987). The use of preparators by the JSE participants, the use of overlaps expressing disagreement by the MSE participants, and the use of backchannels appear to be influenced by the way they use their L1. In other words, even though JSE and MSE had different L1s they were similar in their strategies in using backchannels, direct questions, preferred internal modifiers and supporting moves. The differing L1s also influenced their different strategies in the use of preparators and overlaps expressing disagreement.

7.2 Implications

7.2.1 Theoretical Implications

This study has theoretical implications relating to the cultural backgrounds and politeness strategies in the context of intercultural interactions that fall into the domain of interlanguage pragmatics and politeness theory.

In the area of interlanguage pragmatics, this study makes the scope of languages under interlanguage pragmatic investigation wider and may contribute to the body of interlanguage pragmatics literature. This study encompassed two different heritage languages in Indonesia. It, therefore, fills some gaps in the intercultural interactions in academic settings by involving Javanese and Minangkabaunese speaking English with their supervisors who were L1 speakers of English. In the intercultural interactions, there may be unintentional impoliteness that resulted from a lack of L2/FL pragmatic awareness. Applying acceptable strategies in L1 cultures may be perceived to be very blunt and impolite in the L2/FL cultural norms. This study informs us about the nature of academic intercultural interactions and helps us to understand how the different cultural backgrounds play a role in the choice of politeness strategies used.

This study showed that more varied backchannels were used in intercultural interactions. This finding supports Heinz's (2003) argument that blackchannel behaviour is shaped by cultural and language systems. Besides, accommodation as described by Giles et al.'s (1977) Accommodation Theory may play a role in interactions.

The findings also support the findings of other studies that L2/FL speakers used direct requests (Bardovi-Harlig & Hartford, 1993; Kasanga, 2006), and direct questions used to request for information (Hassall, 1999; Dalton-Puffer, 2005; Nikula, 2008; Economidou-Kogetsidis, 2002). Besides, The cultural and situational aspects may influence the choice of (in)directness of the requests (Economidou-Kogetsidis, 2010; Dalton-Puffer, 2005). Similarly, this study also supports the observation that L2/FL speakers infrequently use syntactic modifiers in terms of tense and aspects (Woodfield, 2012) and infrequently produce compound internal modifiers due to the complex pragmalinguistic structures of internal modifiers (Hassall, 2001b, 2012; Johns & Félix-Brasdefer, 2015). The finding also supports the findings that grounders are the most

preferred supporting moves (Hassal, 2012; Economidou-Kogetdis, 2012; Woodfield, 2012, Rue & Zhang, 2008; Faerch & Kasper, 1989). This study also showed that grounders were the most preferred supporting moves in the intracultural and intercultural interactions of Javanese and Minangkabaunese participants.

In the area of politeness theories, the analysis in this study showed that the politeness found in the dyadic interactions of naturally-occurring data may go beyond the classifications of politeness using Brown and Levinson's politeness strategies. The examination of interruptions through the participants' overlapped talk could be considered a threat to the interlocutor's negative and positive face cf. Brown and Levinson (1987). However, from the participants' points of view (emic perspective) what is considered to be a threat theoretically may not be perceived as face-threatening acts by the participants in the interactions.

Politeness theory (Brown & Levinson, 1987) may not be universally applicable as it is constrained by the use of tense and aspect forms to express indirectness or more polite utterances. Javanese and Minangkabaunese do not have inflected verbs to show tense and aspects. In these languages, it is possible to find the equivalent vocabulary in the base form but not in the inflected form such as 'could', 'would', 'was wondering', etc. Languages that lack these tense and aspect forms will also lack indirectness in the sense of Brown and Levinson (1987). Moreover, the notion of indirectness in Javanese and Minangkabaunese is not similar to that of Brown and Levinson, especially when it is viewed from the perspective of conventional indirectness that often refers to the use of tense and aspects. The indirectness in Javanese and Minangkabaunese may be closer to Brown and Levinson's 'off-the record' politeness strategies. For the Javanese, indirect is not always identical to politeness. The appropriate choice of speech level in relation to the social status of the addressee would determine the degree of politeness in the interaction.

The application of Brown and Levinson's politeness theory to the analysis of Javanese and Minangkabaunese could be said to face some difficulty. In Javanese, the use of *krama* in the context of interaction in this study would express politeness by itself. The constructions of head acts, as well as internal and external modifiers, can not work to mitigate the utterances, but to make the utterance indirect which is not identical to

politeness in Javanese as *krama* played the key role in expressing politeness. What is direct, such as a direct request, when it is expressed in *krama* would be considered polite in Javanese. Likewise, address terms are honorific words and very crucial in Minangkabaunese interaction. Chosing an address term appropriately in relation to the status of the addressee would make the request polite even though the construction of the utterance is very direct.

This study showed that discourse environments '*ngono/ngenten lho*' (how it's like or it's like this) in Javanese and the particle '*lah*' in Minangkabaunese triggered the use of backchannel responses. This finding provides a new contribution to the study of backchannels in the area of politeness and conversation analysis.

The use of direct questions, taking-floor overlaps in intracultural and intercultural interactions challenged the stereotype of speech behaviour of the Javanese, Minangkabaunese, and Indonesians in general. In addition to this, this study showed that speech overlap was not related to the status difference of the interlocutors found in previous research studies such as those of Bargiela-Chiappine and Harris (1996) and Farley (2008).

7.2.2 Practical Implications

The findings of the intracultural and intercultural interactions in this study reflect how language is used in the real world. The findings show how speakers of EFL used the language in intercultural interactions with their supervisors who were L1 speakers of English. The strategies employed in the intercultural interactions may have been affected by the participants' L1 norms and unawareness of their interlanguage behaviour. The pragmalinguistics employed demonstrates that the participants focused on the aim of achieving clarity and the need to be understood whereas the notion of being tactful flouts this to a certain degree. These findings have implications relevant to educational policy-makers for ESL/EFL instruction, curriculum development, and ESL/EFL textbook writers as well as intercultural thesis supervision sessions.

This study provides evidence that the strategies used in intercultural interactions may be perceived to be direct at some point, and certain strategies were used based on the L1 norms. These findings have practical implications for ESL/EFL classroom teaching

in Indonesia in terms of (in)directness as well as cultural awareness. The directness in the intercultural interactions was shown in the frequent use of direct questions. This directness may be influenced by the nature of the L1 languages. Javanese, Minangkabaunese, and Indonesian are languages in which the verbs are not inflected for tense and aspects. Thus, there is no change in the verb in relation to time in these languages. This difference may influence the participants in the use of pragmalinguistic items and the production of grammatical infelicities. The participants may have possessed the knowledge of pragmalinguistic items, but they did not take this into account in the sociocultural aspects that may affect the degree of politeness expressed in the use of the L2/FL relevant to L2/FL norms. For these reasons, English language instructors need to be aware that lexico-grammatical items must be taught in the context relevant to the L2/FL cultural values. Teaching L2/FL should not only be about the grammatical knowledge and skills in the use of the language, but it is equally important to teach how to use the language in ways that are socially and culturally appropriate. Language instructors' consideration of how a certain lexico-grammatical item is used in L2/FL culture is necessary. The English instructors should discuss why a certain pragmalinguistic item is more appropriate than another, why a certain construction is perceived as direct, why politeness markers or indirectness markers are required in certain contexts, how to soften the directness, and what cultural values underly these choices. This activity is important to raise the ESL/EFL learners' sociocultural awareness.

Integrating form, meaning, and use of certain grammatical items (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman, 1999) or awareness-raising tasks (Ishihara & Cohen, 2010) in teaching may be able to develop pragmatic awareness in the learners. Pragmatic awareness may also be important to avoid the occurrence of pragmatic transfer. In the use of form, meaning, and use, the teaching needs to involve the grammatical items as well as how to use them in the context relevant to the culture of the L2/FL. L2/FL learners/speakers need to be able to use their language in the relevant social contexts which they encounter it (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman, 1999). Awareness-raising tasks may broaden the students' awareness that interactional norms in one culture may or may not be relevant to the norms of the other. The tasks could include overviewing similar and different ritual practices in the L1 culture and the L2/FL culture. This sort of activity will broaden the L2/FL learners' pragmatic awareness that what is

appropriate and polite in their L1 culture may not be appropriate and polite in the L2/FL culture (Ishihara & Cohen, 2010).

In the intercultural interactions, the findings show that the participants infrequently used syntactical hedges or syntactical constructions that underline indirectness in their interlanguage requestive behaviour. They were very dependent on the forms of direct questions or declarative questions to request for information. The infrequent use of syntactical hedges suggests that these aspects should be given greater attention as they are prominent in determining the indirectness of utterances in intercultural communication with L1 speakers of English. Therefore, this study also recommends ESL/EFL textbook writers be mindful of this and to update the presentation of language components to include the sociopragmatic aspects of the different linguistic realisations. So far, ESL/EFL books do present constructions to express indirectness, but these pragmalinguistic components are not presented together with their pragmatic functions relevant to the L2/FL culture. Presenting lists of expressions or idiomatic expressions may lead the learners of L2/FL to memorise the list without knowing how to use them in appropriate L2/FL contexts and cultures. Presenting pragmalinguistics together with their pragmatic functions may increase and broaden the pragmatic awareness of both the instructors and the learners of English of the second or foreign language.

Transferring L1 cultural norms into L2/FL is possible when it is appropriate and when there are similarities between L1 and L2/FL. However, negative transfers may result in misunderstandings. Munandar and Ulwiyah's (2012) study on the cultural content of Indonesia's high school ELT textbooks showed that there was cultural information regarding the behaviour of L1 speakers of English. The cultural information was presented with varied topics from greetings to directness in communication. The textbooks also presented the speech acts for invitations, requesting, promising, and criticising. Munandar and Ulwiyah explained that there was no information or explanation of the differences between linguistic and sociolinguistic aspects of the functions of the language. In fact, grammatical constructions used in the speech acts may be affected by cultural factors or values relevant to English speaking communities. In other words, ELT/EFL textbook writers are critical in designing and presenting language focuses that call for the learners' L2/FL sociocultural knowledge.

There should be information in the ELT/EFL textbooks about why the L1 speakers of English speak the way they do, as well as why they use a specific grammatical construction and not others.

For curriculum writers, the findings drawn from the interlanguage interactions encourage the inclusion of L2/FL culture or intercultural approaches in the second/foreign language syllabus and curriculum. Such inclusion means incorporating pragmatic language use in the curriculum. Pragmatic language use is supposed to be taught in the classroom as it is demanding. However, according to Ishihara (2010), it is hard to learn pragmatic language use due to differences in cultural appropriateness, and grammatical and lexical complexity. To learn pragmatic language use needs a long period, even when L2/FL learners stay in an L2/FL community. For that reason, it is crucial to incorporate pragmatic language use in the curriculum.

The integration of pragmatic language use in the curriculum will be beneficial for both the language instructors and the learners of the second language. The inclusion of cultural awareness or pragmatic awareness of the second language will help them understand how the language is used in the L2/FL context and culture. Learning a language means learning the culture in which the language is used as they are integrally linked to each other. Learning the language without knowing how the language is used by the L1 speakers may result in the use of L2/FL using L1 strategies that may flout its pragmatic principles (Leech, 1980, p. 10). To this end, language instructors should provide a cultural understanding of language expressions taught, so that by having good cultural understanding the L2/FL learners or speakers may reduce miscommunication in their intercultural interactions. Ishihara (2010, p. 206) states that a curriculum that has the goal of increasing the pragmatic awareness of the L2/FL learners will result in the learners' ability to develop their pragmatic awareness creatively.

This study shows that politeness is an important factor in thesis supervision sessions. The different cultural values and lexico-grammatical constructions to express politeness may cause misunderstanding in intercultural interactions. For example, the Javanese and Minangkabaunese used direct questions in their thesis supervision sessions. They were considered acceptable and polite in their L1 norms as, for instance,

the Javanese used honorific speech levels as well as kin address terms to show respect and deference while the Minangkabaunese used kin address terms to show respect. The direct questions used in the intercultural interactions of thesis supervision sessions in Australia context may be perceived as impolite and coercive. Many studies show that L1 speakers of English prefer the constructions underlying conventional indirectness. The participants of this study possibly did not realise that the different pragmalinguistic requests for information are closely related to the cultural values underlying politeness in their L2/FL norms. They probably didn't want to be direct or rude as that is contrary to the nature of indirectness in their L1. So, L2/FL speakers should be aware of this possibility when using their L2/FL in an L2/FL cultural context. They need to understand and be alert to the notion of politeness and the cultural norms of their L2/FL. Otherwise, they may use pragmalinguistics that is inappropriate in the L2/FL sociocultural norms, and it may have consequences for the interpersonal relationship with their supervisors.

The L1 speakers in intercultural interactions should be broad- and open-minded to the supervisees' L2/FL interlanguage communication. This study shows that the L2/FL speakers employed impositive strategies in the sense of Brown and Levinson (1987). L1 speakers' tolerance to the linguistic and cultural differences may decrease misunderstandings. The awareness of the nature of the students' interlanguage behaviour may avoid misunderstandings if inappropriateness occurs and can lead to positive attitudes towards others. To have a better understanding of the supervisees' cultural backgrounds, as well as their linguistic backgrounds, may improve outcomes.

Based on the practical implications of this study, recommendations for curriculum writers, language instructor/classroom teaching, and textbook writers follow.

The English language curriculum for English teacher education programs, as well as the English language curriculum for senior high schools in Indonesia, need to be re-evaluated. Incorporating cultural/intercultural approaches into the ELT/ELF curriculum will bridge the gaps between learning the language and learning the culture.

English instructors should re-evaluate and upgrade their teaching strategies. It is necessary for them to be aware that the teaching of lexico-grammatical items should

not be decontextualized. Decontextualising the teaching of lexico-grammatical items may lead to the L2/FL learners being unable to use the language socially appropriately and politely. The English instructors need to understand the importance of incorporating L2/FL cultural knowledge into the teaching of pragmalinguistic items to promote the learners' pragmatic awareness through awareness of their own language and the L2/FL language.

English instructors should correspondingly be able to prepare and design teaching materials that include L2/FL cultural knowledge related to the language focus in the teaching materials. This capability is important because the textbooks used may not provide any information regarding the relevant cultural norms. In this case, the language instructors can add-on the L2/FL cultural information. L2/FL teaching materials and cultural information can be obtained from research reports such as journal articles, or by finding authentic teaching materials on the internet.

Furthermore, the language instructors have to be very critical in selecting the ESL/EFL textbooks for their classes. The cultural or intercultural approaches of the textbooks and textbooks that are aimed to raise pragmatic awareness may become the priority in deciding the books to be chosen. Besides, books that are based on the results of pragmatic research may also be worth considering as they might represent natural language use in real situations. Using naturally occurring data in the teaching and learning process may provide the appropriate picture of how the learners should apply their pragmatic knowledge in interactions. Linguistic items that function pragmatically in the discourse may be analysed and discussed in relation to direct/indirectness in the relevant culture(s) and the notion of face in the interactions.

For the ESL/EFL textbook writers, it is time to re-evaluate the content of the textbooks. The presentation of pragmalinguistics that is culturally-specific needs to be given greater prominence in order to raise the ESL/EFL instructors and learners' pragmatic awareness. Besides, interlanguage pragmatic research results that used naturally occurring data may be integrated into the textbooks so that the textbook can provide examples of the language as it is used in authentic interactions (Usó-Juan & Martínez-Flor, 2010).

The findings of this study have shown that, using naturally-occurring data, the Javanese and the Minangkabaunese in their intracultural and intercultural interactions preferred direct questions. More in-depth research should be conducted using naturally-occurring data in the area of cross-cultural research or interlanguage pragmatics involving different heritage languages in Indonesia. The investigation of how people from different ethnic groups with different languages from Indonesia act through their language will provide more insights into politeness and interlanguage research.

This study did not include student participants who are L1 speakers of English and their supervisors who are L1 speakers of English. Further studies investigating the interlanguage of Indonesians could involve the interactions of L1 speakers of English and L1 speakers of English participants. These investigations may strengthen the findings of this study. The investigation would provide a better comparison regarding the language produced by L2/FL speakers of English and L1 speakers of English in the same setting.

The use of direct questions to ask for information, and the use of prefaces before information questions in the L1 interactions may be ingrained in the language repertoire of the participants. Their stay in an L2/FL community did not seem to have an effect on their use of direct questions and prefaces. Further studies might investigate the effects of length of stay in the L2/FL community and L2/FL pragmatic development. Other scholars have investigated the influence of the length of stay in L2/FL communities and L2/FL development, however, there has not been any investigation regarding direct questions and prefaces.

References

Acciaioli, G. (1985). Culture as art: From practice to spectacle in Indonesia. *Canberra Anthropology, 8*(1-2), 148-172. doi: 10.1080/03149098509508575

Aditiawarman, M. (2012). Etika, estetika, dan logika dalam berbahasa. *Bahasa dan Seni, 13*(2), 177-186.

Adrefiza, D., & Jones, J. F. (2013). Investigating apology response strategies in Australian English and Bahasa Indonesia: Gender and cultural perspectives. *Australian Review of Applied Linguistics, 36*(1), 71-101.

Afful, J., & Mwinlaaru, I. (2012). When Sir and Madam are not: Address terms and reference terms students use for faculty in a Ghanaian university. *Sociolinguistic Studies, 6*(3), 491-517.

Aggestam, M. (2010). Ethnomethodology. In A. J. Mills, G. Durepos & E. Wiebe (Eds.), *Encyclopedia of case study research* (pp. 352-354). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications, Inc.

Alcon-Soler, E. (2008). Pragmatics in instructed language learning contexts. In E. Alcon-Soler (Ed.), *Learning how to request in an instructed language learning context* (pp. 17-40). Bern: Peter Lang.

Ali, M. N. a., & Alawneh, R. (2010). Linguistic mitigating devices in American and Jordanian students' requests. *Intercultural Pragmatics, 7*(2), 311-339. doi: 10.1515/iprg.2010.014

Anwar, K. (1980). Language use in Minangkabau society. *Indonesia Circle. School of Oriental and African Studies. Newsletter, 8*(22), 55-63. doi: 10.1080/03062848008723789

Austin, J. L. (1962). *How to do things with words*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Aziz, E. (2000). Indonesian speech act realisation in face-threatening situations. *Monash University Linguistics Papers, 2*(2), 15-42.

Baba, J. (1999). *Interlanguage pragmatics: Compliment responses by learners of Japanese and English as a second language*. Munchen: Newcastle: LINCOM Europe.

Bardovi-Harlig, K. (2010). Exploring the pragmatics of interlanguage pragmatics: Definition by design. In A. Trosborg (Ed.), *Pragmatics across languages and cultures* (Vol. 7, pp. 219-259). Berlin: Walter de Gruyter.

Bardovi-Harlig, K., & Hartford, B. S. (1990). Congruence in native and nonnative conversations: Status balance in the academic advising session. *Language Learning, 40*(4), 467-501. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-1770. 1990. tb00603.x

Bardovi-Harlig, K., & Hartford, B. S. (1993). Learning the rules of academic talk: A

longitudinal study of pragmatic change. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 15,* 279-304. doi: 10.1017/S0272263100012122

Bardovi-Harlig, K., & Hartford, B. S. (2005). Institutional discourse and interlanguage pragmatics research. In K. Bardovi-Harlig & B. S. Hartford (Eds.), *Interlanguage pragmatics: Exploring institutional talk* (pp. 7-36). The United States of America: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Bargiela-Chiappini, F., & Harris, S. (1996). Interruptive strategies in British and Italian management meetings. *Text, 16*(3), 269-297.

Bargiela-Chiappini, F. (2003). Face and politeness: New (insights) for old (concepts). *Journal of Pragmatics, 35*(10–11), 1453-1469. doi: 10.1016/S0378-2166(02)00173-X

Bargiela, F., Boz, C., Gokzadze, L., Hamza, A., Mills, S., & Rukhadze, N. (2002). Ethnocentrism, politeness and naming strategies. *Working Papers on the Web, 3.* http://extra.shu.ac.uk/wpw/politeness/bargiela.htm

Barron, A. (2003). *Acquisition in interlanguage pragmatics: Learning how to do things with words in a study abroad context.* Amsterdam, Netherlands: Benjamins.

Barron, A. (2008). Contrasting requests in inner circle Englishes: A study in variational pragmatics. In M. Pütz & J. Neff-van Aertselaer (Eds.), *Developing contrastive pragmatics: Interlanguage and cross-cultural perspectives* (pp. 355-402). Berlin: De Gruyter.

Barron, A. (2012). Interlanguage pragmatics: From use to acquisition to second language pedagogy. *Language Teaching, 45*(1), 44-63. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/S0261444811000462

Barron, A., & Black, E. (2015). Constructing small talk in learner-native speaker voice-based telecollaboration: A focus on topic management and backchanneling. *System, 48*, 112-128. doi: 10.1016/j.system.2014.09.009

Basit, T. (2003). Manual or electronic? The role of coding in qualitative data analysis. *Educational Research, 45*(2), 143-154. doi: 10.1080/0013188032000133548

Bazzanella, C. (2011). Redundancy, repetition, and intensity in discourse. *Language Sciences, 33*(2), 243-254. doi: 10.1016/j.langsci.2010.10.002

Beattie, G. W. (1981). Interruption in conversational interaction, and its relation to the sex and status of the interactants. *Linguistics, 19*(1-2), 15-36. doi: 10.1515/ling.1981.19.1-2.15

Beebe, L.M., Takahashi, T. & Uliss-Weltz, R. (1990). Pragmatic transfer in ESL refusals. In Scarcella, R.C., Andersen, R. and Krashen, S.C. (Eds.), *Developing communicative competence in a second language* (pp. 125-140). New York, NY: Newbury House.

Behnam, B., & Niroomand, M. (2011). An investigation of Iranian EFL learners' use of politeness strategies and power relations in disagreement across different proficiency levels. *English Language Teaching, 4*(4), 204-220. doi: 10.5539/elt.v4n4p204

Bell, D. C., Arnold, H., & Haddock, R. (2009). Linguistic politeness and peer tutoring. *Learning Assistance Review, 14*(1), 37-54.

Bella, S. (2012). Pragmatic development in a foreign language: A study of Greek FL requests. *Journal of Pragmatics*. doi:10.1016/j.pragma.2012.08.014

Beltrán, E. V. (2014). Length of stay abroad: Effects of time on the speech act of requesting. *International Journal of English Studies, 14*(1), 79-96. doi: 10.6018/ijes/14/1/155211

Bennett, A. (1981). Interruptions and the interpretation of conversation. *Discourse Processes, 4*(2), 171-188. doi: 10.1080/01638538109544513

Berg, B. L. (2001). *Qualitative research methods for the social sciences* (4th ed.). Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Berns, M. (2010). *Concise encyclopedia of applied linguistics*. Great Britain: Elsevier Ltd.

Bialystock, E. (1993). Symbolic representation and attentional control in pragmatic competence. In G. Kasper & S. Blum-Kulka (Eds.), *Interlanguage pragmatics* (pp. 43-57). New York: Oxford University Press.

Blum-Kulka, S. (1987). Indirectness and politeness in requests: Same or different? *Journal of Pragmatics, 11*(2), 131-146. doi: 10.1016/0378-2166(87)90192-5

Blum-Kulka, S. (1990). You don't touch lettuce with your fingers: Parental politeness in family discourse. *Journal of Pragmatics, 14*, 259-288. doi: 10.1016/0378-2166(90)90083-P

Blum-Kulka, S. (1991). Interlanguage pragmatics: The case of requests. In R. Phillipson, E. Kellerman,M. Sharwood Smith and M. Swain (Eds.), *Foreign/second language pedagogy research* (pp. 255–272). Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Blum-Kulka, S. (2005). The metapragmatics of politeness in Israeli society. In R. J. Watts, S. Ide & K. Ehlich (Eds.), *Politeness in language: Studies in its history, theory and practice* (pp. 255-280). Berlin/New York: Walter de Gruyter.

Blum-Kulka, S., Danet, B., & Gherson, R. (1985). The language of requesting in Israeli society. In J. P. Forgas (Ed.), *Language and social situations* (pp. 113-136). New York: Springer-Verlag.

Blum-Kulka, S., House, J., & Kasper, G. (1989a). Investigating cross-cultural pragmatics: Requests and apologies. In S. Blum-Kulka, J. House, & G. Kasper,

(Eds), *Cross-cultural pragmatics: Requests and apologies* (Vol. 31, pp. 1-34). Norwood, N.J: Ablex Pub. Corp.

Blum-Kulka, S., House, J., & Kasper, G. (1989b). The CCSARP coding manual. In S. Blum-Kulka, J. House, & G. Kasper, (Eds), *Cross-cultural pragmatics: Requests and apologies* (Vol. 31, pp. 273-294). Norwood, N.J: Ablex Pub. Corp.

Blum-Kulka, S., House, J., & Kasper, G. (1989c). *Cross-cultural pragmatics: Requests and apologies*. Norwood, N.J: Ablex Pub. Corp.

Blum-Kulka, S., & Olshtain, E. (1984). Requests and apologies: A cross-cultural study of speech act realization patterns (CCSARP). *Applied Linguistics, 5*(3), 196-213. doi: 10.1093/applin/5.3.196

Blum-Kulka, S., & Olshtain, E. (1986). Too many words: Length of utterance and pragmatic failure. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 8*(02), 165-179. doi: doi:10.1017/S0272263100006069

Bowe, H., & Martin, K. (2007). *Communication across cultures: Mutual understanding in a global world*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Bowe, H., Martin, K., & Manns, H. (2014). *Communication across cultures: Mutual understanding in a global world* (2nd ed.). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Brown, P., & Levinson, S. (1978). Universals in language usage: Politeness phenomena. In E. N. Goody (Ed.), *Questions and politeness: Strategies in social interaction* (pp. 56-310). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Brown, P., & Levinson, S. C. (1987). *Politeness: Some universals in language usage*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Brown, R., & Gilman, A. (1960). The pronouns of power and solidarity. In T. Sebeok, (Ed.) *Style in language* (pp. 253-276). Cambridge, Mass.: MIT Press.

Bryman, A. (2004). *Social research methods* (2nd ed.). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Celce-Murcia, M., and Larsen-Freeman, D. (1999). *The grammar book: An ESL/EFL teacher's course* (2nd ed.). Boston: Heinle & Heinle.

Chen, Y.-s. (2015). Developing Chinese EFL learners' email literacy through requests to faculty. *Journal of Pragmatics, 75*(0), 131-149. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2014.05.009

Clark, H. H., & Krych, M. A. (2004). Speaking while monitoring addressees for understanding. *Journal of Memory and Language, 50*(1), 62-81. doi: 10.1016/j.jml.2003.08.004

Clyne, M. (2009). Address in intercultural communication across languages. *Intercultural pragmatics, 6*(3), 395-409. doi: 10.1515/IPRG.2009.020

Cogo, A., & Dewey, M. (2012). *Analysing English as a lingua franca: A Corpus-driven investigation*. London: Continuum International Publishing.

Cohen, A. D. (1996). Speech acts. In S. McKay & N. H. Hornberger (Eds.), *Sociolinguistics and language teaching* (pp. 383-420). New York: Cambridge University Press.

Coulon, A. (1995). *Ethnomethodology*. Thousand Oaks, Calif. London: SAGE

Coulthard, M., & Brazil, D. (2002). Exchange structure. In M. Coulthard (Ed.), *Advances in spoken discourse analysis* (pp. 50-78). Hoboken: Taylor and Francis.

Cresswell, J. W. (Ed.). (2002). *Educational research: Planning, conducting, and evaluating quantitative and qualitative research*. New Jersey: Merrill Prentice Hall.

Creswell, J. W. (2009). *Research design : qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, Calif.: Sage Publications.

Cresswell, J. W. (2012). *Educational research: Planning, conducting, and evaluating quantitative and qualitative research*. United State of America: Pearson Education, Inc.

Crystal, D. (1985). *A dictionary of linguistics and phonetics* (2nd ed.). Oxford: Blackwell.

Crouch, S. E. (2009). Voice and verb morphology in Minangkabau, a language of West Sumatra, Indonesia. Master Thesis. http://hdl.handle.net/11858/00-001M-0000-0011-56E1-6

Curl, T. S., & Drew, P. (2008). Contingency and action: A comparison of two forms of requesting. *Research on Language and Social Interaction, 41*(2), 129-153. doi: 10.1080/08351810802028613

Cutrone, P. (2005). A case study examining backchannels in conversations between Japanese–British dyads. *Multilingua: Journal of Cross-Cultural and Interlanguage Communication, 24*(3), 237-274. doi: 10.1515/mult.2005.24.3.237

Cutrone, P. (2014). A cross-cultural examination of the backchannel behavior of Japanese and Americans: Considerations for Japanese EFL learners. *Intercultural Pragmatics, 11*(1), 83-120. doi: 10.1515/ip-2014-0004

Dalton-Puffer, C. (2005). Negotiating interpersonal meanings in naturalistic classroom discourse: Directives in content-and-language-integrated classrooms. *Journal of Pragmatics, 37*(8 SPEC. ISS.), 1275-1293. doi: 10.1016/j.pragma.2004.12.002

Dalton-Puffer, C. (2007). *Discourse in content and language integrated learning (CLIL) classrooms*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins Pub.

Dalton-Puffer, C., & Nikula, T. (2006). Pragmatics of content-based Instruction: Teacher and student directives in Finnish and Austrian classrooms. *Applied Linguistics, 27*(2), 241-267. doi: 10.1093/applin/aml007

Davidson, J. (1984). Subsequent versions of invitations, offers, requests, and proposals dealing with potential or actual rejection. In J. M. Atkinson & J. Heritage (Eds.), *Structures of social action: Studies in conversation analysis* (pp. 102-128). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Decapua, A., & Dunham, F. (2007). The pragmatics of advice giving: Cross-cultural perspectives. *Intercultural Pragmatics, 4*(3), 319-342. doi: 10.1515/IP.2007.016

Deen, J. (1997). *Dealing with problems in intercultural communication: A study of negotiation of meaning in native-non-native speaker interaction*. Tilburg, Netherlands: Tilburg University Press.

Delima, R. (2014). *Strategi kesantunan berbahasa penutur keluarga Minangkabau pada langgam kato mandaki-manurun di Kecamatan Sungai Geringging Kabupaten Padang Pariaman dan perancangannya sebagai bahan ajar keterampilan berbicara.* Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia. http://repository.upi.edu/12488/

Deng, X. (2008). The use of listener responses in Mandarin Chinese and Australian English conversations. *Pragmatics, 18*(2), 303-328. doi: 10.1075/prag.18.2

Denzin, N. K., & Lincoln, Y. S. (1994). Introduction: Entering the field of qualitative research. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research* (pp. 1-17). United States of America: Sage Publications, Inc.

Denzin, N. K., & Lincoln, Y. S. (2008). Introduction: The discipline and practice of qualitative research. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Strategies of qualitative inquiry* (pp. 1-43). United States of America: Sage Publication, Inc.

Don, Z. M., & Izadi, A. (2013). Interactionally achieving face in criticism–criticism response exchanges. *Language and Communication, 33*(3), 221-231. doi: 10.1016/j.langcom.2013.05.003

Donohue, W. A., & Diez, M. E. (1985). Directive use in negotiation interaction. *Communication Monographs, 52*(4) 305-318. doi: 10.1080/03637758509376114

Drew, P. (2013). Turn design. In J. Sidnell & T. Strivers (Ed.), *The handbook of conversation analysis* (pp. 131-149). Chichester, West Sussex, UK: Wiley-Blackwell.

Drew, P., & Heritage, J. (1992). Analysing talk at work: An introduction. In P. Drew & J. Heritage (Eds.), *Talk at work: Interaction in institutional settings* (pp. 3-65). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press

DuFon, M.-A. (2000). *The acquisition of linguistic politeness in Indonesian as a second language by soujourners in naturalistic interactions.* University Hawaii.

DuFon, M. A. (2010). The acqustion of terms of address in a second language. In A. Trosborg (Ed.), *Pragmatics across languages and cultures* (Vol. 7, pp. 309-331). Berlin: Walter de Gruyter.

Dumitrescu, D. (2008). Interrogative Allo-repetitions in Mexican Spanish: Discourse functions and (im)politeness strategies. *Pragmatics, 18*(4), 659-680. doi: 10.1075/prag.18.4

Dunn, C. D. (2011). Formal forms or verbal strategies? Politeness theory and Japanese business etiquette training. *Journal of Pragmatics, 43*(15), 3643-3654. doi: 10.1016/j.pragma.2011.06.003

Economidou-Kogetsidis, M. (2002). Requesting strategies in English and Greek: Observations from an airline's call centre. *The Nottingham Linguistic Circular, 17*, 17-32. Retrieved from www.nottingham.ac.uk/research/groups/cral/documents/nlc/nlc-2000-2004/nlc-volume17-2002.pdf#page=21

Economidou-Kogetsidis, M. (2005). 'Yes, tell me please, what time is the midday flight from Athens arriving?': Telephone service encounters and politeness. *Intercultural pragmatics, 2*(3), 253-273. doi: 10.1515/iprg.2005.2.3.253

Economidou-Kogetsidis, M. (2008). Internal and external mitigation in interlanguage request production: The case of Greek learners of English. *Journal of Politeness Research. Language, Behaviour, Culture*, 4, 111-138. doi: 10.1515/PR.2008.005,

Economidou-Kogetsidis, M. (2010). Cross-cultural and situational variation in requesting behaviour: Perceptions of social situations and strategic usage of request patterns. *Journal of Pragmatics, 42*(8), 2262-2281. doi: 10.1016/j.pragma.2010.02.001

Economidou-Kogetsidis, M. (2012). Modifying oral requests in a foreign language: The case of Greek Cypriot learners of English. In M. Economidou-Kogetsidis & H. Woodfield (Eds.), *Interlanguage request modification* (pp. 163-201). Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing. Co.

Economidou-Kogetsidis, M. (2013). Strategies, modification and perspective in native speakers' requests: A comparison of WDCT and naturally occurring requests. *Journal of Pragmatics, 53*(0), 21-38. doi: 10.1016/j.pra gma.2013.03.014

Ellis, R. (1994). *The study of second language acquisition*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Ervin-Tripp, S. (1976). Is Sybil there? The structure of some American English directives. *Language in Society, 5*(1), 25-66. doi: 10.2307/4166849

Faerch, C., & G. Kasper. (1989). 'Internal and external modification in interlanguage request realisation.' In S. Blum-Kulka, J. House & G. Kasper (Eds.) *Cross-cultural pragmatics: Request and apologies* (pp. 221-247). New Jersay: Ablex.

Fairclough, N. (1989). *Language and Power*. London: Longman.

Farley, S. (2008). Attaining status at the expense of likeability: Pilfering power through conversational interruption. *Journal of Nonverbal Behavior, 32*(4), 241-260. doi: 10.1007/s10919-008-0054-x

Félix-Brasdefer, J. C. (2007). Pragmatic development in the Spanish as a FL classroom: A cross-sectional study of learner requests. *Intercultural Pragmatics, 4*(2), 253-286. doi: 10.1515/IP.2007.013

Félix-Brasdefer, J. C. (2008). *Politeness in Mexico and the United States: A contrastive study of the realization and perception of refusals*. Amsterdam, NLD: John Benjamins Publishing Company.

Feng, H., Hang, H.-C., & Holt, R. (2011). Examining Chinese gift-giving behaviour from the politeness theory perspective. *Asian Journal of Communication, 21*(3), 301-317. doi: 10.1080/01292986.2011.559257

Fraenkel, J. R., Wallen, N. E., & Hyun, H. H. (2011). *How to design and evaluate research in education* (8th ed.) New York: The Mc Graw-Hill

Francis, G., & Hunston, S. (2002). Analysing everyday conversation. In M. Coulthard (Ed.), *Advances in spoken discourse analysis* (pp. 123-161): Hoboken: Taylor and Francis.

Fraser, B. (1990). Perspectives on politeness. *Journal of Pragmatics, 14 (2)*, 219-236. doi: 10.1016/0378-2166(90)90081-N

Fraser, B., & Nolen, W. (1981). The association of deference with linguistic form. *International Journal of the Sociology of Language, 1981*(27), 93-110. doi: 10.1515/ijsl.1981.27.93, October 2009

Fukada, A., & Asato, N. (2004). Universal politeness theory: Application to the use of Japanese honorifics. *Journal of Pragmatics, 36*(11), 1991-2002. doi: 10.1016/j.pragma.2003.11.006

Fukushima, S. (2003). *Requests and culture: Politeness in British English and Japanese*. Bern: Peter Lang.

Gallois, C., & Callan, V. J. (1991). Interethnic accommodation: The role of norms. In H. Giles, J. Coupland & N. Coupland (Eds.), *Contexts of accommodation: Developments in applied sociolinguistics* (pp. 245-269). New York: Cambridge University Press.

Gardner, R. (2001). *When listeners talk: Response tokens and listener stance*. Amsterdam: J. Benjamins Publishing Company.

Geertz, C. (1973). *The interpretation of cultures: selected essays.* New York: Basic Books.

Geertz, H. (1961). *The Javanese family: A study of kinship and socialization.* New York: Free Press of Glencoe.

Geertz, C. (1976). *The religion of Java.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Georgalidou, M. (2008). The contextual parameters of linguistic choice: Greek children's preferences for the formation of directive speech acts. *Journal of Pragmatics, 40*(1), 72-94. doi: 10.1016/j.pragma.2007.08.009

Giles, H., Bourhis, R.Y.,& Taylor,D. (1977). Toward a theory of language in ethnic group relations. In H. Giles (Ed.), *Language, ethnicity and intergroup relations* (pp. 307-348). London: Academic Press.

Giles, H., Coupland, N., & Coupland, J. (1991). Accomodation theory: Communication, context, and consequence. In H. Giles, J. Coupland & N. Coupland (Eds.), *Contexts of accommodation: Developments in applied sociolinguistics* (pp. 1-68). United States of America: Cambridge University Press.

Goffman, E. (1967). *Interaction ritual: Essays in* face-to-face *behaviour*. New York: Doubleday.

Goffman, E. (2003). On face-work: An analysis of ritual elements in social interaction. *Reflections: The SoL Journal, 4*(3), 7-13. doi: 10.1162/15241730360580159

Golato, A. (2003). Studying compliment responses: A comparison of DCTs and recordings of naturally occurring talk. *Applied Linguistics, 24*(1), 90 - 121. doi:10.1093/applin/24.1.90

Goldberg, J. A. (1990). Interrupting the discourse on interruptions: An analysis in terms of relationally neutral, power- and rapport-oriented acts. *Journal of Pragmatics, 14*(6), 883-903. doi: 10.1016/0378-2166(90)90045-F

Göy, E., Zeyrek, D., & Otcu, B. (2012). Developmental patterns in internal modification of requests: A quantitative study on Turkish learners of English. In M. Economidou-Kogetsidis & H. Woodfield (Eds.), *Interlanguage request modification* (pp. 51-86). Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Company.

Grainger, K. (2011). 'First order' and 'second order' politeness: Institutional and intercultural contexts. In L. P. R. Group (Ed.), *Discursive approaches to politeness* (pp. 167-188). Berlin, Germany: Mouton de Gruyter.

Greer, T., Bussinguer, A., Butterfield, J., & Mischinger, A. (2009). Receipt through repetition. *JALT journal, 31*(1), 5-34.

Grice, H. P. ([1975] 2009). Logic and conversation. In A. P. Martinich (Ed.), *Philosophy of language: Critical concepts in philosophy* (Vol. IV, pp. 18 - 32). London: Routledge Taylor and Francis Group.

Gu, Y. (1990). Politeness phenomena in modern Chinese. *Journal of Pragmatics, 14*(2), 237-257. doi: 10.1016/0378-2166(90)90082-o

Guba, E. G., & Lincoln, Y. S. (1994). Competing paradigms in qualitative research. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research* (pp. 163-194). United State of America: Sage Publications, Inc.

Guillot, M. (2011). Interruption in advanced learner French: Issues of pragmatic discrimination. In K. Aijmer (Ed.), *Contrastive pragmatics* (pp. 97-121). Amsterdam, Netherlands: John Benjamins Publishing Company.

Guillot, M. (2012). Conversational management and pragmatic discrimination in foreign talk: Overlap in advanced L2 French. *Intercultural Pragmatics, 9*(3), 307-333. doi: 10.1515/ip-2012-0019

Gunarwan, A. (2001). The speech act of criticizing among speakers of Javanese. In K.L. Adams, & T.J. Hudak (Eds.), *Papers from the Sixth Annual Meeting of the Southeast Asian Linguistics Society* (pp. 171-191). Tempe, Arizona: Program for Southeast Asian Studies, Arizona State University.

Hammersley, M. (2010). Reproducing or constructing? Some questions about transcription in social research. *Qualitative Research, 10*(5), 553 - 569. doi: 10.1177/1468794110375230

Hasegawa, Y. (2012). Against the social constructionist account of Japanese politeness. *Journal of Politeness Research: Language, Behavior, Culture, 8*(2), 245-268. doi:10.1515/pr-2012-0014

Hassall, T. (1999). Request strategies in Indonesian 1. *Pragmatics, 9*(4), 585-606.

Hassall, T. (2001a). Do learners thank too much in Indonesian? *Australian Review of Applied Linguistics, 24*(2), 97-112.

Hassall, T. (2001b). Modifying requests in a second language 1. *IRAL, International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching, 39*(4), 259-283. doi:10.1515/iral.2001.005

Hassall, T. (2003). Requests by Australian learners of Indonesian. *Journal of Pragmatics, 35*, 1903 - 1928 doi: 10.1016/S0378-2166(03)00115-2

Hassall, T. (2012). Request modification by Australian leaners of Indonesia. In M. Economidou-Kogetsidis & H. Woodfield (Eds.), *Interlanguage request modification* (pp. 203-242). Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Company.

Hassall, T. (2013). Pragmatic development during short-term study abroad: The case of address terms in Indonesian. *Journal of Pragmatics, 55*, 1-17. doi: 10.1016/j.pragma.2013.05.003

Haugh, M. (2010). Intercultural (im)politeness and micro-macro issue. In A. Trosborg (Ed.), *Pragmatics across languages and cultures* (pp. 139-167). Berlin: De Gruyter Mouton.

Haugh, M. (2013). Im/politeness, social practice and the participation order. *Journal of Pragmatics, 58*, 52-72. doi: 10.1016/j.pragma.2013.07.003

Hayashi, T. (1996). Politeness in conflict management: A conversation analysis of dispreferred message from a cognitive perspective. *Journal of Pragmatics, 25*(2), 227-255. doi: 10.1016/0378-2166(94)00080-8

Heath, C., P. Luff (1993) 'Explicating face-to-face interaction'. In N. Gilbert (Ed.), *Researching social life* (pp. 306–326). London: Sage

Heath, C., Hindmarsh, J., & Luff, P. (2010). *Video in qualitative research: Analysing social interaction in everyday life*. London: SAGE Publication Ltd.

Heider, K. G. (1991). *Landscapes of emotion: Mapping three cultures of emotion in Indonesia*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Heinz, B. (2003). Backchannel responses as strategic responses in bilingual speakers' conversations. *Journal of Pragmatics, 35*(7), 1113-1142. doi: 10.1016/S0378-2166(02)00190-X

Hesse-Biber, S. N. (2006). *The practice of qualitative research.* Thousand Oaks: SAGE Publications.

Hofstede, G. H. (1991). *Cultures and organizations: Software of the mind.* London: McGraw-Hill.

Holmes, J. (1990). Apologies in New Zealand English. *Language in Society*, 19 (1), 155–199. doi:10.2307_4168131

Holmes, J. (1995). *Women, men and politeness*. New York: Longman.

Holmes, J., Marra, M., & Vine, B. (2012). Politeness and impoliteness in ethnic varieties of New Zealand English. *Journal of Pragmatics, 44, 1063-1076*. doi: 10.1016/j.pragma.2011.11.006

Houck, N., & Gass, S. M. (1999). *Interlanguage refusals: A cross-cultural study of Japanese-English*. Berlin: Walter de Gruyter.

House, J. (1989). Politeness in English and German, the functions of "please" and "bitte". In S. Blum-Kulka, J. House & G. Kasper (Eds.), *Cross-cultural pragmatics: Requests and apologies* (pp. 96-119). Noorwood, N.J: Ablex.

House, J., & Kasper, G. (1981). Politeness markers in English and German. In F. Coulmas (Ed.), *Conversational routine: explorations in standardized communication situations and prepatterned speech* (pp. 157-185). The Hague: Mouton.

Hudson, M. E. (2011). Student honorifics usage in conversations with professors. *Journal of Pragmatics, 43*(15), 3689-3706. doi: 10.1016/j.pragma.2011.09.004

Hutchby, I. (1992). Confrontation talk: Aspects of 'interruption' in argument sequences on talk radio. *Text-Interdisciplinary Journal for the Study of Discourse, 12*(3), 343-372. doi:10.1515/text.1.1992.12.3.343

Hutchby, I. (2007). *Discourse of child counselling*. Amsterdam, NLD: John Benjamins Publishing Company.

Hutchby, I. (2008). Participants' orientations to interruptions, rudeness and other impolite acts in talk-in-interaction. *Journal of Politeness Research: Language, Behavior, Culture, 4*(2), 221-241. doi: 10.1515/JPLR.2008.011

Hutchby, I., & Wooffitt, R. (2002). *Conversation analysis: Principles, practices, and application.* Cambridge: Polity.

Hymes, Dell. (1972). Models of the interaction of language and social life. In J.J. Gumperz, D. Hymes, (Eds.), *Direction in sociolinguistics* (pp. 35-71). New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston.

Ide, S. (1989). Formal forms and discernment: Two neglected aspects of universals of linguistic politeness. *Multilingua, 8* (nos 2/3), 223-238.

Ilie, C. (2010). Strategic uses of parliamentary forms of address: The case of the U.K. Parliament and the Swedish Riksdag. *Journal of Pragmatics, 42*(4), 885-911. doi: 10.1016/j.pragma.2009.08.017

Ishihara, N. (2010). Curriculum writing for L2 pragmatics: Principles and practice in the teaching of L2 pragmatics. In N. Ishihara and A.D. Cohen, *Teaching and learning pragmatics: Where language and culture meet* (pp. 201-223). Great Britain: Pearson Education Limited.

Ishihara, N., & Cohen, A. D. (2010). *Teaching and learning pragmatics: Where language and culture meet*. Great Britain: Pearson Education Limited.

Itakura, H. (2001). Describing conversational dominance. *Journal of Pragmatics: An Interdisciplinary Journal of Language Studies, 33*(12), 1859-1880. doi: 10.1016/S0378-2166(00)00082-5

Iwai, T. (2007). Becoming a good conversationalist: Pragmatic development of JFL learners. *Selected Papers from Pragmatics in the CJK Classroom: The state of the art*. http://nflrc.hawaii.edu/CJKProceedings

Jalilifar, A. A. (2009). Request strategies: Cross-sectional study of Iranian EFL learners and Australian native speakers. *English Language Teaching, 2*(1), 46-61. doi:10.5539/elt.v2n1p46

Johns, A. & Félix-Brasdefer, J. (2015). Linguistic politeness and pragmatic variation in request production in Dakar French. *Special Issue: Politeness in Africa. Journal of Politeness Research*, 11(1), pp. 131-164. doi:10.1515/pr-2015-0006

Johns, Y. (1985). Politeness in the Indonesian language: Knowing the right thing to say. *Indonesia Circle. School of Oriental & African Studies. Newsletter, 13*(38), 3-14. doi: 10.1080/03062848508729619

Johnson, R. B., & Onwuegbuzie, A. J. (2004). Mixed methods research: A research paradigm whose time has come. *Educational Researcher, 33*(7), 14-26. doi: 10.2307/3700093

Johnstone, B. (1994). Repetition in discourse: A dialogue. In B. Johnstone (Ed.), *Repetition in discourse: Interdisciplinary perspectives* (pp. 1-20). Norwood, N.J.: Ablex Pub. Co.

Johnstone, B. (2008). *Discourse analysis* (2nd ed.). Oxford: Blackwell.

Kasanga, L. A. (1998). *Requests in English by second-language users. ITL. Institut voor Togepaste Linguistik* (119-20), 123-153. http://cat.inist.fr/?aModele=afficheN&cpsidt=2458934

Kasanga, L. A. (2006). Requests in a South African variety of English. *World Englishes, 25*(1), 65-89. doi:10.1111/j.0083-2919.2006.00447.x

Kasper, G. (1992). Pragmatic transfer. *Second Language Research, 8*(3), 203-231. doi: 10.1177/026765839200800303

Kasper, G. (1996). Introduction: Interlanguage pragmatics in SLA. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 18*(02), 145-148. doi: 10.1017/S0272263100014856

Kasper, G. (1998). Interlanguage pragmatics. In H. Byrnes (Ed.), *Learning foreign and second languages* (pp. 183-208). New York: Modern Language Association.

Kasper, G. (2000). Data collection in pragmatics research. In H. Spencer-Oatey (Ed.), *Culturally speaking: Managing rapport through talk across cultures* (pp. 316 - 341). London and New York: Continuum.

Kasper, G., & Blum-Kulka, S. (1993). Interlanguage pragmatics: An introduction. In G. Kasper & S. Blum-Kulka (Eds.), *Interlanguage Pragmatics* (pp. 3-20). New York: Oxford University Press.

Kasper, G., & Dahl, M. (1991). Research methods in interlanguage pragmatics. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 13*(2), 215 - 247. doi: 10.1017/S0272263100009955

Kasper, G., & Schmidt, R. (1996). Developmental issues in interlanguage pragmatics. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 18*(2), 149 - 169. doi: 10.1017/S0272263100014868

Khalib, F. M., & Tayeh, A. (2014). Indirectness in English requests among Malay university students. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences, 134*(0), 44-52. doi: 10.1016/j.sbspro.2014.04.223

King, J. (2011). Power and indirectness in business correspondence: Petitions in Colonial Louisiana Spanish. *Journal of Politeness Research, 7*, 259-283. doi: 10.1515/JPLR.2011.013

Kitamura, N. (2000). *Adapting Brown and Levinson's 'politeness' theory to the analysis of casual conversation.* Paper presented at the Proceedings of ALS2k, the 2000 Conference of the Australian Linguistic Society. http://alsasn.server322.com/proceedings/als2000/kitamura.pdf

Kitzinger, C. (2013). Repair. In J. Sidnell & T. Stivers (Eds.), *The handbook of conversation analysis* (pp. 229-256). Chichester, West Sussex, UK: Wiley-Blackwell.

Knox, L. (1994). Repetition and relevance: Self-repetition as a strategy for initiating cooperation in non-native/native speaker conversations. In B. Johnstone (Ed.), *Repetition in discourse interdisciplinary perspectives* (Vol. 1, pp. 195-206). Noorwood, New Jersey: Ablex Publishing Corporation.

Koike, D. A. (1989). Pragmatic competence and adult L2 acquisition: Speech acts in interlanguage. *Modern Language Journal, 73*(3), 279-289. doi: 10.1111/j.1540-4781.1989.tb06364.x

Konakahara, M. (2015). An analysis overlapping questions in casual ELF conversation: Cooperative or competitive contribution. *Journal of Pragmatics, 84*(0), 37-53. doi: 0.1016/j.pragma.2015.04.014

Krathwohl, D. R. (1993). *Methods of educational and social science research: An integrated approach*. New York: Longman.

Kuntjara, E. (2001). Gender in Javanese Indonesian. In M. Hellinger & H. Bussmann (Eds.), *Gender across languages: The linguistic representation of women and men* (Vol. 3, pp. 199-227). Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Co.

Koentjaraningrat, R. M. (1985). *Javanese culture.* Singapore: Institute of Southeast Asian Studies, Oxford University Press.

Kurhila, S. (2001). Correction in talk between native and non-native speaker. *Journal of Pragmatics, 33*(7), 1083-1110. doi: 10.1016/S0378-2166(00)00048-5

Lakoff, R. (1973). *The logic of politeness: or, minding your p's and q's'.* Paper presented at the the ninth regional meeting of the Chicago Linguistic Society, 9, 292-305.

Lakoff, R. (1990). *Talking power: The politic of language in our lives*. Glassgow: Harper Collins.

Lambertz, K. (2011). Back-channelling: The use of *yeah* and *mm* to portray engaged listenership. *Griffith Working Papers in Pragmatics and Intercultural Communication,4*,11-18.https://cms-dev.itc.griffith.edu.au/data/assets/pdf_file/0005/384017/Lambertz-backchannelling.pdf

Lampert, M. D., & Ervin-Tripp, S. M. (1993). Structured coding for the study of language and social interaction. In J. A. Edwards & M. D. Lampert (Eds.), *Talking data: Transcription and coding in discourse research* (pp. 169-206).Hillsdale, N.J.: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Lee, C. (2005). A cross-linguistic study on the linguistic expressions of Cantonese and English requests. *Pragmatics: Quarterly Publication of the International Pragmatics Association, 15*(4), 395-422.

Lee, C. (2011). Strategy and linguistic preference of requests by Cantonese learners of English: An interlanguage and crosscultural comparison. *Multilingua, 30*, 99 - 129. doi: 10.1515/mult.2011.005

Leech, G. (1980). *Explorations in semantics and pragmatics*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Company.

Leech, G. (1983). *Principles of pragmatics*. London: Longman.

Leech, G. (2007). Politeness: Is there an East-West divide? *Journal of Politeness Research: Language, Behavior, Culture, 3*(2), 167-206. doi: 10.1515/PR.2007.009

Lerner, G. H. (2003). Selecting next speaker: The context-sensitive operation of a context-free organization. *Language in Society, 32*(2), 177-201. doi: 10.2307_4169255

Levinson, S. C. (1983). *Pragmatics*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Li, H. (2001). Cooperative and intrusive interruptions in inter- and intracultural dyadic discourse. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology, 20*(3), 259-284. doi: 10.1177/0261927X01020003001

Li, S. (2014). "The effects of different levels of linguistic proficiency on the development of L2 Chinese request production during study abroad." *System, 45*(0): 103-116. doi: 10.1016/j.system.2014.05.001

Li, H. Z., Yum, Y.-o., Yates, R., Aguilera, L., Mao, Y., & Zheng, Y. (2005). Interruption and involvement in discourse: Can intercultural interlocutors be trained? *Journal of Intercultural Communication Research, 34*(4), 233-254.

Liddicoat, A., Brown, A., Dopke, S., & Love, K. (1992). The effect of the institution: Openings in talkback radio. *Text, 12*(4), 541-562. doi: 10.1515/text.1.1992.12.4.541

Liddicoat, A. J. (2011). *An introduction to conversation analysis*. New York: Continuum International Publishing Group.

Lilja, N. (2014). Partial repetitions as other-initiations of repair in second language talk: Re-establishing understanding and doing learning. *Journal of Pragmatics, 71*(0), 98-116. doi: 10.1016/j.pragma.2014.07.011

Lin, Y.-H. (2009). Query preparatory modals: Cross-linguistic and cross-situational variations in request modification. *Journal of Pragmatics: An Interdisciplinary Journal of Language Studies, 41*(8), 1636-1656. doi: 10.1016/j.pragma.2008.12.007

Lo, A., & Howard, K. M. (2009). Mobilizing respect and politeness in classrooms. *Linguistics and Education, 20*(3), 211-216. doi: 10.1016/j.linged.2009.07.001

Locher, M., & Watts, R. (2005). *Power and politeness in action: Disagreement in oral communication (language, power, and social process, 12)*. Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.

Maeshiba, N., Yoshinaga, N., kasper, G., & Ross,s. (1996. Transfer and proficiency in interlanguage apologying. In S. M. Gass & J. Neu (Eds). *Speech Acts across cultures: Challenges to communication in second language* (pp. 155-187). Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.

Manaf, N. A. (2005). *Realisasi strategi kesantunan direktif di dalam bahasa Indonesia di kalangan anggota kelompok etnis Minangkabau di Padang.* University of Indonesia. Retrieved from http://lib.ui.ac.id/detail.jsp?id=83497&lokasi=lokal

Marni, S. (2013). Pelestarian bahasa Minangkabau sebagai pembentuk pribadi yang santun. pp. 1-7. http://indonesia.stkip-pgri- sumbar.ac.id/index.php/berita-dan-artikel/3

Marti, F., Ortega, P., Idiazabal, I., Barrena, A., Juaristi, P., Junyent, C., Amorrortu, E. (2005). *Words and worlds: World languages review*. Toronto: Multilingual Matters LTD.

Marti, L. (2006). Indirectness and politeness in Turkish–German bilingual and Turkish monolingual requests. *Journal of Pragmatics, 38*(11), 1836-1869. doi: 10.1016/j.pragma.2005.05.009

Martiny, T. (1996). Forms of address in French and Dutch: A sociopragmatic approach. *Language Sciences, 18*(3–4), 765-775. doi: 10.1016/S0388-0001(96)00046-0

Matsumoto, Y. (1989). Politeness and conversational universal: Observations from Japanese. *Multilingua, 8*, 207-221. doi: 10.1515/mult.1989.8.2-3.207

Maynard, S. (1997). Analyzing interactional management in native/non-native English conversation: A case of listener response. *IRAL- International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching, 35*(1), 37-60. doi: 10.1515/iral.1997.35.1.37

McIntire, M. L. (1972). Terms of address in an academic setting. *Anthropological Linguistics, 14*(7), 286-291. doi: 10.2307/30029111

Meier, A. J. (1995). Defining politeness: Universality in appropriateness. *Language Sciences, 17*(4), 345-356. doi: 10.1016/0388-0001(95)00019-4

Merriam, S. B. (1990). *Case study research in education: A qualitative research* (3rd ed.). San Francisco: Jossey - Bass Publishers.

Merriam, S. B. (1998). *Qualitative research and case study applications in education* (2nd ed.). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

Merrison, A. J., Wilson, J. J., Davies, B. L., & Haugh, M. (2012). Getting stuff done: Comparing e-mail requests from students in higher education in Britain and Australia. *Journal of Pragmatics, 44*(9), 1077-1098. doi:10.1016/j.pragma.2012.05.009

Mey, J. L. (2001). *Pragmatics: An introduction* (2 ed.). Victoria, Australia: Blackwell Publishing.

Mondada, L. (2012). Video analysis and temporality of inscription within social interaction: The case of architects at work. *Qualitative Research, 12*(3), 304 - 333. doi: 10.1177/1468794112438149

Montolalu, L. R., & Suryadinata, L. (2007). Nation language and nation building: The case of Bahasa Indonesia. In H. G. Lee & L. Suryadinata (Eds.), *Language, nation and development in Southeast Asia* (pp. 57 - 68). Singapore: Institute of Southeast Asia Studies.

Morgan, M. (2010). The presentation of indirectness and power in everyday life. *Journal of Pragmatics, 42*(2), 283-291. doi: 10.1016/j.pragma.2009.06.011

Moussay, G. (1998). *Tata bahasa Minangkabau*. Jakarta: Kepustakaan Populer Gramedia.

Munandar, M. I., & Ulwiyah, I. (2012). Intercultural approaches to the cultural content of Indonesia's high school ELT textbooks. *Cross-Cultural Communication, 8*(5), 67-73. doi: 10.3968/j.ccc.1923670020120805.975

Murata, K. (1994). Intrusive or co-operative? A cross-cultural study of interruption. *Journal of Pragmatics, 21*(4), 385-400. doi: 10.1016/0378-2166(94)90011-6

Murata, K. (1995). Repetitions: A cross-cultural study. *World Englishes, 14*(3), 343-356. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-971X.1995.tb00078.x

Nadar, F. X. (1998). Indonesian learners' requests in English: A speech-act based study. *Humaniora, 9*, 61-69. http://www.journal.ugm.ac.id/index.php/jurnal-humaniora/article/view/2045

Nadar, F. X. (1999). Transfer of Javanese culture in the production of English utterances and its possible impact on inter-cultural interaction. *Humaniora, 11*, 1-6. http://journal.ugm.ac.id/index.php/jurnal-humaniora/article/view/657

Nadar, F., Wijana, I. D. P., Poedjosoedarmo, S., & Djawanai, S. (2005). Penolakan dalam Bahasa Inggris dan Bahasa Indonesia. *Jurnal Humaniora, 17*(2), 166-178. http://journal.ugm.ac.id/index.php/jurnal-humaniora/article/view/842

Nadar, F. (2007). The prominent characteristics of Javanese culture and their reflections in language use. *Jurnal Humaniora, 19*(2), 168-174. http://jurnal.ugm.ac.id/index.php/jurnal-humaniora/article/view/901

Nelson, G. L., Carson, J., Al-Batal, M., El Bakary, W. (2002). Cross-cultural pragmatics: Strategy use in Egyptian Arabic and American English. *Applied Linguistics 23*(2), 163–189. doi: 10.1093/applin/23.2.163

Nguyen, T. T. M., & Basturkmen, H. (2013). Requesting in Vietnamese as a second language. In C. Roever & H.T. Nguyen (Eds), *Pragmatics of Vietnamese as a native and target language* (pp. 13-75). Honolulu, HI: University of Hawai'i, National Foreign Language Resource Center.

Nikula, T. (2008). Learning pragmatics in content-based classrooms. In E. Alcun Soler & A. Martinez-Flor (Eds.), *Investigating pragmatics in foreign language learning, teaching and testing* (pp. 94-113). Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

O'Driscoll, J. (1996). About face: A defence and elaboration of universal dualism. *Journal of Pragmatics, 25*(1), 1-32. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/0378-2166(94)00069-X

Ogiermann, E. (2009). Politeness and in-directness across cultures: A comparison of English, German, Polish and Russian requests. *Journal of Politeness Research: Language, Behavior, Culture*, 5(2), pp. 189-216. doi: 10.1515/JPLR.2009.011

Ogiermann, E. (2015). In/directness in Polish children's requests at the dinner table. *Journal of Pragmatics, 82*(0), 67-82. doi: 10.1016/j.pragma.2015.03.007

Okamoto, S. (2011). The use and interpretation of addressee honorifics and plain forms in Japanese: Diversity, multiplicity, and ambiguity. *Journal of Pragmatics, 43*(15), 3673-3688. doi: 10.1016/j.pragma.2011.06.012

Onwuegbuzie, A. J., Johnson, R. B., & Collins, K. M. (2009). Call for mixed analysis: A philosophical framework for combining qualitative and quantitative approaches. *International Journal of Multiple Research Approaches, 3*(2), 114-139. doi: 10.5172/mra.3.2.114

Oropeza-Escobar, M. (2011). *Represented discourse, resonance and stance in joking interaction in Mexican Spanish*. Amsterdam, Netherlands: John Benjamins Company

Owen, J. S. (2001). *Interlanguage pragmatics in Russian: A study of the effects of study abroad and proficiency levels on request strategies.* (3035194 Ph.D.), Bryn Mawr College, Ann Arbor. Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com/docview/304681963?accountid=10382

Pan, P. (2010). Making requests in institutional e-mail communication in Hong Kong: An interlanguage and intercultural pragmatics approach. In G. Gong & J. Jackson (Eds.): *ProQuest*, UMI Dissertations Publishing.

Peräkylä, A., Antaki, C., Vehviläinen, S., & Leudar, I. (2008). Analysing psychotherapy in practice. In A. Peräkylä, C. Antaki, S. Vehviläinen & I. Leudar (Eds.), *Conversation analysis and psychotherapy* (pp. 5-25). New York: Cambridge University Press.

Pérez de Ayala, S. (2001). FTAs and Erskine May: Conflicting needs? Politeness in question time. *Journal of Pragmatics: An Interdisciplinary Journal of Language Studies, 33*(2), 143-169. doi: 10.1016/S0378-2166(00)00002-3

Pérez, J. (2014). The contribution of the listener to verbal interaction in Spanish foreign language: A comparative study. *Revista Signos, 47*(86), 321-343. doi: 10.4067/S0718-09342014000300007

Pérez-Pereira, M. (1994). Imitations, repetitions, routines, and the child's analysis of language: Insights from the blind. *Journal of Child Language, 21*(02), 317-337. doi: 10.1017/S0305000900009296

Pérez-Sabater, C., & Montero-Fleta, B. (2014). Pragmatic competence and social power awareness: The case of written and spoken discourse in non-native English environments. *International Journal of English Studies, 14*(2), 21-38.

Perrin, L., Deshaies, D., & Paradis, C. (2003). Pragmatic functions of local diaphonic repetitions in conversation. *Journal of Pragmatics, 35*(12), 1843-1860. doi: 10.1016/S0378-2166(03)00117-6

Pienemann, M., Johnston, M., & Brindley, G. (1988). Constructing an acquisition-based procedure for second language assessment. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 10*(2), 217-243. doi: 10.1017/S0272263100007324

Poedjosoedarmo, S. (1968). Javanese speech levels. *Indonesia, 6*, 54-81. doi: 10.2307/3350711

Pomerantz, A. M. (1984). Agreeing and disagreeing with assessments: Some features of preferred/dispreferred turn shapes. In J. M. Atkinson & J. Heritage (Eds.), *Structures of social action: Studies in conversation analysis* (pp. 57-101). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Pomerantz, A., & Heritage, J. (2013). Preference. In J. Sidnell & T. Stivers (Eds.), *The handbook of conversation analysis* (pp. 210-228). Chichester, West Sussex, UK: Wiley-Blackwell.

Poynton, C. (1989). Terms of address in Australia. In P. Collins & D. Blair (Eds.), *Australian English: The language of a new society* (pp. 55-69): University of Queensland Press.

Psathas, G. (1995). *Conversation analysis: The study of talk-in-interaction*. Thousand Oaks, California: Sage.

Rahman, A., & Zuhair, A. A. (2015). *Utilization of request mitigators by Omani learners of English and native speakers: A comparative study.* Paper presented at the 2nd International Conference on" New Directions In Multidisciplinary Research & Practice" (NDMRP- 2015).

Rattanapitak, A. (2013). Request strategies in Burmese. *Linguistics of the Tibeto-Burman Area, 36*(1), 73-90.

Reiter, R. M. (2000). *Linguistic politeness in Britain and Uruguay. A contrastive study of requests and apologies*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Company.

Reiter, R. M. (2002). A contrastive study of conventional indirectness in Spanish: Evidence from Peninsular and Uruguayan Spanish. *Pragmatics, 12*(2), 135-151.

Rendle-Short, J. (2007). "Catherine, you're wasting your time": Address terms within the Australian political interview. *Journal of Pragmatics, 39*(9), 1503-1525. doi: 10.1016/j.pragma.2007.02.006

Rendle-Short, J. (2009). The address term mate in Australian English: Is it still a masculine term? *Australian Journal of Linguistics: Journal of the Australian Linguistic Society, 29*(2), 245-268. doi: 10.1080/07268600902823110

Revita, I., Wijana, I. D. P., & Poedjosoedarmo, S. (2007). Permintaan dalam bahasa Minangkabau. *Jurnal Humaniora, 19*(2). http://www.jurnal.ugm.ac.id /index.php /jurnal-humaniora/article/view/904

Richards, L. (2005). *Handling qualitative data : A practical guide*. London: Sage.

Riza, H. (2008). *Resources report on languages of Indonesia*. Paper presented at the The 6th Workshop on Asian Language Resources, Indian School Business, Hyderabad, India. http://www.aclweb.org/anthology-new/I/I08/I08-7.pdf

Rose, K. R. (2000). An exploratory cross-sectional study of interlanguage pragmatic development. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 22*(1), 27-67. doi: 10.1017/S0272263100001029

Rose, K. R. (2009). Interlanguage pragmatic development in Hong Kong, phase 2. *Journal of Pragmatics: An Interdisciplinary Journal of Language Studies, 41*(11), 2345-2364. doi: 10.1016/j.pragma.2009.04.002

Rue, Y. J., Zhang, G., & Shin, K. (2007). Request strategies in Korean, in *5th Biennial Korean Studies Association of Australasia Conference*, pp. 112-119, Perth,Australia, 12-13 July 2007.

Rue, Y.-J., & Zhang, G. Q. (2008). *Request strategies: A comparative study in Mandarin Chinese and Korean*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Company.

Rydland, V., & Aukrust, V. G. (2005). Lexical repetition in second language learners' peer play interaction. *Language Learning, 55*(2), 229-274. doi: 10.1111/j.0023-8333.2005.00304.x

Sacks, H., Schegloff, E. A., & Jefferson, G. (1974). A simplest systematics for the organization of turn-taking for conversation. *Language, 50*(4), 696-735. doi: 10.2307/412243

Sawir, E. (2003). Keeping up with native speakers: The many and positive roles of repetition in the conversations of EFL Learners. *Asian EFL Journal*, 6, 1-32.

Schauer, G. A. (2004). May you speak louder maybe?: Interlanguage pragmatic development in requests. *EUROSLA Yearbook, 4*(1), 253-272. http://dx.doi.org/10.1075/eurosla.4.12sch

Schauer, G. A. (2007). Finding the right words in the study abroad context: The development of German learners' use of external modifiers in English. *Intercultural Pragmatics, 4*(2), 193-220. doi: 10.1515/IP.2007.011

Schegloff, E. A. (1981). Discourse as an interactional achievement: Some uses of 'uh huh' and other things that come between sentences. In D. Tannen (Ed.), *Analysing discourse: Text and talk* (pp. 71-93). Washington, D.C. : Georgetown University Press.

Schegloff, E. A. (1996). Confirming allusions: Toward an empirical account of action. *American Journal of Sociology, 102*(1), 161-216. doi: 10.2307/2782190

Schwandt, T. A. (1994). Constructivist, interpretivist approach to human inquiry. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research* (pp. 118-137). United State of America: Sage Publication, Inc.

Scollon, R., & Scollon, S. W. (2001). *Intercultural communication: A discourse approach* (2nd ed.). Malden: Blackwell Publishers Ltd.

Searle, J. R. (1969). *Speech acts: An essay in the philosophy of language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Searle, J. R. (1979). *Expression and meaning: Studies in the theory of speech acts*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Seedhouse, P. (2005). Conversation analysis and language learning. *Language Teaching, 38*(04), 165-187. doi:10.1017/S0261444805003010

Seedhouse, P. (2007). Conversation analysis as research methodology. In K. Richards & P. Seedhouse (Eds.), *Applying conversation analysis* (pp. 251-266). Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.

Selinker, L. (1972). Interlanguage. *IRAL-International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching*, *10*(1-4), 209-232. doi: 10.1515/iral.1972.10.1-4.209

Sharifian, F., & Jamarani, M. (2011). Cultural schemas in intercultural communication: A study of the Persian cultural schema of sharmandegi 'being ashamed'. *Intercultural Pragmatics, 8*(2), 227-251. doi: 10.1515/IPRG.2011.011

Shariati, M., & Chamani, F. (2010). Apology strategies in Persian. *Journal of Pragmatics, 42*, 1689-1699. doi: 10.1016/j.pragma.2009.10.007

Shively, R. L. (2015). Developing interactional competence during study abroad: Listener responses in L2 Spanish. *System, 48*, 86-98. doi: 10.1016/j.system.2014.09.007

Sidnell, J. (2013). Basic conversation analytic methods. In J. Sidnell & T. Stivers (Eds.), *The handbook of conversation analysis* (pp. 77-99). Chichester, West Sussex, UK: Wiley-Blackwell.

Sifianou, M. (1992). *Politeness phenomena in England and Greece: Cross-cultural perspective*. Oxford: Clarendon Press.

Simpson, J. M. (1994). Regularised intonation in conversational repetition. In B. Johnstone (Ed.), *Repetition in discourse interdisciplinary* (Vol. 2, pp. 41-49). Norwood, New Jersay: Ablex Publishing Corporation.

Sinclair, J. M., & Coulthard, M. (1975). *Toward and analysis of discourse: The English used by teachers and pupils*. London: Oxford University Press.

Skewis, M. (2003). Mitigated directness in Honglou meng: Directive speech acts and politeness in Eighteenth Century Chinese. *Journal of Pragmatics, 35*(2), 161-189. doi: 10.1016/s0378-2166(02)00084-x

Smith-Hefner, N. J. (1988). Women and politeness: The Javanese example. *Language in Society, 17*(4), 535-554. doi: 10.2307_4167976

Song, S. (2008). *The role of culture in expressing politeness through speech act in a second language* (Order No. 3318801). Available from ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Global. (304486802).Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com. dbgw.lis.curtin.edu.au/ docview/304486802?accountid=10382

Song, S. (2012). Politeness and culture in second language acquisition. Retrieved from http://CURTIN.eblib.com.au/patron/FullRecord.aspx?p=1039434

Speicher, B. (1993). Simultaneous talk: Parallel talk among Filipino-American students. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development, 14*(5), 411-426. doi: 10.1080/01434632.1993.9994545

Spencer-Oatey, H. (2005). (Im)Politeness, face and perceptions of rapport: Unpacking their bases and interrelationships. *Journal of Politeness Research, 1*, 95-119. doi: 10.1515/jplr.2005.1.1.95

Stake, R. E. (2000). Case studies. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *The handbook of qualitative research* (2nd ed.), (pp. 435 - 453). The United States of America: Sage Publications, Inc.

Stake, R. E. (2005). Qualitative case studies. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *The SAGE handbook of qualitative research* (3rd ed.), (pp. 443-466). Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.

Stake, R. E. (2008). Qualitative case study. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Strategies of qualitative inquiry* (pp. 119-149). United State of America: Sage Publication, Inc.

Stalnaker, R. C. (1972). Pragmatics. In D. Davidson & G. Harman (Eds.), *Semantics of natural language* (pp. 380-397). Dordrecht: D. Reidel.

Stubbe, M. (1998). Are you listening? Cultural influences on the use of supportive verbal feedback in conversation. *Journal of Pragmatics, 29*(3), 257-289. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0378-2166(97)00042-8

Stubbe, M., & Holmes, J. (1995). *You know, eh* and other 'exasperating expressions': An analysis of social and stylistic variation in the use of pragmatic devices in a sample of New Zealand English. *Language & Communication, 15*(1), 63-88. doi: 10.1016/0271-5309(94)00016-6

Sudartini, S. (2014). Konsep kesopanan berbicara oleh wanita dalam budaya Jawa. *http://staff. uny. ac. id. pdf.*

Sukamto, K. E. (2012). Polite requests by Korean learners of Indonesian. *Studies in Literature and Language, 5*(2), 1-9.

Sukarno, S. (2010). The reflection of the Javanese cultural concepts in the politeness of Javanese. *K@ ta, 12*(1), 59-71.

Suprapto, A. A. (2012). *Perilaku backchannel penutur Indonesia terhadap aizuchi dalam komunikasi verbal bahasa Jepang.* Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia.

Svennevig, J. (1999). *Getting acquainted in conversation: A study of initial interactions.* Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Company.

Svennevig, J. (2003). Echo answers in native/non-native interaction. *Pragmatics, 13*(2) 258-309.

Svennevig, J. (2004). Other-repetition as display of hearing, understanding and emotional stance. *Discourse Studies, 6*(4), 489-516. doi: 10.1177/1461445604046591

Takada, A., & Endo, T. (2015). Object transfer in request–accept sequence in Japanese caregiver–child interactions. *Journal of Pragmatics, 82*(0), 52-66. doi: 10.1016/j.pragma.2015.03.011

Takahashi, T. & DuFon, M. (1989). Cross-linguistic influence in indirectiveness: The case of English directives performed by native Japanese speakers. [ERIC Document ED 370 479.]

Taleghani-Nikazm, C. (2002). A conversation analytical study of telephone conversation openings between native and non-native speakers. *Journal of Pragmatics: An Interdisciplinary Journal of Language Studies, 34*(12), 1807-1832. doi: 10.1016/S0378-2166(02)00049-8

Tannen, D. (1987). Repetition in conversation: Toward a poetics of talk. *Language: Journal of the Linguistic Society of America, 63*(3), 574-605. doi: 10.2307/415006

Tannen, D. (1989). *Talking voices: Repetition, dialogue, and imagery in conversational discourse*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Tannen, D. (2005). *Conversational style : Analyzing talk among friends*. Oxford: Oxford University Press, USA.

Tannen, D. (2007). *Talking voices: Repetition, dialogue, and imagery in conversational discourse* (2nd ed.). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Tao, H., & Thompson, S. A. (1991). English backchannels in Mandarin conversations: A case study of superstratum pragmatic 'interference'. *Journal of Pragmatics, 16*(3), 209-223. doi: 10.1016/0378-2166(91)90093-D

Tavakoli, H. (2013). *A dictionary of research methodology and statistics in applied linguistics*. Iran: Rahnama Press.

Ten Have, P. (2007). *Doing conversation analysis*. London: SAGE Publications.

Terkourafi, M. (2005). Beyond the micro-level in politeness research. *Journal of Politeness Research, 1*, 237 - 262. doi: 10.1515/jplr.2005.1.2.237

Thomas, J. (1983). Cross-cultural pragmatic failure. *Applied Linguistics, 4*(2), 91-112. doi: 10.1093/applin/4.2.91

Thomas, J. (2013). *Meaning in interaction: An introduction to pragmatics.* London and New York: Routledge.

Trosborg, A. (1995). *Interlanguage pragmatics: Requests, complaints, and apologies*. Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.

Trosborg, A. (2010). Introduction. In A. Trosborg (Ed.), *Pragmatics across languages and cultures* (pp. 1-39). Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.

Usó-Juan, E., & Martínez-Flor, A. (2010). The teaching of speech acts in second and foreign language instructional contexts. In A. Trosborg (Ed.), *Pragmatics across languages and cultures* (pp. 423-442). Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.

Vanderveken, D. (1990). *Meaning and speech acts: Principles of language use* (Vol. I). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Walkinshaw, I., & Kirkpatrick, A. (2014). Mutual face preservation among Asian speakers of English as a lingua franca. *Journal of English as a Lingua Franca, 3*(2), 269-291. doi:http://dx.doi.org.dbgw.lis.curtin.edu.au/10.1515/jelf-2014-0017

Watts, R. J. (2003). *Politeness*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Wedhawati, Nurlina, W. E. S., Setiyanto, E., Sukesti, R., Marsono, & Baryadi, I. P. (2006). *Tata bahasa Jawa mutakhir*. Yogyakarta: Kanisius.

White, S. (1989). Backchannels across cultures: A study of Americans and Japanese. *Language in Society, 18*(1), 59-76. doi: 10.2307/4168001

White, R. (1997). Backchannelling, repair, pausing, and private speech. *Applied Linguistics, 18*(3), 314-344. doi: 10.1093/applin/18.3.314

Wierzbicka, A. (1985). Different cultures, different languages, different speech acts: Polish vs. English. *Journal of Pragmatics, 9*(2–3), 145-178. doi: 10.1016/0378-2166(85)90023-2

Wijayanto, A. (2011). *Interlanguage pragmatics of refusal strategies by Javanese EFL learners* (Doctoral dissertation, University of Aberdeen).

Wijayanto, A. (2013). The emergence of Javanese sopan and santun (politeness) on the refusal strategies used by Javanese learners of English. *The Internet Journal of Language, Culture and Society, 36*, 34-47.

Woodfield, H. (2008). Interlanguage requests: A contrastive study. In M. Pütz & J. Neff-van Aertselaer (Eds.), *Developing contrastive pragmatics: Interlanguage and cross-cultural perspectives* (pp. 231-264). Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.

Woodfield, H. (2012). "I think maybe I want to lend the notes from you": Development of request modification in graduate learners. In M. Economidou-Kogetsidis & H. Woodfield (Eds.), *Interlanguage request modification* (pp. 9-50). Amsterdam: John Benjamins B.V

Wouk, F. (2001). Solidarity in Indonesian conversation: The discourse marker *ya*. *Journal of Pragmatics, 33*(2), 171-191. doi: 10.1016/S0378-2166(99)00139-3

Wray, A. and Bloomer, A. (2006). *Projects in linguistics: A practical guide to researching language*. London: Hodder Education.

Wu, R.-J. R. (2011). A conversation analysis of self-praising in everyday Mandarin interaction. *Journal of Pragmatics: An Interdisciplinary Journal of Language Studies, 43*(13), 3152-3176. doi: 10.1016/j.pragma.2011.05.016

Xiuping, H. (2012). A contrastive study of Chinese and British English request modifications. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies, 2*(9), 1905. doi: 10.4304/tpls.2.9.1905-1910

Yanow, D., & Schwartz-Shea, P. (2006). *Interpretation and method : Empirical research methods and the interpretive turn*. Armonk, NY, USA: M.E. Sharpe, Inc.

Yazdfazeli, M., & Motallebzadeh, K. (2014). Explicit back-channel strategy training and speaking skill: Does gender matter? *International Journal of Multidisciplinary and Current research, 2*(sept/Oct 2014), 919-924.

Yin, R. K. (1984). *Case study research: Design and methods* (Vol. 5). United State of America: Sage Publications, Inc.

Yin, R. K. (2003). *Case study research: Design and methods* (3 ed. Vol. 5). Thousands Oak, Callifornia: Sage Publications.

Yin, R. K. (2011). *Qualitative research from start to finish*. New York: Guilford Press.

Yu, K.-A. (2011). Culture-specific concepts of politeness: Indirectness and politeness in English, Hebrew, and Korean requests. *Intercultural Pragmatics, 8*(3), 385-409. doi: 10.1515/iprg.2011.018

Yu, M.-c. (2003). On the universality of face: Evidence from Chinese compliment response behavior. *Journal of Pragmatics, 35*(10–11), 1679-1710. doi: 10.1016/s0378-2166(03)00074-2

Yu, M.-c. (2011). Learning how to read situation and know what is the right thing to say or do in an L2: A study of socio-cultural competence and language transfer. *Journal of Pragmatics, 43*, 1127-1147. doi: 10.1016/j.pragma.2009.09.025

Yuan, Y. (2001). An inquiry into empirical pragmatics data-gathering methods: Written DCTs, oral DCTs, field notes, and natural conversations. *Journal of Pragmatics, 33*(2), 271-292. doi: 10.1016/s0378-2166(00)00031-x

Zinken, J. (2015). Contingent control over shared goods. 'Can I have x' requests in British English informal interaction. *Journal of Pragmatics, 82*(0), 23-38. doi: 10.1016/j.pragma.2015.03.005

Appendices

Appendix 1: Strategy Types of Requests

_____

Types of Strategy	Example(s)
(1) Mood-derivable The grammatical mood in this type is conventionally considered as a request.	Turn on the light.
(2) Explicit performatives The speaker expresses the illocutionary force of the utterance.	I am asking you to turn on the light.
(3) Hedged-performatives Utterances embedding the naming of the illocutionary force using modal verbs or verbs expressing intention.	I would like to ask you to turn on the light.
(4) Locution derivable/obligation statement The illocutionary force is straight obtainable from the semantic meaning of the utterance.	You should turn on the light.
(5) Want-statement The speaker expresses the intentions that the event denoted in the proposition should come about.	I want you to turn on the light.
(6) Suggestory formula The utterance contains a suggestion to X.	How about turning on the light?
(7) Query preparatory The utterance contains reference to preparatory conditions that ask for the hearer's ability, willingness, or the possibility to execute the act.	Could you turn on the light?
(8) Strong Hints The speaker conveys partial reference to the object or to elements needed for	Why is the light off?

the implementation of the act.

(9) Mild Hints   It is dark in this room.

The speaker expresses no reference

to the request proper but it is interpretable

through the context as a request.

_____

(Blum-Kulka et al., 1989, p. 18)

Appendix 2: Lexical and Phrasal Downgraders

Lexical and Phrasal Downgraders	Example(s)
1. Politeness marker used to bid for cooperative behaviour.	please
2. Consultative device used to get the hearer involved directly, and to bid for cooperation.	do you think…
3. Understater used to minimise part of the proposition	a little bit, a second, not very much
4. Hedge used to avoid precise propositional specification.	somehow, kind of, sort of, more or less, rather
5. Subjectiviser used to express subjective opinion.	I think, I believe, I suppose, I wonder…
6. Downtoner used to modulate the impact of the request.	possibly, perhaps, just, simply, possibly
7. Cajoler used to make the harmony between the participants increased, established, or restored.	you know, I mean, you see, actually
8. Appealer used to appeal the hearer's benevolent understanding.	Commonly realised in 'tag'. e.g. Turn off the computer, dear, *will you*?/*okay*?

(Blum-Kulka et al., 1989, pp. 283 – 285; House & Kasper, 1981, pp. 166 - 168)

Appendix 3: External Modifications: Downgraders

_____

External Modifications	Examples
_____	
1. Preparator The speaker gets the hearer ready for the requests that follows by stating that a request will be issued.	*I want to ask you something*
2. Grounder The speaker provides rationales, descriptions, or accounts that may come before or after the requests.	Judith, *I missed the class yesterday.* Could I borrow your notes?
3. Asking the hearer's opinion The speaker draws the hearer's opinion to make the request more acceptable.	*How about that*?

_____

(House & Kasper, 1981; Blum-Kulka et al., 1989; Rue & Zhang, 2008)

Appendix 4: Transcript Notation

The transcript notation employed in this study is based on those developed by Gail Jefferson, as described in Wray and Bloomer. (2006, pp. 185 - 195).
A letter which does not refer to any name of the participants is employed and put on the left-hand margin.

/	pause which is less than one second
//	pause which is more than one seconds and less than five seconds
///	pause which is more than five seconds
hhh-	breathing out
.hhh	breathing in
[[	simultaneous utterances
[	overlapping utterances
]	the point where overlap stops
=	latching
(x)	indecipherable speech which shows approximate syllable
(P1)	the speaker's personal name
(P2)	the addressee's personal name
(P3)	identified person
(likely to be …)	a guesstimated utterance
-	word truncation or syllable deletion
:	lengthened vowels
(( ))	non-verbals e.g. coughs, laugh, and sneezes
↑	rise in intonation
↓	fall in intonation
→	the focus of the description.
,	continuing intonation
see	marked stress
FIVE	marked increase

Appendix 5: Example of the Transcript

1. Sp   : yea good.

2. JSE2   : okay hh from from the la:st meeting, I have made some

3.   modification about the / modals that I proposed to

4.   you,=

5. Sp   : = right↓

6. JSE2   : I have found the mistake that yeah resulted there is a a

7.   complex number for the fi::rst

8. Sp   : oh good, that was that was for the low frequency↑

9. JSE2   : yeah from the first beat [from twenty] hertz first

10. Sp   :   [o:::kay]

11. JSE2   : because there is e: unsymmetric between the negative

12.   [and the positive] only one point just one point

13. Sp   : [yeah right that's right↓]

14. Sp   : so which one was it↓

15. JSE2   : e::: at the::at the end of the first beat↓ // at the first

16.   the first the fir:::st [so this this] component that I have

17. Sp   :   [(xx) okay right↓

18. JSE2   : to make it zero↓ so this is the difference

19.   from another point↓

20. Sp   : yes okay↓ hhm so you said that it's zero↑

21. JSE2   : yes it's zero, and [I:::: and]

22. Sp   :   [and it's okay]

23. JSE2   : it's okay↓ and I get the the real number for the first

24.   beat↓=

25. Sp   : =oh good,=

26. JSE2   : = so all of the beat I got the real number↓

27. Sp   : okay,

28. JSE2   : so I use all of the beat↓=

29. Sp   : =that's good↓

30. JSE2   : and then I have asked (P3) [e::] about how to / cut off the frequency,

31. Sp   :   [oh (P3)]

32. JSE2   : because I (xxx) my frequency is

33.   four thousand and ninety two, [because my

34. Sp   :   (xx) [four thousand nine

35.   six eight, nine, two, I think it's four zero nine six↓

36. JSE2 : four zero nine six↓ [he] told me that I don't need

37. Sp   :   [yes]

38. JSE2 : to <u>change</u> these within this limit but I have to <u>cut</u> the

39.   frequency that I want to include to the beat↓ =

40. Sp   := right,=

41. JSE2 : =so my:: highest frequency is [four thousands] nine six I (xx)=

42. Sp   :   [four thousand nine six]

43. Sp   : =right.=

44. JSE2 : = so I don't change anything about the range of the

45.   first beat until the last beat↓

46. Sp   : yes, that makes sense↓

47. JSE2 : yes and the solution and then I found that hmm with

48.   the: steps of windowing I get the: // strange result

49.   about the // a: principal component↓ so I try to

50.   remove these steps, so in this thing I don't use the

51.   windowing, I don't use the handling from any other

52.   windows, just from the current data I calculate the

53.   effective, and then I get better result↓

54. Sp   : okay.

55. JSE2 : but I don't know the: the exact result why if I remove the

56.   window I get the better result compare to using e:

57.   window↓=

58. Sp   := right,

59. JSE2 : especially for the calculate the statistical / features / I think

60.   because we have if we use the window, we alter the

61.   original signal↓ it is better for us to find the

62.   effective↑ with feature extraction, it is not too good you [see]

63. Sp   :   [right] yeah

64.   yeah I am not I am not so sure about that↓ so you you

65.   are taking one second chunk aren't you↑

66. JSE2 : yea,

67. Sp   : you have ten second duration yea.

68. JSE2   : I take one second and two second, two second↓

69. Sp   : you have any overlap betwee[:::n the windows or::]

70. JSE2   :   [yea hhh when] I calculate

71.   the feature assertion I use the overlap↓ / so as

72.   I told you before that I have two two hundred and

73.   seventy three that the point, it means that I put

74.   every one rotation of the interval↑

75. Sp   : okay,

76. JSE2   : that is two hundred and seventy three↑

77. Sp   : right,

78. JSE2   : and I take overlap one of [fifty percent] of this↓

79. Sp   :   [alright]

80. Sp   : okay.=

81. JSE2   : = so total I get I get sixty sample instead of thirty↓

82. Sp   : right↓ yes okay, that's good↓ yeah

83. JSE2   : okay and as the result ehh because I include the first

84.   beat, I get seventy two features instead of / sixty four,

85. Sp   : yes,

86. JSE2   : and using the PCA abstraction, I get seventy pictures

87.   per component, and more than nine ninety-five percent /

88.   information I get [I get]

89. Sp   :   [right] right,

90. JSE2   : If I (x) the result / like this form, uses four the: good

91.   (xxx) // for this square

92. Sp   : for this square what is this square again↓ this is

93. JSE2   : this square is yeah this is the middle of

94. Sp   : can you explain that again↑ this is the::: from the

95.   twenty seven to the component,=

96. JSE2   : =yeah I calculate this square value↓ ahhh this square

97.   value is the:: square of lack distance between the

98.   intersection of principal component to the each of

99.   sample point↓

100. Sp   : this is some of (xxx)

101. JSE2 : yeah,

102. Sp : so so some of the / the distance [betwee:::n

103. JSE2 :   [the distance

104.   between I thought for the two dimensional of

105.   principal components if I have two dimension

106.   components, say this is the principal component

107.   number one↑ this is the principal component number

108.   two↑ this square is the new data that I have to

109.   compare to this model, this is the data this is the

110.   square↓

111. Sp : is it T square or T2↑

112. JSE2 : this square sorry T square↓

113. Sp : okay, so this is the magnitude↓=

114. JSE2 : = yeah the magnitude↓=

115. Sp : =magnitude square=

116. JSE2 : = magnitude square the distance between the

117.   intersection of principal component to the new data

118.   that we have to ehh measure↓

119. Sp : okay, so let me think about these magnitude features, //

120.   and from the ten second you have / sixty sample::s

121. JSE2 : features↓ oh sorry sixty sixty samples yeah↓

122. Sp : and each sample is one rotation,

123. JSE2 : one rotation only, okay I have::: a::

124. Sp : okay, so now you are showing you are showing sixty samples↑ sixty

125.   rotations↑ sixty rotations of the palate↑ u::m //

126.   this is the T square statistics,

127. JSE2 : yeah,

128. Sp : from the twenty seve:::n [sample principals] yea okay,

129. JSE2 :   [principal component yea]

130. Sp : here you've chosen / some threshold↑

131. JSE2 : yeap this is the threshold the threshold i::s based on

132.   the statistics as well, there is formula to calculate this

133.   threshold↓ it depends on the principle components that

134.   we retain on the model, and also the:: some of

135.   the samples↓

136. Sp   : yeap okay, if I just go back to the stu:ff so you have ten seco::nd

137. JSE2 : yeah,

138. Sp   : but you are doing this analysis on one second↑

139. JSE2 : each yeah.

140. Sp   : yea // so does that mean that a /// in the ten second, there are

141.   only:: sixty rotations of the shaft↑ so why

142.   why are there not more than sixty samples↓=

143. JSE2 : = hhh the original length of the data is ten second,=

144. Sp   : =yeap,=

145. JSE2 : =and I divided into:

146. Sp   : one [one second]

147. JSE2 :   [one second one second in in ten columns,

148. Sp   : yes,

149. JSE2 : and then I do effective for each column↓=

150. Sp   : =yes, split up of the occupants, [inver..(xx) of each occupa:::nts

151. JSE2 :   [and occupant I get in ten columns

152.   and I do <u>average</u>↓ so I get one column for each occupant↓ ///this is

153.   the column fo:r // my occupant, one until nine, so I get

154.   thi:s matrix nine plans, // and after I do inverse, I get the

155.   time limit, in the time limit I get I take the average for

156.   each place↓ so before I do the / feature (xx) the

157.   dimension of matrix is hhh one thousand ah h eight

158.   eight one nine two   //////

159. Sp   : yea, I guess um this averaging that / is confusing↓

160.   average in the time domain / fo::r each occupant=

161. JSE2 : =no, not not not like that↓ that I don't do the average

162.   on occupant // in one ... (xx)

163. Sp   : that's right↓ so you have <u>ten</u> columns for <u>each</u>

164.   occupant↓ so one occupant is less than twenty-one, and

165.   you have ((whispering and counting)) ↑one ↑two

166.   ↑three ↑ four

167. JSE2 : nine↓

168. Sp   : so three first,

169. JSE2 : three first occupant twenty-one

170. Sp   : after the (xxxxx) you only have the frequency content

171.   in the low frequency bank for one second↓ but you

172.   have ten of them, you (xx) together↑

173. JSE2 : yeah,

174. Sp   : in the time domain↑

175. JSE2 : in time domain fo::r same feedback↓

176. Sp   : that's right↓ so I wonder why your average ///

177. J2   : because I have ten second↓ and I have <u>ten</u> columns for

178.   each column is one second↓

179. Sp   : yes↓ but but the time averaging in the time domain

180.   does something very <u>different</u> to the data↓

181. JSE2 : hhh we can't do the averaging domain↑

182. Sp   : normally not↓ unless unless there is particula::r

183. JSE2 : reason↑

184. Sp   : reason or process that occurs exactly / every link of the

185.   time signal↓ here you have you have arbitrary chosen

186.   one second,

187. JSE2 : yeah,

188. Sp   : yeah so averaging /// hm / why do you why do you average

189. JSE2 : uumm my reason to do average is to make the

190.   technologies <u>consistent</u> between the length of the data

191.   so I get one second chunk of signal that is consistent↓

192. Sp   : I guess what I would like to say is, if you show me

193.   you show me that the ten second, sorry you show me

194.   the ten one second chunk of data↑

195. JSE2 : yea,

196. Sp   : and then you show me the average↑

197. JSE2 : hmm,

198. Sp   : and I will have to be convinced that this averaging process working

199.   properly↑ because normally the only the only only time we average

200.   in the time domain for rotating machinery if we if we carefully

201.   choose the time link has been very exactly one rotation [may be the

202. JSE2 :   [yea

203. Sp   : one rotation of the impeller

204. JSE2 : ohh yea

205. Sp   : yeah here you just chosen one second,

206. JSE2 : arbitrary choice

207. Sp   : arbitrary choice,

208. JSE2 : yeah,

209. Sp   : so: a:: actually the speed of the impeller

210.   changing slightly as well, so the first one second

211.   chunk, this this may have I don't know maybe have

212.   hmm twenty-three point five rotations of the impeller↑

213. JSE2 : yeah,

214. Sp   : next one second could have twenty-two point six

215.   rotations↓ it's not consistent↓ so even even the starting

216.   phase of the inter- rotation different from each one

217.   second chuck↓ so when you're able to get there, I am

218.   just I am worried that you end up with //

219.   rubbish↓ it does not show anything↓

220. JSE2 : hhh so if I want to do everything, what steps that I ca::n do

221.   that↓

222. Sp   : why why do you have to average↓ I am happy with you

223.   still have one second chuck, you go through here,

224.   every one second you can have thirty-two features,

225.   then /// hhh / so then you have two hundred and seventy-three:::

226.   (xxx) points don't you↑ every rotation

227. JSE2 : every rotation

228. Sp   : yeah // you have more than sixty seconds don't you↑

229. JSE2 : umm no↑ I still have I still get the sixty seconds

230.   because the the series the time series is still one:: still

231.   eight thousand one nine two↓=

232. Sp   : =yes, eight one nine two yeap, so where does the sixty come from↓

233. JSE2 : ehh it comes the original sample is thirty,

234.   thirty is one:: oh eight one nine two divided by a:: thirty, we

235.   get two second two,=

236. Sp   : =thirty:: where does the thirty come from again↓

237. JSE2 : from the previous discussion, thirty sample here that thirty sample

238.   it means if one rotation of the impeller, if we have the

239.   sampling point eight one nine two, if we have thirty sample so

240.   for one sample is for one rotation a:: one rotation of the impeller

241. Sp   : yeah I am still still confused, sorry ((laugh)) I have

242.   forgotten ((laugh))

243. JSE2 : the sampling frequency is eight one nine two↑

244. Sp   : eight nine two zero↑

245. JSE2 : yeap eight nine two zero yeap↓

246. Sp   : yeap↓

247. JSE2 : the:::

248. Sp   : what is the shaft speed↓

249. JSE2 : the shaft speed is thirty hertz↓

250. Sp   : oh thirty hertz↑

251. JSE2 : yea and if I divided by thirty, the result is two second

252.   three at the point↓

253. Sp   : two second thirty, but then one one second (xx)

254. JSE2 : okay, in one second↓

255. Sp   : okay /// so::: in one second, okay so seventy-two

256.   features↑

257. JSE2 : if I don't do average, so I can get / eight times nine

258.   times ten to seven hundreds twenty features↓

259. Sp   : why why can't you // deal with the seventy two features,

260.   in one second↑

261. JSE2 : yea,

262. Sp   : then you have ten of them, ten lots and may be::: / so you

263   look at <u>ten</u> you look at <u>ten</u> of these

264. JSE2 : yeap

265. Sp   : graphs=

266. JSE2 : =for each channel↑

267. Sp   : yes↓ and then maybe you can see, how <u>different</u> each

268.   of those ten graphs↓ so you got ten curves↑

269. JSE2 : yes↓ ten curves for each channel↓

270. Sp   : maybe plot them on the same graph so you got ten ↑curves

271. JSE2 : oh yea

272. Sp   : and so I'd be interested to see::

273. JSE2 : what's the difference↓=

274. Sp   : =yes, how similar are they↓=

275. JSE2 : =between the first first second [second orient] okay

276. Sp   :   [second orient] and

277.   then may be:: every (xx)

278. JSE2 : after I brought=

279. Sp   : =yes, maybe hmm I am just worried about e:: averaging

280.   in the time domain↓ I don't think this would be helpful

281.   unless unless you ha::ve precisely [/ hhh] a:: selected

282. JSE2   :   [precisely (laugh)]

283. Sp   : that time window↓ normally to do that we need to know exactly

284.   the shaft phase↓ I don't think (xx) did you recall the shaft ↑phase

285. JSE2   : I know

286. Sp   : this is running at nominally through at

287. JSE2 : okay yea [okay]

288. Sp   :   [yeah] /// yeah / the other way of doing this,

289.   not to split up into one second chuck, but the only

290.   analysis on ten second chunk↓ so when you plot it you have

291.   six hundred / samples↓

292. JSE2 : six hundred samples↓

293. Sp   : only ten second / okay, may be it would be the same

294.   maybe you take maybe you have a <u>choice,</u> you either

295.   have ten curves on a one graph↓

296. JSE2 : or six hundre::d samples↓

297. Sp   : o::r this one long [hhh] /// so if you if you have e:: six

298. JSE2   :   [yeah]

299. Sp   : hundred samples, will you still get twenty seven↑

300. JSE2 : no it will increase and the threshold will (xx) including ever:::: it

301   : depends on the::

302. Sp   : okay, that's right↓

303.   maybe I would stick with the one second and

304.   [probably]

305. JSE2 : [ten ten] graphs↑

306. Sp   : yeah you see, have consistency, it should be quite

307.   <u>consistent</u> I think↓ // hmm /// that sounds okay↑

308. JSE2 : yea I can I'll try to do the ten graphs in a while yea at

309.   least in (xx) ((laugh))

310. Sp   : yea the other things I mean the two seventy-three is

311.   one rotation isn't it↑

312. JSE2 : yea

313. Sp   : we also talk may be making this two rotations↓

314. JSE2 : for this step, I did hhh overlap is it okay ↑

315. Sp   : overlap is <u>good</u> but each each segment is still only

316.   one rotation↓

317. JSE2 : yes one rotation↓

318. Sp   : maybe we are not trying very much, you could try::

319.   two rotations, still still with the overlap↓

320. JSE2 : so I have the result is I have the <u>half</u> of the samples

321.   that I do two rotations for this↓ say,

322. Sp   : not yes it's true, if you double the overlaps but if you

323.   keep the overlap the same,

324. JSE2 : hmm

325. Sp   : this is half the rotation, so you have two rotations and

326.   you shift along half a rotations↓

327. JSE2 : one rotation↑

328. Sp   : no <u>half↓</u>

329. JSE2 : half rotation↓

330. Sp   : you should have another half, so you not get / maybe

331.   you get fifty eight↑

332. JSE2 : fif- ohh

333. Sp   : fifty-eight something like that↓ If you make if you

334.   make the link two rotations and then you shift along

335.   one rotation, yes you will get thirty↓

336. JSE2 : thirty↑

337. Sp   : yea or twenty-nine↓ so you could <u>choose</u> few different

338.   things↓ I guess twenty- seven is probably too many,

339.   is it↑

340. JSE2   : yes ((laugh)) because in the literature literature that I get it is

341.   only eight or less than ten principal components then

342.   they use to / calculate a:: the T-Square↓ not more than

343.   <u>TEN↓</u>

344. Sp   : yes and maybe it's realised upon careful choice of

345.   features↓ so what what features are you choosing↓

346. JSE2 : yeah I eight hmm there are::: fortosis, scunars, (xxx)

347.   low bomb, upper bomb, RMS variance, and one is:::

348.   I can't remember all

349. Sp   : so you should maybe you should think about those /

350.   features↓

351. JSE2 : hmm and reduce (x) [that's be say four and five↑

352. Sp   :   [hhh

353. Sp   : yea. so (xxx) is good↓ hh hmm what

354.   is the difference between RMS and variance are they

355.   the same↑

356. JSE2 : almost the same yea↓

357. Sp   : maybe you can just just one, use use RMS hh yea

358.   (likely to be fortosis) RMS, crash factor↑

359. JSE2 : crash factor is the other (likely to be norm) ((laugh))

360. Sp   : yes another nor::: normally upper belt lower belt I

361.   don't understand what they

362. JSE2 : hhh scunars↑

363. Sp   : you could try, could be could be helpful↓

364. JSE2 : yea because many many literature review always use

365.   (likely to be sculta) and scunars

366. Sp   : okay,

367. JSE2 : most of them use that

368. Sp   : yea

369. JSE2 : I think I'll try to do these four features↓

370. Sp   : yea hmm yea so yea so may be do some semi investigation

371.   see how the number of principal components can reduce

372. JSE2 : yea because another thing that I found this is model I get e:

373.   matrix of principal component that the row is less

374.   than the column because I have the row only sixty,

375.   sixty row, and I

376. Sp   : right.

377. JSE2 : have all these seventy-two↓ I just not sure if it is okay,

378.   if the some or all of the column is greater than the row

379.   I am not sure about that↓

380. Sp   : okay,

381. JSE2 : do you have any suggestion that who who person that

382.   I can ask about this about the principal component↑

383. Sp   : (P)↓

384. JSE2 : (P)↑

385. Sp   : (P)↓

386. JSE2 : okay because i::n many literature review, there are no

387.   commission like this↓ they always that have row is

388.   greater than column↓

389. Sp   : okay,

390. JSE2 : it means that they only <u>have</u> e:: less sensors↓

391. Sp   : hmm yes,

392. JSE2 : the sensor is not hhh greater than the experiment ((laugh))

393.   [the try out

394. Sp   : [right,

395. Sp   : yes well if you reduce the number of features the

396.   flow slow features↑

397. JSE2 : the total features↑

398. Sp   : yes↓ hmm you okay↑

399. JSE2 : okay↓

400. Sp   : so now I would be very interested if you ca::n yes

401.   change that and show me the result↓ yeah

402. JSE2 : okay↓

403. Sp   : that would be great↓ hmm

404. JSE2 : okay and the:: paper::, there will be announced the

405.   acceptance on / early June I think.

406. Sp   : okay, and when do you have to write write the paper↓

407. JSE2 : the paper i:::s Septermber↓

408. Sp   : oh so so plenty of time↓

409. JSE2 : so I have lot time to do this, ((laugh)) before I submit

410.   the paper↓

411. Sp   : yeah yeah it's good hmm okay, we better leave it there

412.   because I've got a signed call coming coming from

413.   Malaysia, [four o'clock]

414. JSE2 :   [yea yea] okay, thanks thank you↓

415. Sp   : okay, thank you↓