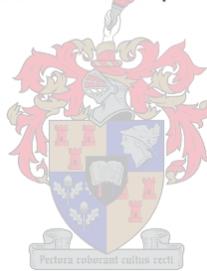


THE SPEECH ACT OF ADVICE IN EDUCATIONAL CONTEXTS IN TSHIVENDA

BY

SAMUEL NNDANDULENI RALIPHASWA

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Study leader: Dr. M. Dlali

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DECLARATION

I the undersigned, hereby declare that the work contained in this assignment is my own original work and that I have not previously in its entirety or in part submitted it at any University for a degree.

ABSTRACT

This study examines data from advice-giving in Tshivenda relating to pragmatic theorist's argument that every human interaction, to a large extent carries with it an element of threatening to one or both participant's face. The speech act of politeness has been identified as one of the most effective speech acts to be employed in giving as well as soliciting advice. Every speech acts is influenced by contextual, cultural and many other background factors associated to age, gender and rank which contribute towards how a speech is composed. The issues relating to the theory of politeness prompted this study on the extent to which politeness plays a role in giving advice in an educational context of Tshivenda speaking learners. The study has employed Brown and Levinson's theory of politeness as a universal phenomenon against the findings of my data, in that universality of these theorists does not quite fit with this study.

In this study, politeness in Tshivenda school context has demonstrated that it has been employed as a strategy for encoding distance between speaker and the solicitor. The purpose of advising teachers and students through politeness behavior is to mitigate face and to create a favourable context anticipated by the solicitor.

OPSOMMING

Hierdie studie ondersoek data van adviesgewing in Tshivenda in verband tot die pragmatiek-teoretikus se argument dat elke menslike interaksie tot 'n groot mate daarmee saamdra 'n element van bedreiging vir een of beide deelnemers se gesig ('face'). Die spraakhandeling van beleefdheid is geïdentifiseer as een van die mees effektiewe spraakhandelinge wat gebruik word in die gee en vra van advies. Elke spraakhandeling word beïnvloed deur kontekstuele kulturele en talle ander agtergrondfaktore wat verband hou met ouderdom, gender, en rang, wat bydra tot die kernposisie van die spraakhandeling. Die vraagstukke rakende die teorie van beleefdheid het hierdie studie gemotiveer, wat handel oor die mate waartoe beleefdheid 'n rol speel in adviesgewing in Tshivenda in opvoedkundige kontekste deur leerders. Die studie het Brown en Levinson se teorie van beleefdheid aangewend en geëvalueer teenoor die bevindinge van die data van Tshivenda. Daar is bevind dat die universaliteits-aansprake van Brown en Levinson nie volledig strook met die data uit Tshivenda nie.

In hierdie studie, het beleefdheid in Tshivenda in skoolkontekste gedemonstreer dat dit ingespan word om afstand te kodeer tussen spreker en hoorder. Die doel van adviesgewing aan onderwysers en leerders deur beleefdheidsgedrag is om gesig te verminder en om 'n gunstige konteks te skep, soos geantisipeer deur die adviesvraer.

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CHAPTER 1

1.1. INTRODUCTION

1.1.1 AIM

The aim of this study is to look into detail certain operations related to learning environment. More emphasis will be given on the advice topics and patterns of advice solicitation. The reason why people interact is to convey a message but the goal is to have a specific response based on that message. It is therefore crucial how one should use language towards the anticipated goal. This study further helps to analyze how advises are solicited and given in major sub-situations, in order to identify the most common style of response to problems presented.

The value of analyzing how people, especially students in this study, is in showing that in Tshivenda, complaints are not just conversations about unpleasant issues or environment, but are technically used for a purpose. Accompanying the purpose is the strategy applied, which in this case is polite. In using politeness strategies, the participants make the situation acceptable and encouraging.

The advisor's politeness shows sympathy not only in listening to the solicitor but also in a manner in which he or she advises.

The findings of the study reveal that giving advice carries with it a level of accountability and responsibility. Advisors are adults who assumable can be trusted to be aware of the consequences born out of their suggestions, proposals or instructions. The frequent use of some topics reveals a trend in patterns of advising, which can be included towards interpreting how politeness can be encountered in a learning situation, which adds to the value of analyzing the effect of giving advice in a learning situation.

1.2. ORGANIZATION OF THE STUDY

This study is divided into six chapters, which are organized as follows:

Chapter 1: This chapter deals with the aims of the study as well as the organization of the study.

Chapter 2: In this chapter, the speech act theory of Thomas (1995), Mey (2000), and Grundy (2000), against Brown and Levinson's (1987) theory of politeness are dealt with at length. These theories serve as the basis for this study.

Chapter 3: In this chapter, the speech acts of advice of Depacua and Durahani (1993), Hernandez-flores (1999), Goldsmith and MaCGeorge (2000), Goldsmith and Fitch (1997), Goldsmith (1999) and Goldsmith (2000) against Brown and Levinson's (1987) theory of politeness are dealt with at length.

Chapter 4: This chapter aims to scrutinize and analyzed approaches to advice situations in Tshivenda by means of a questionnaire.

Advice topics are analyzed in major situations and substations in order to get a complete interpretation of its applications.

Chapter 5: The chapter focuses on patterns of advice solicitation, it looks at how influences to the purposes to the patterns.

Chapter 6: This chapter looks at the findings of the study by comparing the frequent use of certain advice topics to averagely or not use topic.

CHAPTER 2

SPEECH ACTS AND POLITENESS THEORY

2.1. J. R. SEARLE

John Searle studied under Austin at Oxford. According to Thomas (1995) in 1969 Searle writes a book called *SPEECH ACTS: AN ESSAY IN THE PHILOSOPHY OF LANGUAGES*, in his writings Searle distinguishes between 'Propositional content' and 'illocution'. Thomas (1995) states that Searle develops a theory of indirect speech acts and establishes a set of rules for speech acts.

According to Thomas (1995) an indirect speech act is a speech act performed by means of another. He further states that all speech acts are indirect to some degree and are performed by means of another speech act.

Thomas (1995) states that Searle's understanding of the meaning of indirect speech acts is so similar to Grice's method for getting from what is said to what is meant.

SEARLE'S CONDITIONS FOR SPEECH ACTS

Thomas (1995) states that where Grice puts a series of maxims and principles to explain how a speech act works, Searle established a set of rules. According to Thomas (1995) Searle set out a service of condition.

SEARLE'S RULES FOR PROMISING

- Propositional Act: Speaker(s) predicates a future act (A) of speaker(s).
 - Preparatory condition: S believes that doing act A is in His best interest and that S can A.
 - Essential condition: S undertakes an obligation to do act A
- Putting these rules in practice. Suppose that Lizzy says to Lisa: I'll cook you a curry for dinner tonight.
- Propositional act: the speaker (Lizzy) says something about a future act (cooking a curry tonight) which the speaker herself will perform.

- Preparatory condition: Lizzy believes that cooking a curry for Lisa is to Lisa's benefit (something, which Lisa will enjoy).
- Sincerity condition: Lizzy truly intends to make curry for Lisa.
- Essential condition: In uttering the words I'll cook you a curry Lizzy undertakes an obligation to make a curry for Lisa.

Thomas (1995) states that the issues that Searle raises in relation to promising are of general application and it is possible to establish rules of this nature for every speech act. Thomas (1995) further states that Searle offers eight other examples of rules for speech acts: requesting, asserting, questioning, thinking, advising, warning, greeting and congratulating. According to Thomas (1995) there are four interrelated sets of problems arise from this work, namely:

- (i) It is not always possible to distinguish fully between one speech act and another.
- (ii) If we attempt to plug all the gaps in Searle's rules we end up with a hopelessly complex collection of ad hoc condition.
- (iii) The conditions specified by Searle may exclude perfectly normal instances of a speech act but permit anomalous uses.
- (iv) The same speech act verb may cover a range of slightly different phenomena and some speech acts "overlap" Searle's rules take no account of this.

DISTINGUISHING SPEECH ACTS

According to Thomas (1995) it is difficult to use Searle's rules, to distinguish among speech acts for they are related to one another and are by no means interchangeable, for example, the following speech acts are related as they share certain key features-ask, request, order, command, suggest, all involve an attempt by the speaker(s) to bring about an action (A) on the part of the hearer (H). Thomas (1995) states that Searle's himself notes that in order or command from request some additional preparatory rules must be introduced:

Order and command have the additional preparatory rule that S must be in a position of authority over H. Furthermore in both the authority relationship infects the essential condition because the utterance counts as an attempt to get H to do A in virtue of the authority of S over H.

According to Thomas (1995) Searle's additional preparatory rule applies to many other speech acts. An understanding of the nature of the power relationship which obtain between speaker and hearer in order to interpret the illocutionary force of many utterances.

Thomas (1995) states that practically Searle's sets of conditions apply to any speech acts, but difficult to distinguish request from invite, demand, or question from examine, inquire, quiz or ask, however native speakers could recognize that these speech acts are different from one another.

According to Thomas (1995), it is only the essential condition which distinguishes one speech act from another, to tally unrelated one, for example, congratulate, could be distinguished from compliment by modifying the final (essential) condition.

Propositional act: E is in H's interest and S believes E is in H's interest.

Sincerity condition: S is pleased at E.

Essential condition: Counts as an expression of pleasure at E (congratulated). Counts as commendation of E or tribute to H (compliment).

Thomas (1995) states that another problem with Searle's final condition is that he (Searle) relies on others existing understanding of the meaning of the meaning of the speech act verb to describe that speech act and many of Searle's rules are circular.

PLUGGING THE GAPS IN SEARLE'S RULES

Thomas (1995) states that Searle's rules are circular and have failed to distinguish between speech acts and they (rules) cover only paradigm cases of speech acts. According to Thomas (1995) Searle acknowledges that his rules have failed, with his own words Searle said, "... this analysis so far is designed only to give as the bare bones of the model of subtle distinctions involved in actual discourse.". Thomas (1995) states that Searle's argument is for improving the rules.

According to Thomas (1995) although Searle claims to be setting out rules for speech acts, all he is really doing is describing the semantics of speech act verb. Thomas (1995) states that the question that concern him and others is whether it is possible to extend Searle's condition to cover at least some of the subtleties of speech act.

OVER-GENERALITY OF RULES

According to Thomas (1995) anomalous examples are given which Searle's values will not eliminate, the following is a case in point. Shortly before the British general election in 1983 Neil Kinnock 2 (the leader of the British labour party) issued a series of explicit warnings.

Example:

If Margaret Thatcher wins on Tuesday I warn you not to be ordinary, I warn you not to fall ill and I warn you not grow old. In the example above, according to Thomas (1995) Kinnock has observed all Searle's condition for warning (1969: 67).

Propositional act: Future event

Preparatory condition: H has reason to believe E will occur and is not in H's interest.

Sincerity condition: S believes E is not in H's best interest.

Essential condition: Counts as an undertaking to the effect that E is not in H's best interest. According to Thomas (1995) conditions specified for warning could apply to other speech acts, for example, informing, advising, cautioning and counseling and also related to a series of unrelated speech acts, for example, putting a curse on someone. Thomas (1995) states that Searle has produced sets of conditions, which are simultaneously over specific and over general which exclude valid instances of a speech act and included invalid or anomalous ones.

According to Thomas (1995) Searle treats speech acts as if they were clearly defined categories with clear –cut boundaries. Thomas (1995) further states that the boundaries between say, commanding, or ordering, requesting, asking and inviting are blurred, overlapping and fluid, the same speech act verb.

SEARLE'S FORMAL APPROACH TO THE CATEGORIZATION OF SPEECH ACTS

According to Thomas (1995) reasons for categorizing a particular location as performing one speech act rather than another are complex. Thomas (1995) states that in examples from chapter 3 one participant fails to tell the truth and the question is whether or not people would wish to classify the key speech act as lying and on would be made in example. In example 21 in chapter 3, Alice does not formally lie to her husband. In context Thomas takes that Alice's words work as a lie and that their goal in speaking as she did

was to deceive her husband and this functions as a lie tells the truth and again not can be classified as a lie. Thomas (1995) states that when the speaker tells the truth, his/her utterances can be classified as a lie. According to Thomas (1995) emotional factors play a role in the classification of utterances, for example, people do not want to classify people they like or respect in a negative way. Thomas (1995) states that there are contexts where in truth is not told at all, for example: in funeral orations and culturally specific situations in which the whole truth is not expected, for example, in Manama culture a plumber or electrician who undertakes to take up at a given time but then fails to appear. Thomas (1995) states that there are times when a speaker does not tell the whole truth in order to avoid hurting the hearer's feelings or to avoid revealing something learned in confidence.

According to Thomas (1995) there are factors that people look at before classifying a speech act, namely functional, psychological and effective factors. And people are influenced by culturally specific before classifying a speech act. The speaker's goal and participants in interaction also influence the classifying of a speech act.

2.2. MEY (2000): SPEECH ACTS HISTORY AND INTRODUCTION

Mey (2000) states his focus is on what in the philosophy, which is often referred to as ordinary language philosophy founded by J.L. Austin.

Mey (2000) states that words had an enormous impact on linguistics, especially in its pragmatics variant.

Austin's thinking was known as speech act theory and was further developed and codified by J.R Searle (American Philosopher) ended up being proponent and defender of Austin's ideas.

According to Mey (2000) the main problem that pragmatic is facing is the limitation imposed on linguistic thinking by a semantics based on truth – functional tradition restrict themselves to proposition's representing one particular class of sentences called declaratives, which order to be true or false must contain some testable proposition. According to Mey (2000) wishes are not propositions, meaning they are speech acts.

LANGUAGE IN USE

According to Mey (2000) many linguistic theories regard human language as a combination of sound and meaning or as a set of correct sentences. Mey (2000) states that these linguistic theorists do not take language as an activity, which produces speech acts, or define human language as “basic or minimal units of linguistic communication”.

According to Mey (2000) speech people having something “in mind” produce acts in actual situation of language use.

He further states that the production presupposes a “producer” and a “consumer” human agents whose intentions are relevant and indispensable to the correct understanding and description of their utterances,, quiet contrary to the constructed, non-use-oriented examples of most grammarians and philosophers. Searle (1969: 16) stated that ‘when I take a noise or mark on a piece of paper to be an instance of linguistic communication as a message, one of the things I must assume is that noise or mark was produced by a being or being more or less like myself and produced with certain kinds of intentions’.

According to Mey (2000) this intentional character of speech acts is among their most distinctive classificatory features. Mey (2000) states that intentionality is not just a matter of intentions ascribable to a particular speaker. According to Mey (2000) Searle’s main issue is how to establish condition that makes communication possible. Mey (2000) states that one should ask how a speech act functions in society or whether it functions there at all.

Mey (2000) postulates that asking how a particular communication act functions in a particular society presupposes that we examine the condition that holds for communication in that society.

Mey (2000) observes that the speech acts that people utter are dependent on the context of the situation in which such acts are produced. Mey (2000) formulates that all speech is situated speech and should be considered in the total situation of activity of which it is a part.

Mey (2000) suggests that certain kinds of speech acts are forbidden in certain situation, for example, tabooed situation, others are all de reguer, sometimes to the point where they are entirely predictable. Mey (2000) suggests that any discussion of intentionality should be aware of the individuals whom the intentions are ascribed, and of the ways they perceive others as intentional, being in a greater, societal context. Mey (2000) states that people have to ask themselves how speech acts relate to their human activity as a whole.

HOW SPEECH ACTS FUNCTION

According to Mey (2000) speech acts are verbal actions happening in the world. Mey (2000) states that when he is uttering a speech act, he is doing something with his words: 'I perform an activity that brings about a change in the existing state of affairs; for example, if I say to a newborn human: 'I baptize thee in the name of the Father, and of the Son and the Holy Ghost' (cf. Matthew 28:19) than this human is from now on and forever a Christian) Mey (2000: 95). Mey (2000) postulates that words can change the world, and this is an essential part of speech act thinking. He identifies different aspects of speech acting, namely, locutionary aspect, illocutionary force r point and perlocutionary effect.

According to Mey (2000) locutionary aspects are the activities that people are engaged in when they say something, for example, 'it's cold in here'. He states that when one says, "it is cold in here", this person is making a statement. Mey (2000) states that illocutionary force is related to the very form the utterance may have: stating, wishing, promising, and so on. Percolutionary effect tells people something about people's motivation for using a particular speech act whereas the illocutionary force is about what has occupied speech act theorists most.

Mey (2000) postulates that conditions obtained before a speech act can be said to have a particular illocutionary force, and these are often called felicity conditions.

Mey (2000) states that for these conditions (felicity) to be fulfilled people (or one) have (has) to be certain that the person enunciating these words actually has the power to do so, and second, people have to have the right circumstances or appropriate is when one called him or herself that I am a doctor and that person has been brought into the hospital after a traffic accident, and person, as a doctor, as a doctor, have to determine whether the person that involved in accident is dead or alive.

PROMISES

Mey (2000) states that speech acts are problematic, with the very wording of the act can lead to misunderstanding. For instance, a word promises a necessary element in the speech act promise? Or more generally do I always have to use a so-called speech act verb to perform a speech act? And more practically can one trust people to keep a promise even when they have not used the word promise?

According to Mey (2000) a promise counts as a promise only within a specified set of rules. For example, there is a policeman at the corner, this statement will count as a warning if the speaker utters it in a context where somebody is engaged in some other criminal activity. The same statement could be counted as an assurance, a dare, a hint as to where to ask directions, a reminder not to put that car in the spare for the handicapped in front of the shop, and so on.

Mey (2000) states that as to promises there are many ways to make a promise in any particular language, and it is only the context which can determine whether a particular expression counts as a promise, for example, if I say to a good friend, I will be there at seven, that may in the context of our friendship, count as perfectly good promise.

A SPEECH ACT PHYSIOGNOMY: PROMISING INTRODUCTION: THE PROBLEM

According to Mey (2000) when people talk about speech act, people run into a problem of having to do with the way different languages deal with the speech acting. The typical questions are:

- How can we determine a speech act?
- How many speech acts are there, and how are they expressed in language?
- What is the relationship between speech act and a pragmatic act?
- Are there speech acts that are found across languages or even in all languages will be dealt with exemplary a model speech act, the promise and exploring the condition and rules governing its use.

PROMISES CONDITION AND RULES

According to Mey (2000) the first problem is what are the conditions for a speech act to count as a promise? And the second problem is people have to know what rules govern a successful use of this speech act (promise). Mey (200) identifies nine conditions, namely:

- Condition 1: Normal condition must obtain for uttering and receiving a promise.
- Condition 2: The promise must have a content.
- Condition 3: The content of a promise must have to do with a future, possible action of the speaker.
- Condition 4: What is being promised must be to the advantage of the promisee.
- Condition 5: The content of promise must not be something, which clearly is going to happen anyway.
- Condition 6: Sincerity of the promiser in carrying out the act of promising.
- Condition 7: A promiser intends to put himself or herself under the obligation of carrying out the promised act.
- Condition 8 and 9: Language used in promising must be the normal one which means, it has to obey the semantically rules of the language, and the conventions for using that language must likewise be normal, that is to say, pragmatically correct ones.

Mey (2000) believes that after listing conditions we have to look at the question of what rules govern such acting (promises).

A general characteristic of the linguistic tools enabling such use is in order. According to Mey (2000) Searle gives the characterization under the name illocutionary force-indicating device (IFID in short).

Mey (2000) states that conditions 1,8 and 9 hold for all speech acts, and their IFIDS, and specified conditions on promising are 2 through 7 from these, the following five rules governing the use of promissory IFID can be extracted:

RULE 1 (content rule): uses a promissory IFID when the content of the utterance is about something, which is to happen in the future.

RULE 2 uses the promissory IFID when the promise contains something that the promisee actually wants to happen to him or her. It is known as preparatory rule.

RULE 3 (Preparatory Rule): uses an IFID for promising when the content of the promise does not concern the occurrence of an already scheduled, self-justifying or natural happening.

RULE 4 (Sincerity Rule): uses a promising IFID if you intend to carry out your promise. It does correspond to the sincerity condition (6). According to Mey (2000) the first four rules together make up the regulations for promising.

RULE 5 (Essential Rule) : uses a promising IFID on condition that the promise is uttered and recognized as creating an obligation from the promising to the promising.

According to Mey (2000) essential rule has a higher status than the other four as it has to do with the essence of the speech act.

PRAGMATICS OF RULES

According to Mey (2000) the rules are not on the same level, while the first four can be called regulative and the fifth one is termed a constitutive rule. A constitutive rule in case of chess, is one that makes up constitutes the game of cohesion that while the game and no other, whole the regulative rules regulated the behavior of the players in the game.

In the speech act promising the rules mentioned above can be applied in this manner. Searle's husband and wife example: the constitutive rule (5) of promising is one according to which a "promise is uttered and accepted as creating an obligation from the promise to promise. According to Mey (2000) a regulative rule tells people not to utter a promise when its contents are already scheduled to happen (husbands are supposed to be faithful on trips).

Mey (2000) states that rules are not magic words. Although promises should not need to be renewed, they are sometimes broken: a pragmatic view on promising accepts this fact of life and makes people focus on the promiser and promisee itself. According to Mey (2000) this view touches upon both aspects of promising: the constitutive one and regulative one.

In Austin's terms, the IFIDs of speech act theory indicates illocutionary force, they don't put that force to work. To do that, people need to lift the speech act out of the domain of abstract description into that of concrete action: Speech act became pragmatic act.

People should use perspective in which role of the interactive user is no longer external to their theorizing, but forms an integrated part of it with the respect to the contextual conditions for using promises, including the general conditions of the specific ones for securing a particular (intake). Such a role may be captured within the framework of the pragmatic act. Mey (2000) states that in case of promise, this implies that people cannot talk about promising in the abstract: every promise is a promiser's promise, made to a real-life promise. The pragmatic promiser and promisee, as well as their conditions of interactions.

According to Mey (2000) the regulative and constitutive rules are inseparable. As Anthony Giddens has remarked, "All social rules have both constitutive aspects to them". According to Mey (2000) speech act theory focuses on the action "inherent" in an utterance, but still an action based on abstract proposition. He postulates that Searle's illocutionary devices are not pragmatic in nature, as are speaker oriented and tie with an abstract content and the speaker's act of content is subject to the constitutive and regulative rules.

Mey (2000) states that Searle's IFID's are abstract devices and are not useful to any type of speech act. According to Mey (2000) pragmatic perspective emphasizes that nature of speech act always varies according to various linguistic uses and not within a single language. Mey (2000) further states that the study of existing speech acts, for example promising, is only useful as an approximation. In conclusion, Mey (2000) states that problem caused by speech act theory cannot be solved within IFID's, but require that researchers widen their perceptive and consider speech acts under the angle that they rightly deserve: as pragmatic device for human activity, or pragmatic acts.

SPEECH ACT VERBS: THE NUMBER OF SPEECH ACTS

Mey (2000) has identified two classifiers, 'Lumpers' and 'splitters'. By Lumpers, Mey (2000) refers to those classifiers that lump together their speech acts in a few, large categories and by splitters Mey (2000) refers to those who split up their speech acts in a

great number of classes. According to Mey (2000) the number of speech acts is between 500 and 600.

SPEECH ACTS, SPEECH ACT VERBS AND PERFORMATIVITY

Mey (2000) states that it is natural to look for expressions of linguistic activity among the members of the category (verb) and to all those that are found to denote speech act (SA) speech act verbs (SAV). According to Mey (2000) verbs denoting 'real' speech acts do something rather than providing candidates for truth or falsehood and these speech acts are called performatives. Mey (2000) postulates that there is a relationship between speech acts (SAs). The relationship between the two is that not all SAs are by a specific SAV, they may be represented by several. The SA of ordering may be expressed in various, often indirect ways, by a direct ordering 'verb' or by a normal verb in the imperative, or even by a circumlocution; I order you to shut the door, shut the door!, you will shut the door, where all the utterances express the same order. According to Mey (2000) not every speech act acts on its own. Mey (2000) states that the act of pronouncing a jury's finding is called to render a verdict, but in English there is no SAV to verdict, and this is just called an explicit performative, for example: 'I promise to come'. According to Mey (2000) this speech act carries out two separate functions. On the other hand, it tells the world that the speaker to my promise: the utterance, "I promise to come, when uttered by a speaker, explicitly establishes this 'binding' obligation for the speaker. In past tense the same utterance: 'I promised to come'

Mey (2000) states that the second function in the explicit performative is absent. According to Mey (2000) the sentence states that above (I promise to come) describes a state of affairs that has happened once upon a time, and it is not a promise utterance, hence not an act of promising another example, he promise to come, once again there is no explicit performative.

Mey (2000) states that in speech act verbs (SAVs) people find verbs like; to announce, to declare to inquire, and so on. But the question Mey (2000) has raised is 'are these SAVs always performative. For example, 'I hereby declare this bridge to be opened', in this statement there is some kind of performative, namely, that of opening a bridge. Mey (2000) further states that if a person says, he declares himself to be innocent? This statement does not contain a performative verb. Sentences such as the one above contain an adverb such as (hereby) and this adverb is used as a criterion for a true, performative

SAV. According to Mey (2000) adverb (hereby) is an indicator of SAVs in general and not of performativity, and also that the two categories, SAVs and performative do not coincide.

According to Mey (2000) there is a strange category of verbal expressions that have the property of denying what they are doing, or doing what they explicitly are denying. For example, 'I do not want to bother you, but could you please have a look at my program? Or 'I am not threatening you, but if I ever see your face again around these parts'. Here, the speaker performs an act of not wanting to bother or threaten the recipient however; the verbs to bother or to threaten do not have the same effect as it had above, for example:

I am (hereby) bothering you.....

I (hereby) threaten you.....

I (hereby) insult you.....

As particularly expressive or performative of the acts of (threatening, bothering, or insulting, and perhaps not even of anything at all.

In conclusion, Mey (2000) postulates that performativity is a property that is not specifically bound up with SAV.

SPEECH ACTS WITHOUT SAVs

According to Mey (2000) SAV is not a special category of verbs, as performative is all over the verbal spectrum. Mey (2000) states that there are two cases that support his argument, namely, speech act formulae (SAF) and the second case is somehow related to the first, it has to do with verbless expressions of the kind 'thanks' by speech act formulae. Mey (2000) refers to verbal expression that in all respect behave like SAV except that they are not regular verbs, but rather, stylistic or other variations on a common semantic theme. For example, 'I want to express my gratitude for your valuable assistance or I want to thank you for your help. In the second case one doubts whether we are always dealing with a verb, let alone an SAV.

According to Mey (2000) the form of a particular linguistic expression does not always tell the truth about what is doing. He believes that when one is trying to determine what kind of a speech act he or she is confronted with, he or she may have to disregard that form and instead look for a deeper or implied meaning.

INDIRECT SPEECH ACTS

Mey (2000) states if he says to somebody: 'could you move over person to answer his question with: 'Yes or No, 'perhaps I could and not budge an inch. According to Mey (2000) if that person moved, but never answered the speaker's question, the speaker would be perfectly happy with his or her reaction or answer. Mey (2000) states that the reason for the apparent incongruity is found in the character of his question, as it was never intended as an inquiry into the physical or moral degrees of freedom of his interlocutor, what he told him or her was simply to move over, but he did so indirectly: hence it is called an indirect speech act. The question now is how to recognize such indirect expression?

Mey (2000) quotes Searle's friend example, namely, somebody says to a friend, 'let's go to the movie tonight', and the friend answers: ' have to study for an exam'.

According to Mey (2000) the problem arises from the answers given as to whether the second utterance is a rejection of the proposal contained in the first while seeming to be completely unrelated to it and not containing any overt or hidden expressions of negation, denial or reflection or even a mention of the rejected offer? Mey (2000) states that there are two ways of approaching this problem, namely: the first one is the philosophical semantic one, as it is based on strict reasoning and certain basic principles of logic and the other, pragmatic way of looking at the problem takes its point of departure in what people actually say, and do with their words.

According to Mey (2000) in our daily use of language, indirect speech acts abound, and in many cases are for more numerous than direct ones.

THE TEN STEPS OF SEARLE

According to Mey (2000) Searle views indirect speech acting as a combination of two acts, namely: primary illocutionary act, and a secondary one, where the primary act operates through and in force of the secondary one: Mey (2000) states that secondary illocutionary act is literal, the primary illocutionary act is not literal, the question is, 'how does the listener understand the non-literal primary illocutionary act from understanding the literal secondary illocutionary act?'

According to Mey (2000) in order to answer this question Searle builds a ten-step pyramid of reasoning at whose summit he places his conclusion as a logically necessary keystone. The steps go as follows (a will denote the proposer, B the rejecter, both are assumed to be male)

Step 1. A has uttered a suggestion (to go to the movies) B has uttered a statement (about studying for an exam). These are the bare facts of the case.

Step 2 A. Assumes B to be co-operative in the conversation situation, that is, his answer is taken to be relevant in accordance with the maxim of relevance under the co-operative principle.

Step 3. Relevant answers in the situations at hand are found among the following: acceptance, rejection, counter suggestion ('why don't we make it tomorrow?') suggestion for further discussion, depends on the circumstances.

Step 4: None of the relevant answers in step 3 match the actual answer given so that the latter, taken at face value, must be said not to be one of these.

Step 5: Assumes that B means more by uttering his statement than what it says at face value. That is, to say, his primary intention is different from his secondary one.

Step 6: Everybody knows that one needs time to study for an exam, and that going to the movies may result in previous study time being lost.

Step 7: B cannot combine the two things: go to the cinema and study.

Step 8: Speech act theory has taught us that among the preparatory conditions for any speech act having to do with proposals are the ability and willingness, to carry out such a proposed act.

Step 9: B's utterance in all likelihood is meant to tell A that he cannot accept A's proposal intention, in mentioning his exam preparation has been to reject A's proposal.

PRAGMATIC VIEW

According to Mey (2000) indirect speech acts are the most common, 'direct' realization of what is known as illocutionary force. Mey (2000) further states that pragmatic approach concentrate on what users do, but it would not stop there.

The real performative value of particular constructed symbol, a linguistic 'prime' such as speech act verb to 'baptize' is actually pretty restricted.

Mey (2000) states that the performative of the act of baptizing is closely bound up with the utterance of precisely the words "I baptize thee".

According to Mey (2000) this particular language both guarantees, and vouch-safer, the exercise of a highly specific speech act, however, it can only achieve this performance as the legalized embodiment of a highly institutionalized and institutionally empowered, social function. The case of a doctor –patient's conversation comes to mind as a particularly good and well-studied example. According to Mey (2000) the power of language in a situation such as the medical interview depends on two factors: namely, the power that brings with one in virtue of one's status, for example as a physician or a patient, for and two successful negotiation in the course of the view. The second factor relation is mutual, as the doctor has to rely on the patient for obtaining critical information, just as the patient relies on the doctor for obtaining the remedy he or she seeks for his or her ailments.

Mey (2000) states that traditional act theory has put the cart before the horse. The cause of the performatives, paraded for inspection on every occasion, is a very special one indeed and one that is use of language. Mey (2000) believes that in real-world interaction successful performance inherent either in the user or in his or her words or speech acts, ultimately this power resides in the society, but is mediated and negotiated, through the use of pragmatic acts in the institutional setting of particular societal context.

When it comes to more mundane problems, the criterion of strict performativity' is ruefully inadequate. According to Mey (2000) the decent answer to a question is, one, which all participants in a particular context of question – asking and answering find acceptable. Mey (2000) states that people do not perform things with words and the performatives nor the speech (SAs).

In conclusion Mey (2000) states that indirect speech acts are not abnormal cases, (neither in theory nor practice), rather the problem cases are those that earlier were thought of as normal, because they seemed to conform to the standards set for speaking with the proper illocutionary force. As the case shown, the normally, of speech acting does not strictly depend on a particular verbalization, in fact, indirect speech can be a much more effective way of getting one's act together than using a regular speech act. According to Mey (2000) as pragmaticists people must ask our speech acting has, or can have, when performed in the actual social surroundings, as this will force the said interlocutor to revise whatever classifications he or she has adopted of speech acts and of his or her ways of being expressed, by placing greater emphasis on the ways the context creates the 'affordances' for our societal and linguistic conduct in short, of our acting pragmatically.

CLASSIFYING SPEECH ACTS

1. THE ILLOCUTIONARY VERB FALLACY

According to Mey (2000) Searle was unhappy with Austin for the fact that he (Austin) did not pay attention to the difference between speech acts and speech act verbs, the existence or non-existence of speech act verbs cannot be the criterion for the existence of non-existence of a particular speech act.

Leech (1983) as quoted by Mey (2000) state that this disagreement between Austin and other language philosophers, such as Searle and Leech, brought about a confusion of speech acts and speech act verbs. According to Mey (2000) this is called illocutionary-verb fallacy with respect to the problems having to do with the different kinds of speech acting and their relationships to illocutionary verbs, Searle uses a general warning: "differences in illocutionary verbs are a good guide, but are by no means a guide to difference in illocutionary acts.

2. SEARLE'S CLASSIFICATION OF SPEECH ACTS

According to Mey (2000) Searle has established twelve criteria for laying foundations for a better classificatory procedure, and yet out of those twelve criteria, Searle only uses four of them. Those four criteria are as follows:

- Illocutionary
- Direction of fit

- Expressed psychological state
- Content and the fifth criterion not included in Searle's reference.

According to Mey (2000) speakers and hearers are the principal actors on the speech-acting scene.

The sixth criterion is essential for a pragmatic understanding of speech acting, that sixth criterion is : contextually conditions of speech acting.

Searle has established five speech act categories, namely:

- Representatives or assertives
- Directives - commissive-expressive
- Declarations

DISCUSSION OF THE CATEGORIES

(a) Representative

According to Mey (2000) representatives are assertions about a state of affairs in the world, this carry the values 'true' or 'false'

Mey (2000) further states that assertions often represent a subjective state of mind. A complaint is justified if and only if the content of the complaint is truthful, but that is not the same as saying that the complaint is true.

(b) Directives

Mey (2000) states that these acts embody an effort on the part of the speaker to get the hearer to do something, to 'direct' him or her towards some goal. Directives differ in force: from pious wish to preemptory, harsh order.

(c) Commissive

According to Mey (2000) commissives operate a change in world by means of creating an obligation, however, this obligation is created in the speaker, not in the hearer, for instance, request and promise: request is a directive and promise is a commissive.

(d) Directives

Mey (2000) states that these acts embody an effort on the part of the speaker to get the hearer to do something, to 'direct' him or her towards some goal.

Directives differ in force: from pious wish to preemptory, harsh order.

(e) Expressive

Mey (2000) states that speech act expresses an inner state of the speaker. The expression is essentially subjective and tells people nothing about the world.

Another matter is the truth of the expressive speech act- or rather the truth of the embedded proposition, called a 'property' of the speech act by Searle, for example, Mey (2000) states that if he congratulates this means that there indeed has been an exam, and that the person has passed.

(f) Declarations

According to Mey (2000) this is Austin's 'original' category, the 'declarative' speech acts in: 'I declare this bridge to be opened'

This changes the states of affairs in the world with respect to the bridge another example. 'I declare you to be husband and wife', the marriage candidates' case to be just an ordinary pair of people, become a married couple. In Searle words: "Declarations bring about some alternation in the status of he referred to object or objects solely by virtue of he fact that declaration has been successfully performed"

AUSTIN AND SEARLE

According to Mey (2000) Searle is right in criticizing Austin for the deficiencies in his classificatory schema, for instance, the categories that Austin establishes are not naturally exclusive as their criteria often overlap. Mey (2000) states that Austin's description of individual speech acts ended up describing particular speech act verbs in English. The importance of his discovery has not diminish over time.

According to Mey (2000) Searle's taxonomy is superior to Austin. It is more oriented to the real world, in as much as takes its point or departure in what actually is the case, namely that people perform a speech act whenever they use language irrespective of the 'performative' criterion. According to Mey (2000) both Searle and Austin as philosophers had certain objectives in describing language which for linguistic purposes, did not always seem that relevant. Mey (2000) states that both Austin and Searle operate on the one sentence, one case principle which means that they use sentences that are characteristic of the 'case' under discussion for example, a speech act.

Mey (2000) states that with the development of the pragmatic linguistic, the shortcomings of the case approach have become more and more prominent.

According to Mey (2000) Austin has in discussing promises, limited himself to one single instance. The context in which a promise is made is of the utmost importance for its status as a promise and for its binding effects.

Mey (2000) states that pragmaticists must seriously pay attention to contextual conditions when describing speech acts and people's use of language.

If the contextual conditions for a particular speech act being realized are not met, then there is no speech act, no matter what is said or written.

2.3. POLITENESS THEORY

2.3.1 GRUNDY (2000)

According to Grundy (2000) Brown and Levinson have a growing interest in the linguistic expression of a social relationship. Grundy (200) states that in this chapter (politeness) we will be looking at the role of politeness phenomena in the language we use to communicate social meaning.

POLITENESS PHENOMENA

According to Grundy (2000) politeness principles have wide descriptive power in respect of language use, to be major determinants of linguistic behaviour, and to have universal status. Presupposition, and pragmatic preposition in particular, encourages economical communication by allowing shared propositions to be taken for granted without being stated. Grundy (2000) postulates that politeness phenomena go in the opposite direction.

THE EFFECTS OF POLITENESS

According to Grundy (2000) politeness affects everybody differently because polite utterances encode the relationship between the speaker and ourselves as addressed. Grundy (2000) believes that if the relationship between listeners and the addresser strategic imply the nature of relationship. According to Grundy (2000) appropriate speaker-addressee relationship makes linguistic politeness what it is.

Grundy (2000) states that the term politeness is used to describe the extent to which actions, including the way things are said, match addressees perceptions of how they should be performed, According to Grundy the definition of politeness presupposes that every statement made reveals politeness, for example,

(13) Do you wear glasses?

rather than

(14) Do you need glasses?

or

(15) Do you have to wear glasses show the speaker's concern for their addressee self-esteem. Similarly, I overheard one student say to another in the corridor

(16) Are there any toilets around?

not

(17) Where's the toilet?

or

(18) I need the toilet

What the student actually said, (16) and what she might have said (17) and (18) each has a slightly different politeness (17) and (18) would be appropriate in other situation with different discourse participants-and probably in these situations (16) would not be appropriate.

Dealing with complements I quote Grundy (200) 's examples: "One afternoon at work I was pouring myself a cup of tea in the kitchen when out tea-lady, Phyllis said to someone else in the kitchen but about me".

(19) He's very polite-spoke man aren't you?

to which I replied

(20) It's not what they say at home

In this example, according to Grundy (2000) what Phyllis said is a complement, because she was telling somebody about Grundy, and what Grundy said," It's not what they say at home ", it is standard politeness strategy.

According to Grundy (2000) the examples he made illustrate the pervasive nature of politeness: even the choice between seemingly semantically empty categories such as anaphoric **it** and **that** is politeness driven.

Grundy (2000) states that he reacted to Phyllis's compliment by demurring rather than thanking her. Holmes (1995) suggest that men tend to see compliments as threatening and women to see them as means of expressing rapport or solidarity. Grundy (2000) suggests that if he had been a woman, his contribution might well have exhibited its politeness status in a different away.

UNEQUAL ENCOUNTERS

According to Grundy (2000) taking a positive view of the world with an utterance like 'it is brilliant this machine', is a way of conveying respect to the addressee, and attaching that tag, 'isn't it', allows for the possibility of a second point of view. Grundy (2000) states as the less important person he should speak first when he met the Dean in the corridor.

According to Gu (1990) both Dean and him were to avoid disagreeing although in fact they had different opinions hence, this turns out to be a strong motivating in politeness exchange.

MINIMIZING FACE LOSS

According to Grundy (2000) people offer when they talk to something they have not asked for by redress rather than tell them they cannot satisfy their need. By so doing, they minimize their loss of face, for example,

(29) Peter: Are there any bacon buns?

Assistant: Only sausage

The offer itself as well as the implicit apology (only) have politeness status. However politeness often occurs where there is a difficulty of some kind.

BROWN AND LEVINSON'S MODEL OF POLITENESS STRATEGIES

According to Grundy (2000) a well elaborated work on linguistic politeness is Brown and Levinson's *Universals in language usage* (1978) which was revised as *some Universals in language usage* (1987). Grundy (2000) states that speakers from different areas, for instance, Tamil speakers in South India, Speakers of American and British English, and so on, provide a systematic description of cross-linguistic politeness phenomena which is used to support an explanatory model capable of accounting for any instance of politeness. According to Grundy (2000) Brown and Levinson's claim is that linguistic strategies are available in each language but there are cultural differences in what triggers their use. According to Brown and Levinson face is regarded as a property that all human beings have and it is comparable to self-esteem. Grundy (2000) states that face is always put at risk.

Grundy (2000) suggests that asking someone for a sheet of paper or telling them they have to wait see the doctor, or asking them if they have glasses, or complaining about the quality of their work on one's car, or asking them time, these all threaten that face of the person to whom they are directed. According to Grundy (2000) when people perform such type of actions (above), they are accompanied with redressive language design to compensate the threat to face and thus to satisfy the face wants of interlocutors. Grundy (2000) states that these are all examples of politeness, the use of redressive language design to compensate for face-threatening behavior. According to Brown and Levinson (1987) face comes in two varieties, positive face and negative face.

Grundy (2000) states that positive face is a person to be well thought of, and negative face is the people's wish not to be imposed on by others and to be allowed to go about their business unimpeded with their rights to free and self-determined action intact.

Brown and Levinson (1987) postulate that when one is facing threatening act, on record is the most usual. There are other subordinate on record strategies, making a total of five available strategies when one has a face-threatening act to perform.

1. Do the act on – record
 - (a) Badly without redress
 - (b) with positive politeness redress
 - (c) with negative politeness redress.
2. Do the act off-record
3. Don't do the act

Grundy (2000) gives these in order to support the strategies mentioned above: let me tell you about a real-world problem I had few years ago. At the time, we had a neighbour across the road who bought a very old car which he kept parking outside our house, this was not only unsightly but threatened to get walked on to our carpets.

What should I have done?

I knew that speaking to him about it constituted a face-threatening act, but how should I have done it? I could have done it boldly without redress and said:

- (42) Don't park your leaky old banger outside our house any more or I could have tried positive politeness:

(43) Bill my old mate, I know you want me to admire your new car from my front room, but how about moving it across the road and giving yourself the pleasure?

Or I could have tried negative politeness:

(44) I'm sorry to ask, but could you possibly park your car in front of your own house in future?

Or I could have tried an off-record strategy like.

(45) is your car all right outside our house? Or I could have chickened out, being content to harbor vandalastic fantasies instead.

Eventually I decided to combine positive and negative strategies to produce a hybrid, and so one Sunday I said.

(46) I'm sorry to ask, Bill, but do you want us to have the pleasure of admiring your new car from our front room forever? It is just that we've nowhere to park when it's outside our house.

Grundy (2000) states that what he said counted as an apology (negative politeness). He further states that if one speaker picks up the strategies, work with an equation in any distance differential and any power differential: Social distance + power differential which was being ignored in the positive - face oriented joke and the implicit ridiculing of hours painstaking cook which threatened the headmaster's negative face. According to Grundy (2000) in (46) the speaker has used a positive politeness. Grundy (2000) states that Brown and Levinson give a list of positive politeness

Positive	Negative politeness
- notice /attended to hearer's	Be conventionally indirect wants
- Exaggerate interests/approval	Question, hedge
- Intensity interest	Be pessimistic
- Use in –group identity marks	Minimize imposition
- Seek agreement	Give deference
Avoid disagreement	Apologize
Presuppose / assert common	Impersonalize
Ground	state the imposition as

Joke	a general rule
Assert knowledge of	Nominalize
Hearer's wants	Go on record as incurring
Be optimistic	a debt
Include speaker and	
Hearer's in the activity	
Give (or ask) reasons	
Assume / Assert reciprocity	
Give gift to hearer (goods, Sympathy, etc.)	

THE UNIVERSAL CHARACTER OF POLITENESS

According to Grundy (2000) over-classes favour distance encoding negative politeness strategies and under-classes favour solidarity encoding positive politeness strategies.

He believes that politeness phenomena are universal. Grundy (2000) criticizes Brown and Levinson's model, that the politeness usage do not have negative politeness function but instead constitute a social register.

Grundy (2000) has been seconded by a Japanese language philosopher, Matsumoto that whether Brown and Levinson's are right to treat deference as a politeness strategy. Grundy (2000) distinguishes two uses of deference:

- The situation where it is given expectably and unexceptionally as an automatic acknowledgment of relative social status in this case of honorifics reinforces an existing culture and is not a chosen politeness strategy at all.
- The situation where it is given expectably but exceptionally in a particular situation as a redressive strategy.

According to Grundy (2000) in the first situation the speaker is attempting to produce a context.

- Reflecting utterance acceptable to the addressee as addressee, and in the second situation to produce a context – creating utterance acceptable to the addressee in the situation shared by speaker and addressee. Grundy (2000) postulates that the

problem is in distinguishing between situations where speakers have little or no option in their choice tu / vous type alternatives and situations where they do, and can thus use honorifics as politeness markers invoke a new context.

According to Grundy (2000) objectors to Brown and Levinson's cite sounding examples of apparent deference which are claimed as evidence that some notion of social order or social interdependence rather than positive and negative face underlies politeness. Grundy (2000) states that Brown and Levinson's observe that politeness is not equally distributed.

REDEFINING THE FOLK – TERM

According to Grundy (2000) politeness is a term used to describe the relationship between how something is said to an addressee and that addressee's judgment as to how it should be said. Grundy (2000) states that politeness is capable of accounting for pragmatic uses of language but it can be confused with a prescriptive approach to linguistic etiquette.

POLITENESS AS MERELY REDRESSIVE ?

Grundy (2000) states that Casper claims that maxims of quality and manner satisfy face want in transactional discourse.

According to Grundy (2000) the claim misses the point that face-wants are satisfied precisely by giving priority to veracity and clarity in certain situations including in transactional discourse.

He also states that in casual conversation it is preferred to begin with a safe topic such as the weather, but this is not the case when talking on the telephone where time costs money.

According to Grundy (2000) both strategies are adapted to their context lastly. The theory of linguistic politeness which counts how things should be said, would be a strong candidate theory of pragmatic usage.

2.3.2. THOMAS (1995) : THEORIES OF POLITENESS

INTRODUCTION

Thomas (1995) states that politeness theory can be seen as a sub-discipline of pragmatics. He states that people use theories and paradigms in different ways and are operating with different definitions of politeness.

DELIMITING THE CONCEPT OF POLITENESS

According to Thomas (1995) there are five separate, though related, sets of phenomena:

- Politeness as a real –world goal
- Deference
- Register
- Politeness as a surface level phenomena
- Politeness as an illocutionary phenomenon

Politeness as a real – world goal

Thomas (1995) states that politeness as a real world goal has no place within pragmatic. According to Thomas linguistics are concerned about what speakers say and to how their hearers react.

Deference versus politeness

Deference is referred to the respect people show to other people by virtue of their higher status, greater age, and so on, while politeness is a matter of showing consideration to others.

Both deference and politeness can be manifested through general social behaviour e.g. deference can be shown by standing up when a person of superior status enters, or show politeness by holding a door open for someone else to pass through, as well as by linguistic means. According to Thomas deference is built into the grammar of languages such as Korea and Japanese, and also found in languages with a much reduced form in the grammar of languages which have a 'T/V system' – languages such as German, French and Russia.

Deference has little to do with pragmatics. Unless the speaker deliberately wishes to flout the behavioral norms of a given society, the speaker has no choices as to whether to use the deferent form or not. Thomas further states that the use of a deferent form does not in and of itself convey respect. The use of the colloquial form, e.g. Gaffer (meaning the boss) as term of reference or of address indicates that the speaker is in subordinates position, but convey no politeness.

REGISTER

According to Thomas (1995) register refers to systematic variation ...in relation to social context or the way in which the language we speak or write varies according to the type of situations.

Thomas states that register has little to do with politeness and little connection with pragmatics, since people have no real choice about whether or not to use formal language in informal situation. Thomas further states that register is primarily a socio-linguistic phenomenon: a description of the linguistic forms which occur in a particular situation.

According to Thomas (1995) the early work in politeness focused on utterance level realisation. Thomas postulates that the more grammatical complex or elaborate the strategy, the more highly is the politeness rated.

There are two issues arise from the above mentioned studies, namely, the first relates to pragmatics/socilo-linguistics divide: listing the linguistic forms which can be used to perform a speech act in a given language is not pragmatics, any more than say, listing all the words for adult human female, in a given language falls with the realm of pragmatics, and the second issue is: as soon as people put a speech act in context, people can see that there is no necessary connection between the linguistic form and the perceived politeness of a speech act.

Thomas (1995) states reason in order to support her statements, one is that a speech act is polite if it is costly to speaker or beneficial to the speaker or beneficial to the hearer, the second reason is illustrated in the example below:

Will you be kind enough to tell what time it is (and later)?

If you will be kind enough to speed up a little. According to Thomas these forms of request are much more polite than the normal: what's the time? And hurry up!. The third reason why it is unsafe to equate surface linguistic form with politeness is that some speech acts seem almost inherently impolite. Lastly, Thomas states that it is not linguistic alone which renders the speech act polite or impolite, but the linguistic form, the context of utterance, the relationship between the speaker and the hearer.

Politeness as a pragmatic phenomena

According to Thomas (1995)-language philosophers look at politeness as a pragmatic phenomena. They also interpreted politeness as a strategy used by a speaker in order to achieved goals, such as promoting or maintaining harmonious relations.

Politeness explained in terms of principles and maxims

Leech (1983) as quoted by Thomas sees politeness as crucial in explaining 'why people are often so indirect in conveying the co-operative principle in the sense that politeness can satisfactorily explain exceptions to and apparent deviation from the C.P.

Ambivalence and politeness

According to Thomas (1995) ambivalent is an utterance, which has more than one potential pragmatic force. Thomas states that by employing an utterance which is ambivalent it is possible to convey message which the hearer is liable to find disagreeable without causing undue offence. According to Thomas the pragmatic force in each case is ambivalent and it is left to the readers to decide (a) what the precise force of the message is and (b) whether or not it applies to them.

Pragmatic principles

Leech as quoted by Thomas (1995) sees the pragmatic principles (pp) as being of the same status as Grice's cooperative principle (CP). According to Thomas when people speak they do observe the Grice maxims. Thomas believes that there is a good deal of evidence that people do respond consciously to considerations of politeness. Thomas has identified the following maxims. Tact maxim, generosity maxim, Approbation maxim, modesty maxim and agreement maxim.

The tact maxim

The tact maxim states: minimize the expression of beliefs which imply cost to other, maximize the expression of beliefs which imply benefit to other.

Thomas (1995) states that this maxim is related to size of imposition (3rd pragmatic parameter), for instance, one can use minimizer's to reduce the implied cost to the hearer:

Just pop upstairs and...

Hang on a second!

I've got a bit of a problem

Whether or not the strategy of minimizing the expression of cost of other perceived as polite or not may be highly culture- specific.

A second aspect of the tact maxim is that of mitigating the effect of a request by offering optionally. Thomas states that this aspect resembles the second of Lakoff's rule of politeness. A third aspect of the tact maxim is the cost / benefit scale. If something is perceived as being to the hearer's benefit, X can expressed politely without employing indirectness.

The Generosity maxim

According to Leech (1983) the generosity maxim states: minimize the expression of benefit to self maximize the expression of cost to self. Thomas states that it would be better to say: minimize the expression of cost to other. This maxim explains why it is expression of benefit to other. Thomas states that generosity maxim explains why it is fine to say: you must come and have dinner with us, while the proposition that we will come and have dinner with you requires to be expressed indirectly. Help yourself! is perfectly polite while the proposition that you will help yourself may require a degree of indirectness.

Leech indicates, languages / cultures vary in the degree to which people are expected to apply this maxim. Underapplying it make the speaker appear mean, overapplying seem sarcastic, for example:

Example 13

Basil Fawlty to his wife: 13

Have another vat of wine, dear.

Example 14

Basil's wife is in hospital:

You just lie there with your feet up ... Thomas states that his focus is on the linguistic expression of generosity.

According to Thomas (1995) no members of one culture are more generous than members of another.

The approbation maxim

Thomas states that approbation maxim states: minimize the expression of beliefs which express dispraise of other, maximize the expression of beliefs which express approval of other. According to Thomas the operation, of this maxim is obvious: all things being equal we prefer to do so, to sidestep the issue, to give some sort of minimal response or to remain silent. Thomas states that in pragmatic norm regularity exists when someone fails to observe the norm.

The modesty maxim

The modesty maxim states: minimize the expression of dispraise of self, maximize the expression of self. According to Thomas the application of this varies from culture to culture.

The agreement maxim

According to Thomas (1995) this maxim expresses thus; minimize the expression of disagreement between self and other, maximize the expression of agreement between self and other? The warning supply concerning the need to take account of the relationship between speaker and hearer and of the nature of the interaction in which they are involved. Thomas observes that people are much more direct in expression their agreement, than disagreement.

The Pollyanna principle

According to Thomas (1995) this principle in its form refers to the use of minimizer's such as a bit (this essay's a bit short, when in fact it is much too short) but this is strategy

already dealt with under the heading of reducing the size of imposition relates to relexicalisation replacing an unpleasant one.

Thomas states that Leech's approach stress the point of making specific cross cultural comparisons and to explain cross-cultural differences in the perception of politeness and the use of politeness strategies.

According to Thomas Leech's maxims are seen as a series of social-psychological constraints influencing to a greater or less degree, the choices made within the pragmatic parameters. Thomas observes that some of these constraints apply universally, others might be entirely culture-specific, others still might be totally idiosyncratic.

Politeness and the management of face.

According to Thomas, the theory of politeness was put forward by Brown and Levison. Thomas states that within politeness theory individual feeling of self-worth or self-image can be damaged, maintained or enhanced through interaction with others. Face has two aspects namely, positive and negative. Thomas believes that individual's positive face is reflected in his or her desire to be liked, approved of, respected of, and appreciated by others, and negative face becomes clear in the desire not be impeded or put upon, to have the freedom to act as one chooses.

Face threatening acts

Thomas states that certain illocutionary forces are liable to damage or threaten another person's face, such acts are called Face threatening Acts (FTAs). Thomas postulates that illocutionary acts damage the hearer's positive face by, for example, insulting H, or the illocutionary acts damage the speaker's own positive face by for example, admit to having botched a job, or damage speaker's negative face. For example if a speaker is cornered into making an offer of help. According to Thomas if a particular individual wants to reduce the possibility. the damage to H's face or S's own face, he or she must adopt certain strategies.

Thomas states that the choice of strategy is made on the basis of the speaker's assessment of the size of FTA. The speaker calculates the size of FTA on the basis of the parameters of power (P) Distance (D) and rating imposition (R).

Superstrategies for performing face-threatening acts

According to Brown and Levison the speaker has to decide to do FTA or not. If the speaker decides to do or perform FTA, there are four possibilities: three sets of on – record superstrategies (perform the FTA on record without redressive action (bald-on – record), perform the FTA on record using positive politeness, perform the FTA on record using negative politeness), and one set of off –record strategies. Thomas states that if the degree of face threat is too great, the speaker avoids the FTA altogether.

Performing an FTA without any redress (Bald on record)

There are occasions when external factors constrain an individual to speak very directly.

Thomas (1995) states that a situation which combines external constraints make a 'May Day' call from a foundering ship, this would demand speaking with maximum efficiency. Thomas acknowledges that if the speaker finds out that the FTA is very small, the request may be made bald-on-record.

Situations in which no attempt is made to influence FTA, regardless of the rating of the imposition, are found where the power differentials is great.

Performing an FTA with redress (positive politeness)

According to Brown and Levison's theory (politeness) when one speaks to someone he may orient himself towards that individual's positive face, and employs positive politeness.

Brown and Levison have listed fifteen positive politeness strategies.

Thomas states that Brown and Levinson's positive politeness strategies are parallel to Leech's politeness principle: seek agreement avoid disagreement, be optimistic, give sympathy?

Performing an FTA with redress (negative politeness)

According to Thomas negative politeness is oriented towards a hearer's negative face which appeals to the hearer's desire not to be impeded or put upon, to be left free to act as they choose. Thomas states that negative politeness manifests itself in the use of conventional politeness markers, deference markers, and so on. Brown and Levinson list ten negative politeness strategies. Many warning notices employ negative politeness. Thomas postulates that cartoon characters also use negative politeness.

Performing a FTA using off-record politeness.

Brown and Levinson list fifteen strategies for performing off record politeness. These strategies include the following: give hints; use metaphors; be ambiguous or vague. Example, the first of strategy.

1 (hinting) the second of strategy 9 involving a widely –involved Japanese metaphor, the final example is of 15 (be incomplete, use ellipsis) which is one of the most frequently – encountered off-record politeness strategies:

Example 34

One student to another

That isn't a crème egg I can see you eating it, is it?

Do not perform FTA

According to Thomas (1995) the final strategy of Brown and Levinson's do not perform FTA is self-explanatory.

Brown and Levison's supporter Tanaka discusses two sorts of saying nothing. Tanaka terms these two strategies 00C genuine and 00C-strategies:

00C-genuine: S do not perform a speech act, genuine intends to let the matter remain closed.

S/ he does not intend to achieve the perlocutionary effect

00C-strategic: S does not perform a speech act, but expects a to infer her/his wish to achieve the perlocutionary effect.

According to Thomas saying nothing is in itself a massive FTA for example, failing to express condolences to some on the death of a loved one.

CRITICISM OF BROWN AND LEVINSON CRITICISMS HAVE BEEN MADE TO THEIR MODEL OF POLITENESS.

Thomas (1995) states that the description of the FTA implies that an act is threatening to the face of either the speaker or the hearer.

Brown and Levinson's model (of politeness) predict that the greater the degree of face-threat, the greater will be the degree of indirectness.

Brown and Levison (1987) argue that some speech acts are inherently face threatening.

According to Thomas (1995) utterances pose face threat at all, and saying anything at all (or even saying nothing) is potentially face-threatening

POLITENESS VIEWED AS A CONVERSATIONAL CONTRACT.

According to Fraser (1990), people are constrained in interaction by what he calls a conversational contract (CC), the understanding which people bring to an interaction of the norms obtaining within that interaction and of their rights and obligations within it. Thomas states that Fraser's model of politeness is very sketchy and difficult to judge how it operates.

Thomas further states that the inclusion of rights and obligation's in Fraser model is welcomed and the approach fits in well the notion of activity types.

POLITENESS MEASURED ALONG PRAGMATIC SCALES.

According to Thomas (1995) Brown and Levinson and Leech's model of politeness are criticized because of being culturally based. According to Spencer-Oatey problems of cultural –specificity can be overcome by dimensions summarized as follows: individual will select the point on the scale according to their cultural values and the situation within which they are operating. According to Thomas, Spencer-Oatey's scales are as follows:

1. Need for consideration: autonomy – imposition
2. Need to be valued: approbation – criticisms
Interest / concern – disinterest
3. Need for relational identity: inclusion – exclusion
Equality – superrordinatory / subordination

2.3.3. REITER (2000) POLITENESS THEORY

According to Reiter (2000) politeness refers directly and / or indirectly to society Reiter states that though politeness is performed by an individual, it remains a social issue and it

ends up building a social interaction. Reiter (2000) proposes standard which is recognizable to both the actor and the hearer. The standard is based on collective values, which are part of a socialization process, for example, deference is a collective value which is shown to elderly people, physical distance, and so on has been programmed early in people 's lives.

Reiter (2000) argues that politeness is not a characteristic inherent to the action itself but is constituted by an interaction relationship. Politeness is a form of social interaction, a form that mediates between the individual the social issues. Polite or impolite act is performed by an individual whose choices for instructionally of such an act are based upon collected norms and whose motivation in performing the act is that of building social interaction.

LAKOFF'S RULES OF POLITENESS.

According to Reiter (2000) before discussion people began by listing principles of conversation which are the starting point for the explanation of politeness phenomena.

Reiter (2000) states that Grice's Co-operative principle and maxims of conversation were formulated on the assumption that the main purpose of conversation is the effective exchange of information. Lakoff (1973) has adopted Grice's universal construct of conversational principle in order to account for pragmatic competence and thus fall within the domain of linguistics. Lakoff (1973) as quoted by Reiter (2000) put the rules of politeness as follows:

1. Formality: keep aloof
2. Deference: give options
3. Camaraderie : show sympathy

Lakoff describes politeness as a tool used for reducing friction in personal interaction.

Lakoff (1973) claims that Grice's maxims concentrate on the clarity of the conversation.

Reiter (2000) states that Lakoff reformulated her rules however she fails to provide definitions of the terms she uses, instead she appears to equate formality with aloofness deference and camaraderie with showing sympathy.

Reiter (2000) says without a definition of how aloofness, deference and camaraderie work it becomes difficult to see how politeness will be expressed.

Brown and Levinson (1987) say the problem with Lakoff's analysis is that she does not offer an integrating theory which places her rules of politeness in a framework which explains their form in terms of social relationships and exceptions about humans as interactants. Reiter (2000) states that Lakoff puts pragmatic rules on a level with other linguistic rules and loses the distinction between sentence meaning and communicative function.

LEECH'S PRINCIPLE AND MAXIMS OF INTERACTION.

Leech adopts Grice's construct of conversational principles and elaborates a thorough analysis of politeness.

Reiter (2000) states that politeness is seen as the key pragmatic phenomena for indirectness

He says the most important point in Leech's theory of politeness is the distinction between a speaker's illocutionary goal and a speaker's social goal.

Reiter states that Leech's framework is consisted to two main parts: textual rhetoric and interpersonal rhetoric each of which is constituted by a set of principles.

Politeness is treated within the domain of interpersonal rhetoric, which consist of three unrelated languages, English, Tamil and Tzetal, departed from the observance of the conversational maxims for motives of politeness.

Reiter (2000) postulates that Brown and Levinson noticed similarities in the linguistic strategies employed by speakers of the three languages mentioned above and observed that same strategies were used, thus assuming the universality of politeness as a regulative factor in all conversational exchanges.

Reiter (2000) states the similarities that brown and Levinson observed in language use, they refer them to a model person (MP)

According to Reiter (2000) an MP is a fluent speaker of natural language who has the ability to reason from ends to means that will satisfy those ends and face

Politeness strategies

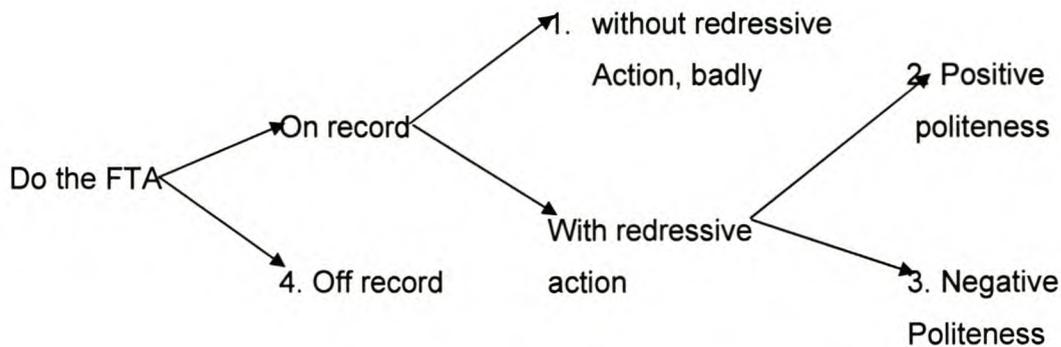
Brown and Levinson (1987) assume that all competent adult members of society are concerned about their face, the self-image they recognised other people have similar face wants. Two aspects of (face) have been distinguished namely, 'negative' face and 'positive' face. Reiter (2000) further states that competent adult members are also rational agents.

Brown and Levinson (1987) suggest that there are inherent acts which threaten the (face) needs of one or both participants. Both authors agree that there is a threat to specific 'face' wants.

Brown and Levinson regard face – threatening acts (FTAs) as those acts which run contrary to the addressee's and / or the speakers positive and / or negative (face). They propose a scale designed to evaluate the degree of politeness required in a specific situation. Brown and Levinson (1987) claim that a speaker assesses the required face work according to three independent and culturally – sensitive social variables, which they claim are universal. First is the social distance (D) between speaker and hearer, where the speaker and addressee are on a scale of horizontal difference: the second variable is the relative power (P) between the participants where the speaker and addressee are located on a scale of vertical difference. The third variable is the absolute ranking (R) of imposition in particular, the degree of imposition intrinsic to a particular act.

According to Reiter (2000) because of interconnection, the rational agents are able to choose strategies that will help them to either shun or mitigate FTAs:

Brown and Levinson's (1987) face concept agrees with the following in order to support the above statements:



DON'T DO THE FTA

Reiter (2000) states that the first strategy is employed when there is no risk of loss of 'face' involved; the participants have no doubts about the communicative intention of the speaker, that is promise. The second and third strategies involve redressive action: the speaker tries to maintain his/her 'face' as much as possible and at the same time she / he tries to mitigate the potential threat of the act. The fourth strategy is employed when the risk of loss of 'face' is great, the communicative act is ambiguous, that is, a hint and its interpretations left at the addressee. Reiter (2000) states that 'off record' strategy is related to the flouting Grice's maxims in which meaning is to some degree negotiable by means of conversational implicates. Brown and Levinson (1987)'s fifth strategy includes cases in which nothing is said due to the facts that the risks involved is too great.

Brown and Levinson' s distinction between 'negative' and 'positive' politeness' is related to Goffman ' concepts of 'avoidance' / presentational rituals'.

Brown and Levinson see ways of expressing politeness as mutually exclusive since ' positive politeness' is characterized by the expression of approval and appreciation of the addressee's personality with the making him or her feel part of an in-group.

Reiter (2000) states that negative politeness' concentrates on those aspects of the addressee's 'face' wants, which are concerned with the desire not be imposed upon and is characterized by self-effacement and formality. Reiter (2000) puts the following examples: examples of positive politeness' put forward by the authors are: paying attention to the other person, showing exaggerated interest, approval and sympathy, use of in-group

identity markers, and so on. Examples of 'negative' politeness' relate to etiquette, avoidance of disturbing others, and so on.

At last, Brown and Levinson (1978) claim that when thinking about politeness, negative politeness is the people's familiar formal politeness.

A view point more explicitly expressed by Leech (1983) who claims 'negative' politeness' is a more 'weighty' consideration than 'positive politeness'.

CHAPTER 3

THE SPEECH ACT ADVICE

3.1. STRATEGIES IN REQUESTING AND GIVING ADVICE (DEPACUA & DUNHAM (1993))

Before giving strategies in requesting and giving advice, I find it necessary to give either meaning of the term Advice. Depacua and Dunham (1992: 519) defined advice as opinion or counsel given by people who perceive themselves as knowledgeable and, or who the advice seeker may think are credible, trustworthy and reliable.

The strategies that Depacua and Dunham found in the advising discourse were Explanation, elaboration and narration. These strategies were found when they were collecting data from the radio advice programs broadcasted by WOR radio in New York City.

Findings

From a global perspective, the radio advice telephone call is divided into two stages, namely the diagnostic and the directive there may be a return to the earlier diagnostic stage because more information is needed before advice can be given.

Requesting for advice

Specific requests for advice were not as common as they had expected. The requests made were not requests at all. These requests often serve to limit the topic so that the listener understands the limits or the options open to the speaker. For example:

JOB INTERVIEW: NATURAL DATA

Alice: I've got something I need to ask your advice about

(Alice: Ndi na zwinwe zwine nda toda ngeletshedzo yanu khazwo).

Brenda: Sure, What?

(Brenda: Ngoho, mini?)

Alice: I got called about a job interview in New Jersey but I don't know if I should go or not. It's not a job I'm really interested in but then again it would be a good Interviewing experience.

(Alice: Ndo vhidzwa malugana na nyambedzano ndingo ya mushumo ngei New Jersey fhedzi a thidivhi arali ndo tea u ya kana u dzula. A su mushumo une nda u takalela fhedzi I dovha nyambedzano ndingo tshenzhemo yavhudi)

STATEMENT OF RADIO

In the radio advice situation, the caller must first state the problem or describe the situation which has prompted the call. Callers to radio advice program generally did not come up with clear-cut statements of problems initially. If required probing on the part of their hearers to elicit clearly what the actual problems were. In Maynard (1980) examples, he terms 'transitional

Topics: Topics that are not in and of themselves the focus of the conversational interaction, but serve as transitions or bridges to the actual topic.

Before advice givers give advice, there is often a long process of clarification and exploration. This becomes evident in Bernard Meltzer program transcript. The caller (Suzan) describes how a neighbour has been complaining about the Malodor of oil coming from Suzan's property. She and the has station on their property and now operate a service station there. As illustrated below (2), I take Bernard Meltzer several attempts to find out exactly what the caller's problem is.

(SERVICE STATION) TRANSCRIPT: BERNARD MELTZER

Meltzer = Host

Suzan = Caller

Meltzer: Good afternoon to you, friend

(Meltzer: Masiari avhudi kha inwi khonani)

Suzan: Good afternoon, Dr. Meltzer. I heard you in the car in New Jersey, and I listen to you and my mom and dad also listen to you and they are so anxious about a problem that I have, they told me to call, so I called.

(Suzan: Masiari a vhudi, vho Dokotela Meltzer. Ndo vha pfa ndi modoroni ndi ngei New Jersey, ndo vha thetshelesa na vhabebi vhangwa vho vha thetshelesa na u vha khou fhisea nga thaidzo ine nda vha nayo, vho mmbudza uri ndi foinele, zwino ndo founela).

Meltzer: Right, lets talk about your problem.

(Meltzer: Ndi zwone, kha ri ambe nga ha thaidzo yanu).

Suzan: OK

(Suzan: Ho luga)

Meltzer: Problems are nice

(Meltzer: Thaidzo ndi dzavhudi.)

Suzan: Ah, we own a service station which must to be..um.. also had gasoline. Ah, the reason why, um, we took out the gasoline, we sand-filled the tanks, was because basically we couldn't compete with the big guys and a new neighbour moved in next which is very close.

(Suzan: Ee, ri na garatshi ine I tea u –um—ina gasolina. Ee, mbuno yau u ndi ngani , mm, ro bvisa gasoline, ra dadza mathannga nga mutavha, zwo vhangwa nga u ra vha ri tshikhou balelwa u tatisana na vhanwe vhahulwane na uri muhura muswa o dzhena hune ha touvha tsinisa na rine).

Meltzer: Right

(Meltzer: Ndi zwone)

Suzan: And they started a complaint about as some sort of smell, they say its oil, gasoline and they ---

(Suzan: Vha thoma nga u vhilaela nga munwe munukho vha ri ndi ole, gasoline na u vha--)

Meltzer: Coming from where? Into the air or into his basement.

(Meltzer: U tshi bva ngafhi? U tshi ya tshikhalani kana u tshi ya nduni yawe.

Suzan: Into his basement. A smell his basement. He converted a house, a one family house into three – floor-type clerical business and um, so we sand filled the tanks--- we figured we're just gonna get out of it. You know we have...

(Suzan: U tshi ya nduni yawe. Munukho u tshiya nduni yawe. O shandukisa nndu, nndu ya muta muthihi yo vho vha bindu la dziofisi la foloro tharu na mm, ro dadza mathannga nga mutavha.. ro vhona uri ri dovha ro bva khazwo. Ni a divha ri na)...

Meltzer: You filled it with sand.

(Meltzer: No dadza nga mutavha).

Suzan: Yes, we had an environmental lawyer, he's like, basically a specialist, with our engineer, and they said that there's no reason to think... there's nothing ever happened- we just didn't want a hassle.

(Suzan: Ee, ro vha na ramilayo wa zwamupo, u nga ndi makone, na muinzhiniare washu, vho amba uri a huna u humbula... a huna tsho bvelelaho- a ri todi vhuleme).

Meltzer: Right

(Meltzer: ndi zwone)

Suzan: And we got into different directions.

(Suzan: na u ro swika hune ra fhambana)

Meltzer: And so now where's the hassle?

(Meltzer: Zwino vhuleme vhungafhi?)

Suzan: The hassle? He's still bothering us. He still says he has the smell, and he ...

(Suzan: Vhuleme? u kha di ri dina. U kha di amba uri huna munukho, nau...)

Meltzer: (Can't) you see, the question is, does his bothering mean anything to you? What did the EPA people say?

(Meltzer: A ni zwivhoni, mbudziso ndi ya uri, u dina hawe zwi amba tshithu kha inwi? Vhathu vha EPA vha ri mini?)

In the conversation above the caller begins by talking about how she knows who Meltzer is, narrates some background information and elaborates on this background information while Bernard Meltzer is probing directing and focusing the caller to explicitly state her problem. And in the middle of Suzan's narrative (2a) about the neighbour complaint, Meltzer probes in order to get the facts so that he can give advice:

(2a) (Service station) Meltzer and Suzan

17 Suzan: And they started a complaint

17 (Suzan: Na u vho thoma nga mbilaelo)

18 About ah some sort of smell – they say it's oil, gasoline and they =

18 Nga ha munwe munukho vho- vha ri ndi ole, gasoline na u vha =

19. Meltzer : = Coming from where?

19 Meltzer : = U bva ngafhi?

20. Into the air or into his basement?

20. U ya muyani kana nduni yawe?

It is Meltzer 's use of focusing strategies, which enables him to identify first a portion of the real problem and then to finally nail down the real issue several terms later (2b).

(2b) (Service Station) Meltzer and Suzan

33. Suzan : And we got into different directions =
Suzan: Ro swika hune ra fhambana =
34. Meltzer : And so now where's the hassle
Zwino vhuleme vhu ngafhi
35. The hassle?
Vhuleme
36. Suzan: The hassle? He's still bothering us.
Vhuleme? U kha di ri dina
37. He still says he has the smell, and he //
U kha di amba
38. Meltzer: (Can't) you see the question is, does his .
Meltzer: A ni zwi vhoni, mbudziso ndi ya uri
39. Bothering mean anything to you? What did the EPA people say-
U dina hawe zwi amba tshithu kha inwi? Vhathu vha EPA vha ri mini?
138. Suzan : Well, its like very nerve-racking, you know and the guy
**Suzan : zwino, zwi nga zwi khou dina, ni a divha na ho yu muuna o
amba hunzhi, uri u tama u renga fhethu hashu.**
141. Meltzer : See, there's the answer
Meltzer: Vhonani, huna phindulo

THE ROLE OF NARRATION

Narration is an act whereby an interlocutor tells a story or recounts an anecdote. It gives background information that clarifies or defines the situation narration may be lengthened or made complex by elaborating situation.

Interaction Strategies

Advice seekers use several strategies in their search for help. The principal ones are explanation, elaboration and narration. The advice givers employ different strategies in order to instruct with their speakers (advice seekers). This is done just to maintain and

develop conversation. For example, An excerpt from a Sally Jessy Raphael radio advice program.

(3a) (Marriage problem) Sally Jessy Raphael and Caddie

Caddie : This is Caddie ... and I want to ask how I can handle a problem in my marriage.

Caddie : **Ndi Caddie. Ndi toda u vhudzisa uri ndi nga tandulula hani thaidzo kha mbingano yanga**

Raphael : Sure, Caddie

Raphael : **Ndi zwone, Caddie**

Caddie : Uh, my husband gets mad over something I said, did, or didn't do. Uh, he doesn't SAY

Caddie : **Aha, munna wanga u dinalea nga zwine nda amba, u ita, kana zwe nda si ite, Aha** anything. Instead, he does something MEAN, in order to punish or vent his feelings, uh you know, **ha ambi tshithu. Nthani, u ita zwinwe ndi ambe, u toda u mpfisa vhutungu, kana u dinalea nga** religious feelings of anger. **Zwine a pfisa zwone, Aha ni a divha, zwipfi zwa vhurereli, mbiti.**

Raphael : I understand that we are talking about somebody whose reaction is, shall we say, infantile, yeh.

Raphael : **Ndi a pfesesa zwa uri ri khou amba nga muthu ane nyito yawe, ringa ri ndi ya, vhuhana, ee.**

Caddie : Right

Caddie : **Ndi ngoho.**

Raphael : Right. In other words, um, give me what I want or what I think I should do, or, let me have the power and if you don't do it my way, I'll punish you.

Raphael : **Ndi zwone, Nga manwe maipfi, mm, mpheni zwine nda toda kana zwine nda humbula u ita, kana, ntendeleni ndi vhe na**

**maanda na uri arali na sa ita nga ndila in nda funisa zwone
ndi do ni pfisa vhutungu.**

Caddie : Right, So how can I get him to express his feelings at the time he is angry so I can always do everything the way he wants me to.
(spoken slowly and deliberately.)

Caddie : **Ndi ngoho zwino ndi nga kona kani u wana a bwise vhupfiswa
hawe, tshifhinga tsha
Musi o dinalea ngauralo misi yothe ndi nga kona u ita zwothe
nga ndila ine a toda ndi tshi ita. (u bula nga u ongolowa o di
imisela)**

From this excerpt, the advice seeker, Caddie, begins with an opener, "This is Caddie," which she immediately follows with a lead-in, "I want to ask how I can handle a problem in my marriage. After Raphael's utterance of encouragement,"Sure, Caddie. Caddie continuous on to state the problem, :my husband gets mad over something I said, did or didn't do? Caddie then proceeds to elaborate the stated problem. However, Caddie's actual request for advice is not made until a little in the interaction, "So how can I get him to express his feelings?"

The caller uses these strategies over a series of terms. The host keeps the conversation moving in appropriate direction and provides the caller with verbal feedback.

Raphael probing strategies reveal that the caller's (Caddie) true problem is that the husband is abusive. The caller produces much narrative and elaboration and this serve to elucidate the nature and extent of the problem.

ROLES OF ADVICE GIVERS

The advice givers have a minute of roles to play in while or giving advice to the advice seekers. Primarily they have the following roles:

- To help advice seekers clarify their problems, and then be able to provide advice.
- To help advice seekers sort through their already decided upon options.
- To help advice seekers implement their decisions successfully, and

The advice-giving in many cases is a complex process whereby hearers (a) help callers reach their own decision as to how this problem can be resolved, and (b) offer global or encompassing advice that will serve to help out not only the caller, but anyone who may be in a similar situation! example of this process from farther along in the same Sally Jessy Raphael transcript discussed earlier.

(3b) (Marriage problem) Sally Jessy
Raphael and Caddie

Caddie : (Probable) the only way out or the way to change him is not
change him but it is for me

Caddie : **(Khanwe) ndila nthihi fheidzi ya u ova kana ndila ya u mu
shandukisa a si u mu** The advice-giving in many cases is a complex process whereby hearers (a) help callers reach their own decision as to how this problem can be resolved, and (b) offer global or encompassing advice that will serve to help out not only the caller, but anyone who may be in a similar situation! Example of this process fro farther along in the same Sally Jessy Raphael transcript discussed earlier.

(3b) (Marriage problem) Sally Jessy
Raphael and Caddie

Caddie : (Probable) the only way out or the way to change him is not
change him but it is for me

Caddie : **(Khanwe) ndila nthihi fheidzi ya u ova kana ndila ya u mu
shandukisa a si u mu**
To leave him but it is for me to leave because he won't change
probably.
**shandukisa fhedzi ndi nne ane nda tea u mu tutshela nga uri
khanwe ha nga shanduki.**

According to Labour and Fanshel (1997) helping the caller to realize the solution to her/his problem is a classic counseling procedure.

Later in excerpt (3c) Raphael offers a global advice. Her global advice also addressed to the listening audience who might be in a similar situation and support.

(3c) (Marriage problem) Sally Jessy Raphael and Caddie.

170. Raphael := and make me miserable and many times women go for
170. Raphael : = **U ita uri ndi vhasale tshifhinga tshinzhi vhasadzi vha a tangana nanzwo.**
171. Counseling uh, even if, if he won't go you go alone or you
171. **Ngeletshdzo aha, naho, arali a sa nga yi iyani ni nothe kana l yani**
172. Go to one of the women's self centres and say, you know.
172. **Iyani dzi senthara dza vhasadzi ni ambe, ni a divha.**
173. "Here's my situation. Here's my age" And they have
- Hafhu ndi tshiimo tshanu. Heyi ndi minwaha yanga.**
174. Groups. And there's tremendous strength in going into a
- Na u vha na zwigwada. Na u huna nungo dzi kanukisaho kha u dzhenelela**
175. Group and sitting with other women and they tell you how
- 175 Zwigwada na u dzula na vhanwe vhasadzi na u vha do ni vhudza uri**
176. They're handled it. And they lend a certain amount of comfort,
- 176 **Vho tandulula hani iyo thaidzo. Na u vho ha dzhenisa hani**
- 177 Comfort and if you have to leave, a certain amount of place.
- 177. u diphina na u arali ni tshi tuwa, hunwe fhethu**
178. To go and a certain amount of support
- ni tshi ya na u dzhenisa thikhedzo)**

But some advice givers offers a direct advice to the advice seekers, for example, in Meltzer program about the oil smell, Meltzer tells the caller exactly what he thinks she should do.

3.2 ADVICE AND POLITENESS

3.2.1 HERNANDEZ – FLORES (1999).

1. INTRODUCTION

Several research (Fraser: 1981: et al) have pointed out the close links of the interactants strategies with the social rules that are observed in their community Meir (1995: 387)

states that politeness is doing what is socially acceptable” and Ehlich (1992: 76) state that in order to be able to qualify in politeness as such, we need to know what constitutes process being-social”. These affirm that politeness is based on a social ideology. Flores (1999:37) believes that members of a community have to follow the rules of a particular community in order to maintain/continue their membership in a group.

Recent cultural approaches to politeness have used the particular features of their cultural identity in order to describe politeness phenomena in their communities. For example Mao (1994) deals with Mianze (prestige or reputation) and Lian (the respect of the group for a man with a good moral reputation) as components of Chinese face, that become evident in polite Chinese interactions.

Flores’ article is in keeping with the approach to politeness in accordance with a particular social ideology concerning face, in this case the social ideology arising in European Spanish colloquial conversations. According to Hernandez-Flores (1999:38) politeness can also be used for enhancing and strengthening the interactants relationship in accordance with the particular ideology of the group.

THE NOTIONS OF FACE AND POLITENESS IN BROWN AND LIVINSON’S THEORY

Brown and Levison’s theory of politeness is based on the notion of face, that is, ‘the public self-image that every member wants to claim for himself.

According to Brown and Levinson (1987:13) face consists of two related and universal wants: “the desire to be unimpeded in one’s actions (negative face) and the desire (in some respects) to be approved of (positive face).

The features ascribed to face wants focused on the individuality of people, on their right to privacy, by claiming own territories (negative face) and social approbation of own wants (positive face). Mao (1994) proves that Mianzi and Lia have different social postulates from negative and positive face. Although Mianzi and negative face have in common the notion of ‘respect behaviour’ they refer to different facts; negative face refers to the individual’s territorial integrity and Mianzi refers to the individual’s dependence on society recognition. Lian, as positive face, deals with the desire to be liked and approved by the others’ but it

has a much different background from positive face: it has a deep moral sense, it is not negotiable and it is not attached to any sense of closeness, as positive face is.

Placencia (1996) states that an important cultural value operating in Ecudivian face is the performance of some social rules that appoint status to the members of the group. Flores (1999) postulates that asking things or giving advice in Spanish colloquial conversation is acceptable, but other acts such as offering and complimenting are said to be threatening for the negative face of the hearer.

THE CONTENTS OF FACE IN SPANISH CULTURE

According to Bravo (1996) the contents of face can be defined as the components of one groups of socio-cultural identity. Bravo (1996) uses the concept autonomy and affiliation as they have better links with Brown and Levinson's concepts of negative face. The concepts autonomy and affiliation are methodological categories dealing with face and responding to a human requirement: the first category refers to the fact of perceiving, and to be perceived by people as someone with his/her own surroundings inside the group, the second category refers to the fact of perceiving and to be perceived, as an integrated part of the groups.

Flores (1999) states that the categories of autonomy and affiliation are aimed at in terms of social behaviour are open to cultural interpretation. Autonomy and affiliation are empty methodological categories which are required to be filled with contents, that is with the components of one group's socio-cultural identity. The contents of the categories of face autonomy and affiliation have to be defined in the particular socio-cultural groups, for example, Bravo (1996) puts one of the contents of autonomy categories, for example, "el deseo de verse frente al grupo como un individuo original y consciente de sus cualidades sociales positivas" (Bravo 1996:63) (The individual's wishes to be seen as an original person and that she is self-aware of his/her positive social qualities). According to Flores (1999:40) in order to fulfill this face, the individual is expected to display his/her self-confidence by means of assertive behaviour. Then, in a Spanish setting, conversation is seen as a pleasant activity where controversy and the utterance of original ideas from the participants are appreciated. Flores (1999) argues that in Spanish colloquial conversation, self-affirmation allows the speaker, to stress her/his own positive social qualities and thus it makes her/him stand out in the group. On the other hand, according to Bravo, one of the

possible contents for affiliation in the Spanish context seems to be the notion of *confianza* that is translated by Thur as closeness or a sense of deep familiarity (1998:222). Flores (1999) postulates that the concept of *confianza* belongs to the sphere of Spanish sociability and it refers to a style of interaction or communication. Flores (1999) also points out that speakers with *confianza* are allowed to speak and without *confianza* means distance and distance is evaluated negatively in a context of friends and relatives in Spain.

Bravo (1996:63) supports Flores by pointing out that the individual has his/her right to stay in the group by showing his/her own positive qualities-by being self-affirmative. According to Flores (1999) the ideal of *confianza* conflict with the features negative face because *confianza* means a close relationship between the interactants and this threaten their negative face, on the other hand, the features of positive face does not fit the ideal of self-affirmation, since self-affirmation entails decisive and emotional assertions that can threaten the ideal of being approved of.

ADVICE AND POLITENESS

Brown and Levinson (1987:76) observe that the reason for using politeness with advice is the potential threat to the negative face of the hearer, that is advice is included in the type of acts that "put so me pressure on the hearer to do the act" (1987:66). Flores (1999) states that advice involved the utterance of the speakers personal ideas, self-affirmation would stands for the engagement of the speaker with these ideas. Giving advice works as the speaker's desire for self-affirmation because she/he is expressing a personal ideas, where as the hearer still has the right of accepting or rejecting advice. Bravo (1998) points out that politeness is not always used because of conflictual reasons, as a way of avoiding or mitigating a threat to the other's face. But according to Flores (199) politeness can be used as a way of reaching friendly and pleasant interaction, which brings the relationship up in accordance with the cultural rules for social contact in the particular group. For example, in Spanish colloquial conversation the reason for being polite would then be the necessity of keeping a balance between the interactions' faces, that is, between their respective wishes of autonomy and affiliation.

ANALYSIS

Flores' data are tape-recorded conversations between friends and relatives in Salamanca (Spain) during situations visits. The situational roles of the speakers have been used in the analysis.

(1) The speakers and their roles

Pili: Women, 55 years old. Hostess

Gabriel: Man, 57 years old. Host. Married to Pili.

Maria: Women, 26 years old. The hostess' and host daughter

Julian: Man, 26 years old. Maria's boyfriend

Juan: Man, 44 years old . Guest. She and her husband (Juan) have a newly established friendship with Pili and Gabriel.

Situation: Pili, Gabriel, Maria and Julian are seated on the banks of a river at their country house in a dry area of Spain. They several types of animals at the house, and some ducks have just been Incorporated too. Elsa and Juan arrive to visit their friends. They were expected, but nor at any Concrete time.

1. Elsa : Buenas tardes
Good afternoon
2. Pili : Buenas tardes
Good afternoon
3. Maria : [Hola]
Hello
4. Juliana: [buenas tardes]
Good afternoon
5. Elsa : Estames de amos de casa if
'We were doing housework
Hasta que non se friega...se...and since the washing up
6. (Sight Laugh) tal---- (morning the dog away)
Wasn't done---the ----so
chucho!
Mutt!"

7. Pili : Dice Celia que los
' Celia says the the"
8. Elsa : (She sees the ducks in the river); huy!=
'Wow'='
9. Pili : Ah, (eso) no lo habias visit? =
oh, haven't you seen (this) before?
10. Elsa : = ;Pero teneis rambien patos?=
' So, do you have ducks also?
11. Pili : =;eh?
'What'
12. Elsa : -;ay que bonitos!
=oh how pretty they are!
13. Pili : () dice Celia que cuando
() Celia says that when'
14. Elsa : ; por que?
"Why?'
15. Juan : (He is watching the trouts leaping in the river); alli hay una
chiquinina, chiquinina 'there is
little, hittle trout! (oh, how pretty they are!'
18. Pili : Nosotros empeza – empezamos llevan –
We started, we started by bringing'
19. Elsa " =;por que notraeis ... cisnes?
= 'Why don't you bring ... swans?
20. Maria : ;Cisnes? (;aqui?)
'Sure?
21. Elsa : [(Claro)]
'Sure?
22. Maria : = (Slight Laugh)
23. Elsa : pa' que anden por aqui, hu dicho tu parde que va a hacer, el arca de
24. Noe.
'So they can be around here, your father has said that he's making.
Noah's ark?
25. Gabriel: es que ya lo es
'This is it already

26. Julian: Ya esta--- en camino

'This is already.... on the way'

27. Gabriel: =Este es el arca de Noe, ya.

This is Noah's ark already

In Flores' sequence after inter change of greetings (lines 1-4) three topics arise. Two of them) lines 7,13,14 and lines 15 and 16) are peripheral topics. Advice arises in line 19 (;por que no traers---arises?

Why don't you bring swams?)

According to Flores (1999) the advice given is not a solicited one Flores (199) points out that giving or rejecting advice –giver's behaviour is the wish to be seen as a person with ideas.

According to Flores (1999) giving advice and the subsequent acts are not a threat to the interactants faces, but a way of reaffirming their faces in accordance with their roles. Flores (1999) further points ou that politeness is the way of stressing the hearers face at the same time that the speaker keeps his/her face in a good position. In fact by, giving advice, the advice-giver stresses her right of autonomy and affiliation. In the sequence above, Elsa, in defense of advice, she introduces another speaker (Gabriel) by incorporating his jokes.

Another sequence by Flores in this one a solicited advice is given.

(2) The speakers and their roles:

Pili: Women, 55 years old. Hostess.

Belinda: Women, 35 years old. Pili's sister-in-law. Guest.

(Pili and Belinda are in Pili's house. Pili brother, brother –in-law and sister-in-law

(Belinda) are visiting. Her three sons and her daughter are also there. All are seated at a

table except Pili, who is serving a meal for all of them.

1. Belinda: Pili; te quieres sentar tic y...?

'Pili, do you want to sit down and...?

2. Pili : Si, no, pero prefino, prefiero estarme

'Yes, no, but I prefer, prefer to stand

3. ---Eso y luego ya me siento mastranguilite
this and afterward I can sit down a bit clamer'
4. (four seconds pause)
5. Belinda: (To Pili, who continuous serving dishes); por que no lo dejas
'Why don't you leave it
aqui y que se vayan echando?
(the food lene and let them (the guest) serve themselves)

In this sequence, the advice –receiver rejects the advice twice, the first time by a negative response that she matiguates when she hesitation in her response (yes, no, but, I prefer) and when she plays sown her task by using a dimunitive in the adjective (tranquilita, Lines 2-3). The second time she does not say anything. Flores (1999) observes that advice does not display any threat to the interacants, faces, but it strengthens links between them.

3.2.2 GOLDSMITH AND MACGEORGE (2000)

According to Goldsmith and MacGeorge (2000: 234) Advice is a common but potentially problematic way to respond to someone who is distressed or to someone with a problem. Other researchers, for example, Barbee and Cunningham (1995), state that Advice may provide information to enhance perceived control and convey caring, but it can also be seen as critical or controlling and can convey that the speaker wishes to solve the hearers problem and move on to other topic Goldsmith (1992) states that threats to face are explanation for why advice is not always well received, Goldsmith & MacGeorge (2000) state that by telling a hearer what to do, advice can threaten the hearers identity as a competent and autonomous social actor.

FACE, POLITENESS AND ADVICE TO THE DISTRESSED

POLITENESS THEORY

Goffman (1967:5) defined face as “the positive social value a person effectively claims for himself by the line others assume he has taken during a particular contract. Face is an image of self-declined in terms of approved social attributes”.

Brown and Levinson's politeness theory (1987) explains how face may be threatened or honored in interaction. Brown and Levinson's theory (1987) identifies types of speech acts that threaten face and predicts that the speaker – hearer relationship and the politeness of a message can mitigate threats to face.

Brown and Levinson (1987) identify two types of face wants: the desire to have one's identity liked and accepted by at least some others (positive face), and the desire to have one's autonomy respected (negative face).

According to Goldsmith and MacGeorge (2000) every speech act is intrinsically face threatening (face-threat-even acts), for example, telling another person to take some action is a defining feature of directives that threaten negative face. Goldsmith and MacGeorge (2000) state that face threat which is associated with a particular performance of an FTA is situationally and culturally variable. FTAs are more or less threatening, depending on the power of the speaker over the hearer, the social distance between speaker and hearer, and the rank of face threatening act, for example, Advice always poses some degree of threat to negative face, but for many Americans it is less face threatening when it comes from one's boss, rather than from a subordinate, or when it comes from a close friend, rather than from a stranger.

Goldsmith and MacGeorge (2000) state that when there is little threat to face, a speaker may commit an FTA in a direct and efficient way, but when face threat rises, a rational speaker who wishes to honour face will make various polite forms to mitigate face threat. According to Goldsmith and MacGeorge (2000) face threat can be reduced by adding material that acknowledges the threat and attempts to redress it. Positive face redress appeals to solidarity to reduce the potential for rejection, whereas Negative face redress softens the forcefulness of the FTA, in order to minimize the impact on the hearer's autonomy, for example, making an action seem smaller, more limited, or less specific, recognizing contingencies, depersonalizing the message; using hedges or questions. Goldsmith and MacGeorge (2000) postulate that a speaker may do an FTA indirectly, so that the utterance might be taken in more than one way, for example, describing one's own past experiences might be taken literally, as nothing more than a description, or it might be taken as suggesting what the hearer should do. A speaker might decline to commit an FTA in order to avoid a threat to face.

They (Goldsmith and MacGeorge 2000) further state that negative redress is more polite than positive redress because it defers to the other, rather than presuming solidarity. They propose that their goals in this study (Advice and politeness) are two fold, namely they wish to use politeness theory to help explain why advice to a distressed other is seen as an effective response on some occasions, yet ineffective on other occasions.

Politeness theory provides a unifying general explanation for the research literature on this commonly occurring and potentially problematic type of interpersonal episode.

According to Goldsmith and MacGeorge (2000) there are certain aspects of the theory that have received little attention. Those aspects are the following:

- (1) Explaining Helpful and Unhelpful Advice.
- (2) Testing Politeness Theory.

EXPLAINING HELPFUL AND UNHELPFUL ADVICE

According to Goldsmith and MacGeorge (2000) politeness theory can explain a number of findings on reaction to advice about problems. Variability of the recipient's reactions to well meaning advice may be due in part to the ways in which advice threatens face.

Goldsmith and MacGeorge (2000) postulate that Politeness theory predicts that advice will be more problematic in some kinds of relationships than in others. This means that Advice from a speaker with high power and a close relationship to the hearer will pose less threat to face than advice from a speaker lacking power or closeness. For example, Goldsmith and Fitch (1997) found that advice was sought and welcomed from close others and from others who were seen as having a useful viewpoint on a problem, either by virtue of similarity to the advice recipient or by virtue of having emotional distance from or expertise about a problem.

According to Goldsmith and MacGeorge (2000), politeness theory predicts that a speaker may mitigate threats to face by using appropriate level of politeness for the type of relationship he or she has with the hearer. Goldsmith (1994) examined ratings of advice given by a friend to a student who had failed an exam. The same advice was rated as significantly more helpful when accompanied by positive redress rather than when given bald on record. Goldsmith and MacGeorge (2000) predict that the degree to which advice

was seen as face honouring or face threatening would depend on the speaker-hearer relationship and on the use of polite strategies:

H1: Perceived regard for face will be greatest when advice is given by a speaker with high power and high closeness to the receiver, moderate when advice is given by a speaker with high power and low closeness or low power and high closeness to the receiver, and lowest when given by a speaker with low power and low closeness to the receiver.

H2: Perceived regard for face will be greater for polite forms of advice (positively redressed, negatively redressed, or off record, than for bald-on-record advice.

Goldsmith and MacGeorge (2000) expect regard for face to predict judgments of message effectiveness:

H3 Perceived regard for face will be positively correlated with perceived advice effectiveness. Finally, Goldsmith and MacGeorge (2000) predict that perceived effectiveness would be associated with how well a speaker adapted the politeness of an advice message to the speaker-hearer relationship. Brown and Levinson (1987:83) also stated that to use a strategy that is more polite than the situation warrants requires greater effort to produce and to interpret, sacrifices a degree of clarity, and may imply that an FTA is more threatening than it actually is.

According to Goldsmith and MacGeorge (2000) judgments of effectiveness will be a function of the interaction of politeness and the speaker-hearer relationship:

H4: The effects of Politeness on perceived advice effectiveness vary by type of relationship: less polite strategies will be effective for speakers with high power and high closeness to the recipient, whereas more polite strategies will be effective for speakers low power and low closeness to the recipient.

TESTING POLITENESS THEORY

According to Goldsmith and MacGeorge (2000) the testing of the predictions mentioned above not only provides a clearer understanding of when and why advice messages will be welcomed by recipients; it also has implications for politeness theory.

It is useful to test whether the theory may be taken as a general account of how polite forms are associated with regard for face and with enhanced effectiveness at achieving multiple goals in interaction. Goldsmith and MacGeorge (2000) in their study they examine advice rather than requests. Advice differs from requests in theoretically interesting ways. The two researchers (Goldsmith and MacGeorge 2000) provide an extensive comparative test of how polite forms are related to perceived regard for face and to perceived message effectiveness. Their focus is on the relationship between the use of politeness forms and evaluations of message, for example, so hearers interpret polite forms as showing more regard for face than bald-on-record acts. Others researchers, for example, Holtgraves 1986, and others, have found that although polite forms are rated as more polite than bald-on-record forms, there is variability in which particular redressive and indirect forms are seen as the most polite. The implications of their findings for politeness theory is unclear, because their studies asked respondents to rate "politeness".

Thirdly Goldsmith and MacGeorge (2000), their study is designed to allow us to generalize about the effects of politeness across people, situations, and messages. The research strategy also suffers from restriction of range in values of power and closeness.

In brief, their study is designed to show whether politeness theory can explain and predict factors that affect success in a common but challenging type of interpersonal communication: giving helpful advice to a distressed other. Their study has implications for politeness theory as well. They test whether the linguistic forms Brown and Levinson identified are perceived by intertrained judges to show regard for face, and, in turn whether regard for face plays a role in judgments of message effectiveness. They have designed their test of the theory to compare a wide range of polite forms of advice and to determine whether their effects are consistent across multiple examples of relationships and messages.

METHOD

PARTICULARS AND PROCEDURES.

The particulars were undergraduate volunteers (N = 407).

After a 15 minutes speed communication questionnaires with missing data were discarded and an identical questionnaires was given to another student until 384 questionnaires were completed. Respondents ranged in age from 17 to 29.

Two-thirds of their respondents were Euro-Americans, 15.1% were African American, 6.8% were Asians, 5.5% were Hispanic.

Most of the respondents speech communication majors.

QUESTIONNAIRE

Respondents read about a hypothetical situation in which a person named Chris disclosed a problem to another person, who then gave Chris advice. The relationship between Chris and the advisor disclosed.

Respondents read a single advice message given to Chris by the other person in the scenario. Then the respondents rated the effectiveness of the advice message on 7-point semantic –differential scales: Effective-ineffective, helpful-unhelpful, appropriate-inappropriate, sensitive-insensitive. Jones and Burleson (1997) found these items formed a reliable, unidimensional measure of message effectiveness. Respondents then rated the message on a series of 7-point Likert-type scales, indicating the degree of whether the message given would make Chris feel criticized, liked, identified with, told what to do, or imposed upon hastily, respondents completed 7-point Likert type scales measuring the degree of agreement with statements about the advice giver's power relative to Chris and about the closeness of their relationship.

DESIGN

Goldsmith and MacGeorge (2000) used a replicated design (Jackson, 1992) to test whether the effects of relationship and politeness could be generalized across different examples of relational context and advice messages. Here under follows a Table 1, which provides a representation of the design, which includes the following:

- (a) a relationship factor
- (b) a situation replication factor
- (c) a politeness factor
- (d) a message replication factor

The relationship factor compares the effects of four combinations of power and closeness. Goldsmith and MacGeorge (2000) used multiple scenarios in each of the four categories.

The scenarios used different relationships and different types of problems, because perception of power and closeness are affected by different types of relationships, for example in one of the scenarios, high power was instantiated by having Chris speak to a professor about an academic problem, soon and Goldsmith and MacGeorge (2000) created 12 different messages for each of the four politeness forms. According to Goldsmith and MacGeorge (2000) message replications vary in the substantive piece of advice that is offered and in the particular way in which politeness is instantiated. The message replication were nested within the situation replications.

TABLE 1
DESIGN OF THE STUDY

Relationship	Situation	Politeness			
		Bald on Record	Positively Redress	Negatively Redress	Off Record
High Power/ High Closeness Relationship	Replication 1	Message 1	Message 1	Message 2	Message 1
		Message 2	Message 2	Message 2	Message 2
		Message 3	Message 3	Message 3	Message 3
	Replication 2	Message 4	Message 4	Message 4	Message 4
		Message 5	Message 5	Message 5	Message 5
		Message 6	Message 6	Message 6	Message 6
	Replication 3	Message 7	Message 7	Message 7	Message 7
		Message 8	Message 8	Message 8	Message 8
		Message 9	Message 9	Message 9	Message 9
	Replication 4	Message 10	Message 10	Message 10	Message 10
		Message 11	11	Message 11	11
		Message 12	Message 11	Message 12	Message 11
		Message 12		Message 12	
High Power / Low Closeness Relationship e.t.c	Replication 1	Message 1	Message 1	Message 1	Message 1
		Message 2	Message 2	Message 2	Message 2
		Message 3	Message 3	Message 3	Message 3
	e.t.c	e.t.c.	e.t.c	e.t.c	e.t.c

RESULTS

Instantiation of Power and Closeness

Goldsmith and MacGeorge (2000) conducted a confirmatory factor analysis to explore the measurement properties of the power and closeness (seales).

They calculated reliability estimates by squaring the standardized coefficients for the measurements errors and subtracting these from 1.00 (Mueller, 1996).

According to Goldsmith and MacGeorge (2000) the closeness scale has an alpha reliability of .95, and the power scale alpha is .55.

Table 2 provides the mean power and closeness ratings for each of the four relationship types. Goldsmith and MacGeorge (2000) conducted two mixed model analyses of variance was the dependant variable, relationship category was a fixed factor, and situation replication was a random factor. According to Goldsmith and MacGeorge (200) the main effect for relationship on power was significant, as was the interaction of relationship and situation replication. Goldsmith and MacGeorge's manipulations were successful in the failed exam scenarios: the two high-power speakers different significant from the two low-power speakers. The main effect of relationship on closure was significant.

Measurement of Dependant Variables

Goldsmith and MacGeorge (2002) used confirmatory factor analyze to examine the measurement properties of the scales measuring perceived regard for face and perceived effectiveness of advice.

For each dependant variable Goldsmith and MacGeorge (2000) constructed scales ranging from 1 to 7, with low scores representing low regard for face or low message effective face was 3.84, while perceived regard for negative face had a mean rating of 4.97. According to Goldsmith and MacGeorge (2000) the different in means for the tow types of face is scales are correlated. Perceived advice effectiveness had a mean rating of 3.95.

TESTS OF HYPOTHESES

Goldsmith and MacGeorge (2000), their first and second hypotheses predicted how relationship and politeness would be related to the perceived face threat associated with advice.

- According to Goldsmith and MacGeorge (200) the hypotheses predicted the following :
- H1 predicted that perceived closeness and power in the relationship between advice giver and recipient would be related to the degree of face threat entailed in giving advice. H2 predicted that polite forms of advice would be seen as showing more regard for face than bald-on-record advice. For testing these hypotheses, Goldsmith and MacGeorge (2000) conducted one mixed model analysis of variance with perceived regard for negative face as the dependant variable.

According to Goldsmith and MacGeorge (2000) in H1, the speaker-hearer relationship did not predict perceived regard for positive or negative face.

H2 received partial support.

Table 2 shows the ratings of perceived regard for positive face for each form of each message. Table 4 provides similar information for the ratings of perceived regard for negative face. H3 predicted a positive relationship between perceived regard for face and message effectiveness. Both measures of perceived regard for face were positively and significantly correlated with perceived message effectiveness.

H4 predicted that different politeness forms would be associated with message effectiveness, depending on the speaker's power and the closeness of the speaker – hearer relationship. Goldsmith and MacGeorge (2000) found perceived regard for face was a significant predictor of the perceived effectiveness of advice given to a distressed other. Their findings fail to support predictions derived from politeness theory regarding what factors influence perceived regard for face. Hereunder comes Table 3 and 4 that Goldsmith and MacGeorge (2000) have tabulated scales to support their findings:

TABLE 3

Mean and Standard Deviation of Ratings of Perceived Regard for Positive face of Polite Forms of Each Message Replication.

Message Number	M (SD) for Message across Polite forms	M (SD) for bald-on-record form	M (SD) for positive redress from	M (SD) for negative redress form	M (SD) for off-record form	M (SD) Politeness forms that differ from Bald form
1	4.41 (1.08)	3.81 (1.00)	4.69 (1.49)	4.69 (0.84)	4.44 (0.80)	
11	4.17 (0.91)	3.44 (0.62)	5.00 (0.65)	4.50 (0.65)	3.75 (0.85)	Positive Negative
6	4.14 (1.03)	4.31 (1.13)	3.75 (1.28)	4.63 (0.83)	3.88 (0.74)	
7	4.05 (1.10)	3.31 (0.92)	4.19 (0.96)	3.69 (1.07)	5.00 (0.80)	Off Record
9	4.05 (1.41)	4.31 (1.58)	4.00 (1.31)	3.50 (1.20)	4.38 (1.62)	
4	4.00 (1.22)	3.38 (0.64)	4.38 (0.99)	4.63 (1.41)	3.63 (1.41)	
3	3.83 (1.14)	3.63 (1.55)	4.13 (0.92)	4.13 (1.13)	3.88 (1.03)	
8	3.81 (1.35)	3.13 (1.41)	3.56 (1.43)	3.50 (0.85)	5.06 (0.94)	Off Record
10	3.77 (1.05)	3.88 (1.09)	4.00 (0.96)	3.19 (1.19)	4.00 (0.93)	
5	3.34 (1.23)	3.94 (1.35)	3.88 (0.95)	2.50 (1.00)	3.06 (1.15)	Negative
12	3.30 (1.41)	3.56 (1.24)	2.65 (2.01)	2.94 (0.73)	4.06 (1.15)	
2	3.19 (1.51)	2.31 (1.13)	3.69 (1.22)	2.94 (1.40)	3.81 (1.19)	

TABLE 4

Mean and Standard Deviation of Ratings of Perceived Regard for Negative face for Polite Forms of Each Message Replication.

Message Number	M (SD) for Message across Polite forms	M (SD) for bald-on-record form	M (SD) for positive redress from	M (SD) for negative redress form	M (SD) for off-record form	Polite forms that differ from Bald form
10	5.52 (0.95)	5.38 (0.95)	5.19 (1.28)	6.13 (0.79)	5.38 (0.44)	
6	5.48 (1.15)	5.81 (1.25)	5.38 (1.03)	5.88 (1.16)	4.88 (1.06)	Positive Negative Off Record
1	5.38 (1.33)	4.25 (1.17)	6.00 (1.28)	5.56 (1.43)	5.69 (0.88)	Positive Negative
11	5.36 (1.27)	4.63 (0.99)	5.69 (1.07)	6.38 (0.88)	4.75 (0.88)	Off Record
9	5.13 (1.37)	5.94 (1.08)	5.06 (1.76)	4.38 (1.03)	5.13 (1.27)	
4	5.09 (1.32)	4.25 (0.71)	4.44 (1.21)	5.88 (1.98)	5.81 (1.31)	Negative Off Record
5	4.95 (1.35)	5.25 (1.00)	5.38 (1.46)	4.94 (4.47)	4.25 (1.36)	
7	4.88 (1.33)	4.31 (0.70)	5.06 (1.70)	4.25 (1.46)	5.88 (0.52)	Off Record
8	4.83 (1.22)	4.81 (1.07)	4.38 (1.09)	4.50 (1.17)	5.63 (1.36)	
3	4.69 (1.25)	4.63 (1.13)	4.44 (1.40)	5.31 (1.57)	4.38 (0.88)	
2	4.27 (1.61)	3.63 (1.58)	4.63 (1.69)	3.75 (1.04)	5.06 (1.84)	
12	4.09 (1.53)	4.38 (1.60)	3.19 (1.91)	4.06 (1.18)	4.75 (1.10)	

P<05

ADVICE AND THREAT TO FACE

Brown and Levinson (1987) propose that advice is primarily threatening to negative face, because, by definition, advice tells the hearer to take some action. Goldsmith and MacGeorge (2000) found advice messages more threatening to positive than to negative face. According to other scholars Brown and Levinson's theory has failed to take into account the ways in which threats to face derive not only from defining features of speech acts, but also from the kind of episode in which an act occurs. For example, Wilson and his Colleagues (1998) propose that threat to face may also derive from social actors' understandings of the goals speakers pursue in issuing a particular kind of speech act. According to Goldsmith (1997) the conversational sequence in which advice appears may also affect the degree to which it is threatening to face.

FACTORS THAT MITIGATE

THREAT TO FACE

(i) Speaker

Hearer Relationship. According to Goldsmith and MacGeorge (2000).

Brown and Levinson's theory led them to expect that the face threats associated with advice warned vary, depending on the relationship between speaker and hearer (H1). Goldsmith and MacGeorge (2000) state that some bases of power and closeness are more relevant to judgment about perceived threat to face than others.

(ii) Politeness forms

The politeness forms that Goldsmith and MacGeorge (2000) postulate are the following:

Bald-on-record, Positively redressed; Negatively redressed and off-record.

Goldsmith and MacGeorge (2000) expected Bald-on-record advice to be more face threatening than the same advice given with redress or given indirectly (H2). They did not find a uniform effect of polite forms on perceived regard for positive or negative face.

According to Goldsmith and MacGeorge (2000) some types of politeness strategies are more effective at showing regard for face than others.

Goldsmith and MacGeorge have failed to get a consistent effect of polite forms on perceived regard for face.

(iii) Message

According to Goldsmith and MacGeorge (2000) the particular message a respondent read made a difference in his or her rating of perceived regard for face. The difference among messages reflects difference in the rank of an FTA. Goldsmith and MacGeorge (2000) inspected the messages that were rated as high or low in regard for positive face suggest blame for the problem may be salient to assessing face threat when advice is given to a distressed other. They propose that messages rated as showing the least regard for positive face all advised the hearer to take some action. The effort required to undertake an action may account for the message rated most and least honouring of negative face, for example "Studying harder" suggest an on going commitment to school work.

(iv) Predicting Message Effectiveness

Perceived regard for positive and negative face has a significant, medium-sized, and positive correlation with perceived message effectiveness (H3).

Regard for positive and negative face predicted 18% of the variability in ratings of message effectiveness. Message that included a form of politeness appropriate to the speaker-hearer relationship not seen as more effective.

(v) Explaining Unexpected Results

Goldsmith and MacGeorge (2000) find that some pieces of advice are seen as more face threatening and less effective than others. They still expected that a threatening message would be made less so by politeness and by variation in relational power and closeness. Again, they expected to see that an independent contribution of politeness and relationship type to perceived message are better than others, regardless of who says them, and that a few of the polite messages were actually seen as less effective than their bald-on-record counter parts. Goldsmith and MacGeorge's (2000) pattern of results is that there is a threshold for effects of polite forms and relational status on perceived regard for face. Their record explanation of results is that individuals may vary in their sensitivity to face concerns and polite forms. Goldsmith and MacGeorge (2000) further state that in order to make sense of their results is to question some of the assumptions that guided their use and interpretation of politeness theory.

3.3 SOCIAL SUPPORT AND ADVICE

GOLDSMITH AND FITCH (1997)

INTRODUCTION

House et al (1988) state that personal relationship can have an impact on individuals' psychological and physical well being. However House and his fellow researchers (1988) do not clarify the point that what goes on in relationships to bring about these results and what differentiates relationships that have positive impacts on the lives of participants from those that have detrimental effects. For example, research on what people say and do to help each other with problems has typically focused on associations between beneficial outcomes and the sheer frequency with which different kinds of support are received. According to Goldsmith and Fitch (1997) this overlooks the reactions that recipients have to appropriateness of support and the features of situations and conversations that are conducive to better and worse support attempts.

Goldsmith and Fitch (1997) state that many researchers are now catching for a study of the communication processes through which people help each other with problems and stresses of daily life.

ASSUMPTION OF A COMMUNICATIVE APPROACH TO SOCIAL SUPPORT.

Assumptions are the acts of accepting something without proof, or an instance of assuming. According to Goldsmith and Fitch (1997) a communicative approach to the study of social support must recognize that the seeking, giving and receiving of support are symbolic and rhetorical processes.

By symbolic, Goldsmith and Fitch (1997) mean that the effects of received support do not come about mechanistically through the mere insurance of supportive act but rather through participant's interpretations of acts and their implications. By rhetorical they mean that situations in which social support is communicated involve multiple goals and outcomes and that effective interactants are those who deploy discursive resources in ways that are adapted to these demands. Goldsmith and Fitch (1997) postulate the following assumptions regarding the communicative approach to social support: An account of the effects of advice needs to consider not only informational effects but also

effects on the identities and relationships of participants and the features of discourse that are more or less responsive to these multiple and potentially conflicting demands. The utility of social support is not simply a matter of quantity but of quality. According to Goldsmith and Fitch (1997) rhetorical process also means recognizing that interpretations of support and evaluation of quality are shaped by situational, conversational and cultural contexts. With regard to advice, this means examining how evaluations of advice are situated within interpretations of the larger episode in which advice occurs. According to Phillipson (1992), advice is evaluated in the context of broader cultural premises about personhood, relationship, and communication. For example, advice will be evaluated differently in a speech community that frames directing others behaviour as an intrusion on autonomy than in a community in which directing behaviour is heard as involvement and caring. Goldsmith and Fitch (1997) state that effective support is not only a matter of matching an utterance form to a set of situational, conversational, and cultural parameters.

According to Goldsmith and Fitch (1997) these assumptions suggest the following requirements for a reconceptualisation of the communication of social support:

1. There is a need to identify the various kinds of goals and outcomes associated with a particular kind of supportive act. Rather than coding supportive acts into a single function and at potentially conflicting demands posed by multiple goals.
2. The salient features of situational conversational and cultural contexts that shape evaluations of supportive acts need to be identified. These must be conceptualized not simply as static, pre-existing features of an episode, but as elements that participants may assume or to which they may actively appeal as they communicate support and as they interpret and evaluate the effectiveness and appropriateness of support attempts.
3. There is a need to identify effects produced desired effects of supportive acts while invoking and adapting to conflicting demands and episodic expectations. Some formulations of support will be better than others, and a theoretical account should seek to explain this variation by identifying what features of discourse accomplish multiple outcomes in various contexts. Goldsmith and Fitch (1997) believe that advice is a useful type of act on which to focus in developing a communicative approach to the study of social support. Other researchers such as Cowen (1982) indicate that advice is a common way for individuals to respond to others' problems. Goldsmith and Fitch (1997) state that advice can also be classified as a particularly

important type of communication, and it (advice) cannot be always perceived as helpful. Goldsmith and Fitch (1997) suggest that advice is a potentially difficult kind of support to provide, one that has multiple goals and outcomes and whose perceived appropriateness and effectiveness differ depending on a variety of contextual factors. Other researchers have treated advice as “informational support or directive guidance” Goldsmith and Fitch (1997) explore the following research questions:

RQ1 : What goals are pursued as people ask for , and give, advice?

RQ2: What identify and relational implications of advice shape givers' and receivers' reactions to advice?

According to Goldsmith and Fitch (1997) previous studies suggest contextual features that are relevant to the evaluation of advice as helpful, but researchers have typically selected a particular features of interest rather than attempting to identify a range of situational and conversational features that are salient in participants' own interpretations of advice. Goldsmith and Fitch (1997) postulate that cultural context for advice giving among U.S Americans has been overlooked, despite evidence that findings in related areas of interpersonal communication research may be unwittingly specific to that system of cultural premises. Most studies have treated situational or conversational context as a static variable. The communicative approach suggests baseline generalizations about conditions under which advice is most likely to be evaluated as effective and appropriate. Goldsmith and Fitch (1997) explore in more detail how participants in advice episodes conceptualize and orient to situational, conversational, and cultural constraints brought to bear on advice episodes. They put the following questions:

RQ3 : What situational, conversational and cultural constraints are relevant to participant' evaluation of advice? Goldsmith and Fitch (1997) point out how advice is sought, provided and received among US American Goldsmith and Fitch (1997) postulate that construction, interpretation, and evaluation of advice occur within the constraints of belief systems that are shared by speech communities. According to Goldsmith and Fitch (1997) there are common patterns and meanings enacted and understood in the speech communities of the same group.

METHOD

Goldsmith and Fitch (1997) state that five women and once man aged 20 to 38 are used to collect the data. Four of them major in speech communication at larger state different areas / places. Two kinds of data were collected, namely

- (a) Fields notes of advice episodes that they observed or in which they participated
- (b) Transcripts or notes ethnographic interviews conducted with friends, family members, and co-workers.

According to Goldsmith and Fitch (1997) all members of the research team kept field notes on each advice-giving episode they noticed in the course of their every-day life. Field notes were recorded immediately after the interaction. Goldsmith and Fitch's field notes report observation of 112 episodes. Their episodes took place in a variety of settings and channels. Their episodes include both man and women of different ages. According to Goldsmith and Fitch (1997) research team members conducted 60 to 90 minute structured interviews with members of the speech community. Goldsmith and Fitch (1997) scanned all of the data for themes, patterns and premises. They (Goldsmith and Fitch) paid attention to comments about advice that made explicit claims about the intentions, interpretations, and evaluations of the participants Goldsmith and Fitch (1997) analysis of data resulted in a list of recurring themes in the purposes and outcomes of advice, the characteristics of the advice givers, and features of act sequences according to Goldsmith and Fitch (1997) dilemmas of seeking, giving and receiving advice were conceptualized in Normative constraints.

THREE DILEMMAS OF ADVICE EPISODES.

Goldsmith and Fitch (1997) state that their respondents recognized the information function of advice, namely, advice could provide expert opinion on how to solve a problem, another point of view in making a decision, and assistance in laying out options.

Goldsmith and Fitch (1997) point out the three dilemmas of advice episodes, these dilemmas are formulated as follows:

- (i) Giving advice can signal that the advice giver has greater expertise in the subject and can insinuate a relationship that is sufficiently close to warrant concern for someone else's decisions.
- (ii) A second dilemma for advice givers lies in how the advice is aligned with conflicting expectations that relational partners are supportive and honest.

- (iii) A third dilemma concerns advice recipients' conflicting motivations for seeking and responding to advice. According to Goldsmith and Fitch (1997) asking for and taking advice may make one seen as less autonomous and competent, whereas objecting advice may appear disrespectful and ungrateful. Goldsmith and Fitch (1997) describe each of the above dilemmas and these dilemmas somehow they are intertwined in a given episode.
- (i) Being helpful and caring versus butting in

Goldsmith and Fitch (1997) state that their informants seen advice as a form of helpful information for making decisions and solving problems. This advice is also taken as a caring information, for example, Tony (age 22) explaining "my friends and I give advice because we are friends and we care about each other....." Goldsmith and Fitch (1997) state that refusal to give advice could be heard as a lack of caring. According to Goldsmith and Fitch(1997) helpful and caring are the attributes that should emerged from both advice recipient and advice giver. According to Goldsmith and Fitch (1997) there are certain relationship within which advice is either received / taken or not, for example, advice from parents is seen as caring and helpful, but again that advice threatened the identify of the child as an adult capable of making our decision, but other children feel grateful for their parents advice. In these relationships advice anchor to the being helpful and caring pole of the dilemma. Goldsmith and Fitch (1997) state that the pole of the dilemma is characterized as butting in.

Goldsmith and Fitch (1997) state that butting threatens the receivers perceptions of self-worth as well as hinder his or her autonomy According to Goldsmith and Fitch (1997) people who can give helpful advice or people seen as sources for people seeking advice are taken as the experts, these are the people such as health care workers, social workers, academic advisers and so on. Goldsmith and Fitch (1997) state that expertise and relational closeness of the advice giver and advice seeker is also important. According to Goldsmith and Fitch (1997) the first dilemma provides a clear contract between the benefits of connection that are entailed in providing advice versus the concerns for autonomy entailed in refraining

(ii) Being supportive versus being honest

Goldsmith and Fitch (1997) state that though advice is seen a legitimate expression of being helpful and caring rather than butting in, advice givers may face another of the advice given: should an advice giver provide his or her honest opinion even though it may disagree with the recipient's point of view or should he or she be supportive by agreeing with the recipient's point of view? The advice giver's dilemma emerges from ambiguity in the intentions of relational partners who disclose problems and ask for advice. Goldsmith and Fitch (1997) state honesty is a valuable characteristic of advice and of advice givers. Goldsmith and Fitch (1997) further state that people (advice seeker) look for support for the decisions they have already made, they do these as if they are seeking advice. According to Goldsmith and Fitch (1997) suggest that the honesty / support dilemma is created by assuming a premise about communication: people should not explicitly ask for the approval of others. This premise means that adults should be able to make their own decisions. According to Goldsmith and Fitch (1997) close relationships entail both honest expression of opinions and supportive approval of others. Goldsmith and Fitch (1997) state that it is difficult to know whether honestly or support will best serve the ends of being helpful and caring.

(iii) Showing Gratitude and Respect versus making one's own decisions.

According to Goldsmith and Fitch (1997) advice seekers sometimes feel obliged to take in order to not disrespect the advice giver or appear ungrateful for his or her concern. According to Goldsmith and Fitch (1997) an advice seeker has a fear of losing autonomy and other's respect for his or her competence to act independently if he/she follows others advice Goldsmith and Fitch (1997) state that people request advice from others just to show respect for the givers point of view. By rejecting advice risks disrespect for the givers knowledge but also risks showing a lack of gratitude for the giver's concern.

Goldsmith and Fitch (1997) state that even if the advice seekers risk to show respect and gratitude to advice givers, they must retain the freedom to reject the advice if they are to maintain their own image as competent equals. Finally, according to Goldsmith and Fitch (1997) seeking advice and choosing whether to take advice involve enactments of respect (or disrespect) and gratitude (or ingratitude) for what the advice symbolizes about the relationship between adviser and advisee.

DISCUSSION

Goldsmith and Fitch (1997) find that the dilemmas they have described represent configurations of goals, implications and contextual factors that are relevant to participants' evaluations of advice in the speech community they have studied. They even find that multiple, and often-conflicting goals and outcomes were associated with advice. According to Goldsmith and Fitch (1997) honest, unsupportive advice resembles the speech acts of criticism and disagreement. Goldsmith (1994) states that dilemmas raise implications for theoretical formulations of the ways in which seeking and providing support can threaten face. Contextual factors were prominently used in the interpretations of dilemmas and in judgments of the appropriateness and helpfulness of giver and recipient actions. Goldsmith and Fitch (1997) found that the expertise of the advice giver was relevant to satisfaction with the advice given according to Goldsmith and Fitch (1997) dilemmas are understood with the context of broader cultural premises about autonomous self-hood and the intrinsic value of "openness" in communication. Goldsmith and Fitch (1997) state comparative study. Goldsmith and Fitch (1997) state comparative study or research should be done and the claims they have made need to be validated.

In conclusion, Goldsmith and Fitch (1997) state that what their findings reveal about advice have implications for the broader study of social support.

3.4. ADVICE ABOUT TROUBLES

GOLDSMITH (1999)

INTRODUCTION

According to Goldsmith (1999) advice is a common but potentially face threatening response to a friend or loved one who is upset about a problem. Goldsmith (1999) states that this article examines how content accompanying advice may show regard for face. The article touches the sources of face threat and resources for face work. Daena Goldsmith (1999) makes two studies, namely

- (i) The first one found there are common types of topics in students' responses a friend who has experienced a problem.

- (ii) The second one shows how some types of topics are associated with students' perceptions that an advice giver shows greater or lesser regard for an advice recipient's face.

Daena J. Goldsmith (1999:303) states that when friends or family members try to help one another with stresses and problems they give advice however, Goldsmith (1999:304) postulates that advice recipients do not see advice as helpful. Goldsmith (1999) states that threat to the advice recipients face is a source potential difficulty in giving advice. She further states that advice can threaten the hearers autonomy by imposing the speakers authority and solutions on the hearer (Goldsmith: 1994).

Goldsmith (1999) states that little research done has focuses on to the question of how to give face-sensitive advice. The two previous studies by Goldsmith (1994) Goldsmith and MacGeorge. (1997) have looked at how variation in politeness strategies (eg indirectness) may effect how advice is perceived by close others who disclosed a problem, and the two studies are grounded in Brown and Levinson's (1987) politeness theory with its emphasis on how variation in speech forms is associated with face threat. Goldsmith (1996) article also examines how the content of message in which advice is given serves to construct more and less face-threatening identities for participants.

ACCOUNTING FOR FACE THREAT AND FACE WORK

According to Goldsmith (1996:304) "face" refers "to the socially situated identities people claim or attribute to others" and "face work" includes communicative strategies that enact, support, or challenge these identities goldsmith (1996) postulate that Brown and Levinson's (1987) politeness theory is known for how speakers may threaten and Honour face. Brown and Levinson (1987) states that speech acts threaten either negative face or positive face. Brown and Levinson (1987) state that the magnitude of threat varies, depending on the speaker's power, the closeness of the relationship between speaker and hearer, and on culturally defined understanding of the costs and benefits entailed by the speech acts. Brown and Levinson's work is aimed at reducing face threat, including redress and indirectness. Goldsmith's (1996) article examines face threats that arise from speech community member's tacit understandings of a speech event as well as resources for face work that arise from particular topics considered relevant in this episode.

SOURCES OF FACE THREAT

According to Goldsmith (1999) Brown and Levinson (1987) located threats to face in the constitutive rules for various speech acts goldsmith (1996) listed the following sources of threats:

- (i) Various speech acts (Brown and Levinson 1987:65) for example the speech acts threaten either the speaker's or the hearer's positive or negative face.
- (ii) Type of a goal a speaker has in issuing a particular kind of directive. For example giving advice and asking a favour pose greater threats to a hearer's autonomy than enforcing an obligation does because enforcing an obligation implies the hearer has some legitimate responsibility to act.
- (iii) Giving advice and enforcing an obligation
- (iv) The closeness of the friend relationship.

RESOURCES FOR FACE WORK

Brown and Levinson's (1987) analysis of face work is also general and cross-situational. Goldsmith (1996) found the following resources for face work, namely

- (i) ways we use language to show intimacy (Brown and Levinson, 1987:102+03)
- (ii) negative redress strategies (Brown and Levinson 1987)
- (iii) Off-record strategies
- (iv) How a speaker may talk, but gave little guidance about what he or she should say (Brown and Levinson 1987)
- (v) Giving reasons for committing a face threatening act and giving reason for the hearer to comply (goldsmith 1996:307)
- (vi) Content of a speaker's utterance goldsmith (1997) considers the following advice messages in order to support her arguments on resources for face work. The messages are laid as follows:

(1) Man, you gotta go talk to the boss about this otherwise you are just gonna keep worrying. Hey I saw your car in the lot in this morning. You were night-the bodywork and paint job really made a difference.

- (2) Man you gotta go talk to the boss about this. If you get laid off, you won't find a job this good without having to move your family someplace else and I know you don't wanna do that.
- (3) Man, you gotta go talk to the boss about this. I'll be worried too but this is probably a rumour and the boss is the only one who can tell you for sure. You've done a lot for this company and you have a right to get a straight answer.

The analysis of the above mentioned messages using Brown and Levinson's (1987) politeness strategies would find similarities in types of positive redress strategies used (Goldsmith 1999: 307)

Goldsmith (1999) states that the three messages use informal, in group language, agree with some aspect of the learners opinion or emotion, give reasons for the advice that is offered and notice and approve of some valued identify.

According to Goldsmith (1999) the first message Honours an identify that exists from the problem under spotlight, while the second message serves the learners vulnerability and the third message suggests that the hearer has powers to control the problem before him or her. Goldsmith (1999) states that the three messages are honouring the positive face.

CONTENT-BASED RESOURCES FOR FACE-SENSITIVE ADVICE IN TROUBLES TALK

Goldsmith (1999) states that her approach to examining message content is grounded in a more general perspective on message production as the activation of situated beliefs and knowledge and the selection and expression of some subset of these ideas. According to Goldsmith (1999) activation, selection, and expression are all channeled by a speakers form of communicative activity in which he / she is engaged, Goldsmith (1999) states that this perspective support the fact that politeness forms are relevant to face and this penpective has proven useful in understanding refusal and rejection message and person perception in groups Goldsmith (1999) states that face sensitive content is situational according to Goldsmith (1999) specific and idiosyncratic knowledge of another person and of a situation are useful in showing sensitive to face. Goldsmith (1999) state that if one wants to proceed has to look at the episodes within which a face-threatening act such as

advice occurs. The approach postulates that there are visible episode that make certain goals, identities, and activities relevant. Goldsmith (1999) states that face-threats also arise from the identities and the activities that act implies within a particular type of episode. Goldsmith (1999) postulates that in a situation where there are communicative problems there may be several ways of carrying out the same episode, with different implications for the identities of the participants. Goldsmith (1999) states that for a given type of goal (eg. advising) in a given type of episode, it is possible to identify some of the forms face threat may take and some types of topics that are relevant for comment.

FEATURES OF THE EPISODES

According to Goldsmith (1999) troubles talk is a visible type of episode in which advice is given. According to goldsmith and Baxter (1999) found that in troubles talk” situation, a person with problem (s) turn to a close relational partner from help. Goldsmith (1999) states that research done in the United states on “social support” indicates when individual seek help with stresses and problems, they turn to anyone who is close to them (e.g. friends) for help by giving advice, information, sympathy, approval and offers of tangible and. Goldsmith (1996) states that different research traditions all point to a type of episode made visible to many Americans and defined by its topical focus, purpose participants, tone and organisation.

FACE ISSUES

According to Goldsmith (1999) the purpose of troubles talk is to help the person with the problem. Goldsmith (1999) states that face threats arise from identities and activities that are implied when advice is given Goldsmith (1997) believes that the first source of contention about identities depends on whether the advice is in the hearer's interest or it is just “butting in”.

Goldsmith (1999) states that the second source of face threat arises from questions about the hearer's freedom to reject advice. According to Goldsmith (1999) the rejection of advice shows lack of gratitude for the advisors concern. The third source of face threat according to goldsmith (1999) arises from question about whether the hearer is seen as capable of choosing a beneficial course of action. Goldsmith (1999) believes that in some advising action the speaker is quiet sure that the advice he or she has given will not be

taken or followed, and this happens when the hearer is less knowledgeable than the speaker. According to Goldsmith (1999) face threat arises from the choice to talk about possible solutions rather than looking at other facet of the situation. Goldsmith (1999) states that troubles-talk episodes allow for multiple types of responses.

TYPES OF TOPICS

Goldsmith (1999) states that no past research has identified types of content that occur in trouble talk episodes. According to Goldsmith (1999) there are several taxonomic of the functional social support that close others provide during times of stress. According to Goldsmith (1999) the responses given are functional and based on presumed intention their anticipated effect, or both Goldsmith (1999) has postulated the following relevant topics in troubles talk episodes:

1. Talk about the other's emotion including comments that deny emotion and discourage emotional expression and comments that acknowledge emotions.
2. Talk about the problem itself, including characteristics of cause, valence, severity, controllability, and duration.
3. Talk about action to solve the problem including both actions the individual could take and actions the speaker might undertake on his or her behalf.
4. Talk about the hearer's worth including descriptions of his or her abilities and coping efforts.
5. Talk about the speaker-hearer relationship and opportunities for inclusion in social activities.

Goldsmith's (1999) article reports two exploratory studies that are design and to develop a context based approach to face work. These studies develop the following, namely;

- (a) Develop the taxonomy of the types of topics that occur in responses to another's disclosure of a problem and
- (b) Examine how the elaboration topic is related to perceived threat to an advice recipient face.

STUDY 1: WHAT ARE COMMON TOPICS IN TROUBLES TALK EPISODE

RATIONALE

Rationale means the fundamental reason Goldsmith (1999) states that the problem with the identification of topics in trouble talk is just because some of the content in conversation is idiosyncratic to the individual, their relationship and the problem. According to Goldsmith (1999) typology of topics can be developed by having many individuals respond to hypothetical situations according to Goldsmith (1999) this is a useful way of identifying common topical resources available to speakers as they engage in particular instances of problem talk.

METHOD

Goldsmith (1999) states that a “naturalistic experiment” by Traly 1989 has been used. In this method 119 undergraduates from two universities participated. Each student responded to nine different situations, the study focuses on responses to situation in which a best friend has failed an important exam, a friend is nervous about giving a speech the next day, and a close friend has just been dumped by her boyfriend. According to Goldsmith (1999) the rationale for choosing these situations is just because they involved close relational partners, they are realistic and represented variety of problem types.

ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

Each respondent gave variety of spoken messages consisting of various thoughts expressed to a hypothetical distressed other. Goldsmith (1999) formulates a table (no.1) in order to provide examples of messages from each of the three situations Goldsmith (1999) uses 5-steps procedure that used a computerized method of identifying similar content followed by “manual” refinement of the results, and culminating in the construction of a typology of topics common to troubles-talk responds.

Step 1: Unitizing messages into thought units. Goldsmith (1999) states that because her focus is on the contents of messages and the ideas they express, messages were unitized into thought units. According to Goldsmith (1999) thought unity corresponds to a complete thought and is expressed as a simple sentence, for example, “Don’t worry”. At the end of Step I, Goldsmith (1999) had three collections of thought units: 952 units for the failed

exam situation, 1,452 units for the speech anxiety situation and 1,572 units for the relational break up situation.

Step 2: computerized chastening of thought units expressing similar content in this step, Goldsmith (1999) states that her interest is in the content of units rather than their function as such she grouped thought that expressed similar content by using a set of computer programmes that group units together on the basis of co-occurring words, this programme is called "The theme machine" According to Goldsmith (1999) each situation cluster thoughts units that shared similar words: 127 clusters in the exam situation 202 clusters in the speech anxiety situation, and 227 cluster in the relational break up situation. For example, I cluster in the speech anxiety situation includes the following, individual thoughts units "giving a speech is nothing to worry about" "Its nothing to worry about" "Nothing to be nervous about" and so on.

Step 3: Manual refinement of cluster

Goldsmith (1999) believes that similar words don't always share similar meaning. Goldsmith (1999) states that computer produced cluster are based on unusual words that are not critical to the meaning of the ideas that have different meanings in the various thought units, for example. One of the clusters from the speech situation combined the thought units "I'm sure you'll do well;" make sure you know it really well; and well its just a speech you know Goldsmith (1999) states what she examined each cluster to determine whether it was "coherent" or "incoherent" she puts aside in coherent cluster for reanalysis in step 4. After that she looked again at each of the coherent cluster and examined each individual unit to determine whether it expressed the same or a different idea than the rest in the units in the cluster, for example, in the speech situation one of the clusters included five idea units that each expressed the idea "As long as you know what you're talking about you'll be fine" and two idea, "Don't go too long in your speech"

Step 4: Identifying content categories in each situation

Goldsmith (1999) states that her analysis is highly focused on thought-unit clusters that emerged from steps 2 and 3. According to Goldsmith (1999) step 4 analysis is involved in grouping together clusters expressing same type of content, for example, "Talk to your professor" "Talk to your teacher" "Go see your professor" go ask the teacher for help" and "you should go and talk with the teacher; all these statements expressed the same content, which goldsmith (1999) labeled "Talk to your professor" According to Goldsmith

(1999) this resulted in the creation of 32 content categories in the failed exam situation, 26 content categories in the speech anxiety situation, and 32 content categories in the relational break-up situation.

Step 5: Developing typology of topic in troubles talk

According to Goldsmith (1999) this step looks at the situation specific content categories to see what types of topics might be common to troubles talk responses across situation according to goldsmith (1999) the next tables 2 and 3 display the following: study 2= displays resulting typology topics and 3 display topics which occurred in each situation.

Example messages produced in each of the Three situations

Table 1

Situation	Example message
Failed exam-	don't worry about it, Brian. It's no big deal. It's only one exam, even if it is worth that percentage of your grade. It's not the end of the world. You can still pull out a decent grade in your class. And you can just study and you'll do better next time, really.
Listen Tom,	everybody has tough tests. And I know it's your major and you think that you have to do well, but everybody has their ups and downs. And I know you studied for this, so you can't look at it from the point of view that, you know, you're just not smart or whatever because you are. And you've done well in the past. Look at it that you just didn't do good and you're going to have to prepare harder for the next time. And you can always look at his as a challenge and think that you can do better in the future and that'll just make it all the more sweeter for you. So don't get too down on yourself and don't worry about it too much because it's just a grade and it doesn't mean anything if you know you did the best you can.
Speech-	Yeah, I'd nervous too. I know how that is, just make sure you're prepared if you're prepared, it won't be as bad. If you're nervous and you're prepared, at least then you'll never be able to do it. But if you're nervous and you're unprepared, you'll never be able to do it. So make sure you spend the time. Rehearse your speech. Get it together so when you get up there if you're nervous at least you should still be able to know what you have to do and be able to do it.

Okay, you're nervous about giving this speech. I'm speech major. What you're to do when you're sitting there talking to them is just like look at all of them as your friends. Don't look at them as people who are judging you. Or try to almost avoid them, not so much avoid them, but look at them as if they don't exist even though they might be there. But just make sure that you keep your mind focused on what you can-why don't you come over and you can give your speech to me. And this way you know me, and it'll make it easier when you have to go to get up and give it in front of the class.

Relational-Why did he dump you? Were you cheating on him? Did he just seem sick and tired of you? Oh well, there's plenty of guys out there. He's just one guy. He probably wasn't that good for you anyway if he broke up with you. I'm so sorry. I know how hard that is, you losing your best friend. It's so tough. If you ever need to talk at any time, just call me. I'm willing to listen to any problem. I know the two of you very well.

Table 2
Common Topics in Three Troubles-Talk Situations

Categories of Topics	Example of Content Categories Classified within Topics
Emotion topics	
Don't have the emotion	don't worry; Be confident
Emotion is inappropriate	I can't believe you're nervous
You have this emotion	you're nervous, you're upset
I share your emotion	I'm sorry; I can't believe it
Your emotion is common	everybody gets nervous
Your emotion is temporary	you'll be relieved when it's over; it hurts for a while but, then you feel better
Problem topics	
Problem is uncontrollable	There's nothing you can do; it's over, go on from here
Problem is controllable	you have control; There's a lot you can do
Problem has positive aspects	it's a learning experience; it's for the best
Problem is common	everybody goes through this
Problem is temporary	It gets easier, It's only 5 to 7 minutes
Problem is not temporary	You won't get back together again
Problem cause	Did you study? You weren't right for each other
Problem is severe	It's an important exam in your major, You loved him
Problem is not severe	its not big deal; The audience isn't paying attention; Worse thing could happen; you'll find somebody else
Action topics	
Actions you can take	Practice, Talk to the professor, Go shopping

Joint actions we can take	I'll help you prepare, I can study with you
Hearer topics	
You have abilities and positive attributes	I have confidence in you; You're a great person, You're smart
Relationship topics	
I care and wish to be with you	I'm here for you; We'll go out; I care about you
Speaker topics	
I am knowledgeable	I'm a speech major, I've failed exams; I've been dumped
Conversation topics	
This is how to interpret this	that's the best advice I can give; You have to realize this

Table 3

Occurrence of topic by situation

Topic	Failed Exam	Speech Anxiety	Relational Break-up
Emotion topics			
Don't have the emotion	x	x	x
Emotion is inappropriate	x		
You have this emotion	x	x	x
I share your emotion	x		x
Your emotion is common		x	
Your emotion is temporary		x	x
Problem topics			
Problem is uncontrollable	x	x	x
Problem is controllable	x	x	
Problem has positive aspects	x	x	x
Problem is common	x	x	x
Problem is temporary		x	x
Problem is cause	x		x
Problem is severe	x	x	x
Problem is not severe	x	x	x
Action topics			
Actions you can take	x	x	x
Joint actions we can take	x	x	
Hearer topics			
You have abilities and positive Attributes	x	x	x
Relationship topics			
I care and wish to be with you	x		x
Speaker topics			

I am knowledgeable	x	x	x
Conversation topics			
This is how to interpret this	x	x	

DISCUSSION

Goldsmith (1999) states that the study (1) identifies different topics that are potentially relevant in response to a friend in distress. Goldsmith (1999) states that this step one which serves resources for constructing face saving identities when giving advice in troubles talk episodes. Goldsmith (1999) postulates that topics suggested by previous research were present in one or more of the situations, this includes aspects of the emotion, problem and actions to solve the problem, the hearer abilities and attributes, and inclusion in social activities.

According to Goldsmith (1999) what the previous research did was to provide a functional characterization of emotion talk and Goldsmith (1999) results show the topics on which these distinctions may be based Goldsmith (1999) states that topics represented by content in all three situations. Goldsmith (1999) states that besides topics similar to more than one situation, there are also content categories within topics that are similar across situation, for example some categories represented highly scripted, generic statements that could be uttered in many specific troubles talk episodes e.g. "Don't worry" there is nothing you can do" everybody goes through this; and "Its not a big deal" appeared in virtually identical form in all three situations. Goldsmith further states that unique ideas uttered by individuals are woven into common contents in some similar ways. Finally, Goldsmith (1999) states that typology shows that there are common ways of representing emotions, problem, actions, hearer, relationship, speaker, and conversation in response to another person's problem. Study 2 by Goldsmith (1999) considers how topics serve as resources for face work as speakers give advice in a troubles-talk episode.

STUDY 2: HOW ARE TOPICS RELATED TO PERCEIVED REGARD FOR FACE?

RATIONALE

According to Goldsmith (1999) study 2 is focusing on how common types of topics create a more or less face threatening context for advice, where as study 1 has identified a range of topics that are common in troubles talk. Goldsmith (1999) further said that topics

common to troubles talk provided a basis for expectations about how specific contents in a specific troubles-talk scenario would be associated with perceived regard for face.

According to Goldsmith (1999) threats to negative face may arise from questions about whether advice benefits the hearer and from questions about the hearers freedom to reject advice without offending the advisor, while threats to positive face may arise from what advice implies about the hearer's competence Goldsmith (1996) believes that saying other's emotion is face threatening on its own. According to Goldsmith (1996) advice threatens both negative and positive face if the hearer does not discuss the problem or display negative effect. Goldsmith (1996) states that when taking at how context accompanying advice is associated with perceived regard for face, it is useful to look at the degree to which a particular type of content is emphasized or elaborated in a message.

According to Goldsmith (1999) specific contents in a particular problem situation are used as examples of the common topical resources that are available in troubles-talk conversations, in her research goldsmith has asked many individuals to respond to a hypothetical situation with the purpose of seeing how topics are perceived, and she (Daena Goldsmith 1999) uses messages produced in study 1 as the material evaluated by respondents in study 2.

METHOD

Goldsmith (1999) uses a questionnaire where by 233 student responded to a narrative about a student called pat. Each student was asked to complete Likert-type rating scales to indicate their agreement with a variety of statements about the message.

RESULTS

According to Goldsmith (1999) three times measured each respondent's perception of the degree to which a message showed regard for negative face ($x = 63$, scale $M=4.60, SD = 1.27$) is another three items measured perceived regard for positive face ($x = 67$, scale $M=4.57, SD = 1.25$) according to Goldsmith (1999) these measurers serve as dependents variables. Goldsmith (1999) states that independent variables were the number of thought units in each message that expressed the 29 content categories previously discuss the elaboration of content categories ranged from 0 to 14, while the mean elaboration for a

content varied from 03 (SD=0.18) for the content categories to complete Likert-type rating scales to indicate their agreement with a variety of statement about the message.

RESULTS

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($R^2=25$, $F_{16,179}=9.79$, $P<.001$) table 4 shows the beta weights for these content categories. Three of the content categories that were negatively correlated with regard for positive face also show up as predictors in the regression equation; "I can't believe you're nervous" "It's not a big deal" and "there's nothing you can do". Differences in the results of correlation and regression analyses are likely once to interrelations among the content categories. "Think of it like a conversation" was strongly associated with "I can't believe you're nervous" ($r=.24$, $P<.01$) and "It's not a big deal" ($r=.17$, $P<.05$). A similar pattern occur for "you're a good speaker which co-occurs with "I can't believe you're nervous" ($r=.36$, $P<.001$). Elaboration of "I get nervous correlated with collaboration of "you'll be relieved when it's over" ($r=.18$, $P<.05$). According to Goldsmith (1999) the statement "you'll be relieved may be associated positively with regard for face because of the way" I get nervous and "you'll be relieved" show understanding of the other's emotional distress. "Don't worry" had a zero-order correlation with regard for positive face ($r=.12$, $P<.10$).

Table 4

Beta Weights for the Hierarchical Regression of content category Elaboration on Perceived Regard for Positive Face.

Content	B.	Value
I can't believe you're nervous	-.37	5.54 xxx
It's not a Big deal	-.25	3.65 xxx
View the audience as friends	.14	2.07 x
You'll be relieved when its over	.13	2.02 xx
There's nothing you can do	-.15	2.24 xx
Don't worry	.14	2.09 x

Note: content categories listed in order of stepwise entry.

* P<. 05., *P<.01. P<. 0001

DISCUSSION

According to Goldsmith (1999) content –based resources are most influential in perceptions of positive face regard for one quarter of the total variability in ratings. Goldsmith (1999) content –based resources has little impact on perceived regard for negative face. According to Goldsmith (1999) it is useful to look at topics that are not associated with regard for face.

GENERAL DISCUSSION

According to Goldsmith (1999) these two studies demonstrate an alternative to politeness theory-based approaches to studying face threat and face. The alternative approach emphasizes the way in which face threat and face work arise not only from the constitutive rules of a speech act but also from social actor's tacit knowledge and situated reasoning about their identities and activities. This approach also recognizes the importance of variability in the ideas speakers express and not just variability in similar content. The findings in the research reveal limitation in the few content-oriented politeness strategies from Brown and Levinson's (1987) taxonomy. According to Goldsmith (1999) most of the politeness strategies focus on form and style. The studies also have implications for further understanding of common types of topics available to speakers in troubles-talk episodes. According to goldsmith (1999) the findings also have practical and theoretical implications

for the study of social support. According to experienced advisors in troubles-talk episodes, these findings suggest that even if you are surprised by the other's negative effect, you shouldn't say no and you shouldn't tell him or her that "It's no big deal" or that "there's nothing you can do". These were expressed in study 1, and these responses are face threatening in any type of troubles-talk responses, but they are problematic when accompanying advice. Goldsmith (1999) postulate that these findings are consistent with other research on social support and comforting. Finally, Goldsmith (1999) states that these studies show a method for studying the context of messages, for example clustering of thought units with the help of the computer.

3.5. SEEKING ADVICE AND ADVICE SEQUENCE.

By Daena J. Goldsmith (2000)

INTRODUCTION

According to Goldsmith (2000) messages vary in form, content and some are more appropriate than other because of understanding how and under what circumstances people threaten or honour face. Goldsmith (2000) states face work and advice is a common and yet problematic type of interpersonal objective Goldsmith (2000) highlights that politeness theory by Brown and Levinson (1987) emphasizes speech act as the unit of analysis and linguistic form as the primary source for saving face. According to Goldsmith (2000) this paper explores the limitations of a speech act and demonstrates the sequence of face threatening acts that shapes face threat, and also looks at the instances of advice giving as to whether it is appropriate or effective when can pared to each other.

POLITENESS THEORY

Traly (1990:210) states that "face" refers to "the socially situated identities people claim or attribute to others" and "face work" includes communicative strategies that enact, support, or challenge these situated identities. According to Brown and Levinson speech acts threaten either negative face or positive face Goldsmith (1990) states that the magnitude of threat in a given instance depends on the speaker's power, relational closeness and on culturally defined understanding of the costs and benefits entailed by particular speech acts, for example, a supervisor's work related request or a friend's request for a personal favour are less face threatening than a personal favour requested by a subordinate.

According to Goldsmith (2000) Brown and Levinson's work focuses on ways speakers use in reducing face threat, including indirectness and various forms of redress. Brown and Levinson's (1987) location of face threat in the constitutive rules for various speech acts, claiming some acts, "by their nature run contrary to the face wants of the addressee and / or of the speaker". According to Goldsmith (2000) this enables Brown and Levinson's to categorize acts as threatening to either the speaker or hearer's positive or negative face.

Goldsmith (2000) states that Brown and Levinson's agree that FTAs do not arise in single acts. According to Goldsmith (2000), Brown and Levinson's recognize how the sequential placement of an FTA might shape implications for face. Brown and Levinson's theory of politeness (1987) sticks to the speech act as a unit. According to Goldsmith (2000) the sequential placement of a FTA locates face threat in the conventional rules for issuing speech acts rather than in participants' inferences about goals, and it overlooks the ways in which inferences about goals rely on the sequential placement of acts in an interaction.

Wilson and colleagues (1998) show that giving advice, asking a favour, and enforcing an obligation all influence goals that may be pursued by issuing directives. However, directives are said to have an ability to threaten face in other ways.

Wilson and colleagues (1998) differentiate types of threats that may arise from different influence goals, namely goal-specific threats to face and context-dependent threats to face. Goldsmith (2000) states that Sanders (1995) proposes two principles for the identification of action sequences. The first sequences of action make some kinds of goals more or less relevant to the ongoing interaction and the second sequences of action present rights and responsibilities for participants that may be consonant or dissonant with desired identities. Goldsmith (2000) postulate that asking questions does not threaten positive face but participation in the sequence presupposes identities as threatening to the employee's positive face. The sequence presupposes the boss has a right to expect that the actions in question would be done and that the employee failed in his or her responsibility to complete them.

Goldsmith (2000) states that Wilson and colleagues (1998) reformulate the politeness theory's account for how acts threaten face. For example they say an act is face threatening by virtue of the longer goal or plan of which it is a part, the degree to which an act threatens face, and the nature of these threats, depends on the inferences participants

draw about these intended courses of action and the types of identities these plans presuppose. According to Goldsmith (2000) these inferences reveal sequentially as succeeding acts constrains what plans and identities are relevant.

SOLICITATION OF ADVICE

According to Goldsmith (2000) it is important to study advice sequences in order to learn more about why some instances of advice are more appropriate and effective than others. Goldsmith (2000) sees advice as a common type of FTA in personal relationship. According to Goldsmith (2000) advice is not always accepted as it threaten face of the recipient. Goldsmith (2000) in her study formulated dilemmas associated with seeking, giving and receiving advice according to Goldsmith (2000) recipients see advice in different ways, from example, they see it as “butting in” or as failing to be “supportive” goldsmith (2000) states that the nature of the face threat, may vary as a function of the sequence in which the advice occurred, and the rejection of giving advance when advice has been requesting can be interpreted as a lack of caring and concern.

THE PRESENT STUDIES

Goldsmith (2000) has identified two studies which are designed to meet the dual goals of exploring how sequential placement of an FTA affects interpretations of face threat and explaining why some instances of advice are evaluated more positively than others.

STUDY I: IDENTIFYING PATTERNS OF ADVICE SOLICITATION

(I) RATIONALE

Goldsmith (2000) states that advice may be sought and given in a wide variety of episode, for example, consultation with a paid professional, and so on Goldsmith (2000) the states study context troubles talk conversation: episodes, in which a friend, family member, romantic partner told another person what to do, think or fee, about some daily hassle.

According to Goldsmith (2000) the function of solicitation suggests that advice is either unsolicited or solicited Goldsmith (2000) postulates that if advice is face threatening it means that advice givers might use pre-sequences, much as securing agreement that something is problematic, before offering a solution to the problem, and it is said that

advice seeker may threaten his or her face by admitting assistance goldsmith (2000) states that study 1 was guided by two questions, namely, (a) what are some common patterns in the way in which advice is introduced into troubles-talk conversation? (b) what are distinguishing features of these patterns that might be relevant to judgment that advice is solicited and face sensitive?

(II) METHOD

Goldsmith (2000) states that her analysis was based on observation and interview data. Data were collected by a team of five women and one man, aged 20 to 38.

Goldsmith (2000) states that research team members took field notes on advice giving episodes they have noticed. Goldsmith (2000) states that she developed a summary gloss of that types of utterances that preceded advice, and also developed categories of advice preceding sequences. According to Goldsmith (2000) the method used in study I was inductive and interpretive, with the goals of identifying potentially meaningful variations in advice sequence.

(III) FINDINGS

Goldsmith (2000) identifies six patterns through which advice was introduced, namely recipient asks for advice, (b) recipient asks for opinion, (c) recipient discloses a problem, (d) recipient announces a plan of action, (e) advisor identifies problem experienced by the recipient; and (f) advisor volunteers advice.

(1) Recipient asks for advice.

According to Goldsmith (2000) advice is asked in three explicit ways. The most explicit statement, "I need your advice". Goldsmith (2000) states that this statement identifies advice as a desired response and expresses some degree of urgency. Goldsmith (2000) state that statement 'I need your advice' is followed by the assent of the advice giver and then by a description of the recipient's problem, for example, the advice seeker (recipient) would ask, "what should I do?".

According to goldsmith (2000) states that before advice is given it is important to know the nature of the problem. Goldsmith (2000) states that the advice seeking questions for example, should I do x ? "What should I do?" "Do you think I should I take the make up exam" and so on, are preceded by discussion of the problem but in other instances the participants have prior knowledge of the problem

(2) Recipient asks for opinion or information.

According to Goldsmith (2000) advice recipients sometimes asks for an opinion of some action, for example, what do you think of X? or "should I do X ?" According to Goldsmith (2000) in "Should I do X?" advisor's opinion is implicit in his or her answer about whether or not to do it, but in the desired response to "what do you think of X" the evaluation of the action is explicit and the advisability of the action is implied. Goldsmith (2000) states that the asker (for an opinion, has the right to decide. Goldsmith (2000) further states that both information and opinion are useful in evaluation of some course of action, and asking for an opinion could be treated as a means of establishing that one's feelings are justified or a means of gauging the other's willingness to be a listener.

3. Recipient discloses a problem

Goldsmith (2000) states that other researchers have come to a conclusion that advice is an unwelcome response to a problem disclosure, a "troubles teller" may prefer a "sympathetic and responsive" "troubles recipient" instead. However in the data the interpretations of participants and observers suggest announcing a problem has been heard as a way of asking for advice, but observers could hear announcing a problem as asking for advice does not mean the problem announces wanted advice.

According to Goldsmith (2000) the way in which a problem is alluded may influence its hear-ability as solicitation of advice.

3. Recipient announces plan of action

According to Goldsmith (2000) mean that after advice has been given its now left for the recipient to decide and take some action. When the recipient announces a plan, this is heard as soliciting advice. Goldsmith (2000) further states that if the plan to be taken is problematic further advice is encouraged to correct the problem, like in the following example:

Holly : are you going away for break?

Wendy : Concern. You?

Holly : No, I can't afford a planed ticket. I was going to Florida to see my
grandparents

Wendy : Why don't you drive?

Holly: says "I was going to go" instead of "I'm going" and by offering lack of funding as he explanation, she suggests that Florida is an affordable but not preferred destination. Goldsmith (2000) states that the way holly announces her plans simultaneously suggests a "problem" with the plan, and this means that the advice was not solicited.

(5) Advisor identifies problem

Goldsmith (2000) postulates that sometimes advice giver introduces the problem to the topic, rather than the recipient and thus is called "advisor volunteers advice" According to Goldsmith (2000) once the problem has been identified the recipient has to ratify the problem, and then the advice is offered in next turn, for example,

Dori : you look like you're allergic

Katy: Yes, it's been awful. I've never has allergies before

Dori : I'm taking Seldane and that really helps

Goldsmith (2000) states that once the advisor introduces the problem into the conversation the recipient could be seen as having solicited advice.

(6) Advisor volunteers advice.

According to Goldsmith (2000) advice follows the givers observation of an action he or she views as problematic. For example, observing leave taking behaviour, a friend says, "Don't leave tonight. You shouldn't drive in the dark according to Goldsmith (2000) the recipient has already undertaken or in process of completing some act and fact that the recipient is doing the action suggests he or she does not see it as problematic and the recipient of advice doesn't introduce the action as a topic on which the advisor's comment is desired; recipients either don't introduce the action into the conversation at all or they introduce it as a fait accompli.

(iv) DIMENSIONS THAT DIFFERENTIATE TYPES OF SEQUENCES.

Goldsmith (2000) has identified six types of sequences and factors that contribute to inferences about the degree to which advice was clearly solicited the factors are: development of categories of episodes

These as to the dimension that differentiate them (episodes)

The Table 1 that Goldsmith (2000) designs it summaries the ways in which advice sequences vary in:

- (a) the explicitness with which a recipient indicates a desire to receive advice,
- (b) whether or not the recipient acknowledges a problem exists, and (c) whether the advice giver or recipient introduces the problem topic into the conversation

Table I

Sequence types	R explicitly ask for advice	R introduces topic	R acknowledges problem
1. Recipient ask for advice	Yes	Yes	Yes
2. Recipient ask for opinion or information	Yes, but <	Yes	Yes
3. Recipient identifies problem	No	Yes	No
4. Recipient announces a plan of action	No	Yes	Yes
5. Advisor identifies recipient's problem	No	No	Yes
6. Advisor volunteers advice	No	No	No

Goldsmith (2000) hypothesizes that advice is most likely to seen as solicited when the recipient explicitly asks for advice, acknowledges a problem, and introduces the problem topic. Goldsmith (2000) also hypothesizes that advice is least likely to be seen as solicited when none of the above-mentioned conditions is met. She further states that sequences

that meet some but not all these conditions (name above) should fall midway on a solicited unsolicited continuum.

(V) STUDY 1 DISCUSSION

According to Goldsmith (2000) analysis of reported advice dialogues, and the intentions and reactions attributed to participants revealed common patterns in the way in which advice is introduced into episodes of troubles talk.

According to Goldsmith (2000) advice sequences differs with three dimensions which are relevant to judgments of solicitation and to influences about face threat. The explicitness which a recipient asks for advice affects inferences about an advice-giver's face threatening intentions goldsmith (2000) states that if advice is clearly requested, an advice-giver responds co-operatively, and when an advice-seeker admits that he/she has a problem, the advice will be seen as expressing a desire to help rather than criticizing an action.

Explicit discussion of a problem threatens a person's identity as a competent social actor.

Goldsmith (2000) states ethnographic field notes provide access to a set of interactions and to observer's interpretations of participants goals and reactions. Goldsmith (2000) developed six types of sequences through the analysis and the field notes say about solicitation or reactions to solicitation.

STUDY 2: TESTING PERCEIVED FACE THREAT ASSOCIATED WITH FORMS OF ADVICE SOLICITATION.

(i) Rationale

At the end of Study 1

Goldsmith (2000) proposes that six advice sequences might differ in the sense that advice would be seen as solicited and in the corresponding implications for threat to a recipient's face. According to Goldsmith (2000) study 2 is designed to test hypotheses just to show common and general implications of the sequential placement of advice for interpretations of solicitation (2000) has tested the following hypotheses in study 2

H₁: The six types of sequential placement differ in the degree to which an advice recipient is perceived to solicit advice. Specifically, forms in which the recipient explicitly asks for advice introduces the topics, and acknowledges a problem will be seen as more solicitous of advice than forms which possess fewer of these characteristics.

H₂: The perception that an advice recipient solicited advice will be positively associated with the perception that an advice giver shows regard for the recipient's positive and negative face.

H₃: The six different types of sequential placement will differ in the degree to which the advice giver is perceived to show regard for the recipient's positive and negative face. Specifically, (a) differences in perceived regard for face will correspond to differences in perceived advice solicitation, and (b) perceived solicitation will mediate the relationship between the six sequences and perceived regard for positive and negative face.

According to Goldsmith (2000) support for hypotheses provide evidence that threats to face arise from the placement of FTA s in larger sequences. Lastly, Goldsmith (2000) postulate, that support for these hypotheses suggest factors that participants consider relevant to evaluating more and less face sensitive advice-giving episodes

(ii) Method

1. Participants.

Goldsmith (2000) uses undergraduates at a large Midwestern University. They ranged in age from 17 to 29 years. 57.6% of them were women, and they come from different ethnic groups (American groups). And they from different academic majors and most participants wee juniors (26,4 %) or seniors (51.5 %)

2. Procedures. Each participant is given 60 dialogues and read one of them according to Goldsmith (2000) each dialogue represents one of the six ways of introducing advice into a conversation and one of ten different advice message scenarios.

After reading the dialogue, participants responded to a series of statements about the conversation and the feelings and intentions of the participants in the conversation. Each

statement is followed by a seven point scale anchored by “strongly disagree” and “strongly agree”

3. Realism of scenarios

According to Goldsmith (2000) for items form a scale measuring the perceived realism of the hypothetical scenarios and dialogues ($\alpha = .80$). The mean across all respondents, scenarios, and dialogues was above the midpoint of the scale (5.41, SD =1.40) and the means for each of ten scenarios all exceeded the midpoint of the scale.

According to Goldsmith (2000) for each situation, the mean realism score is greater than the scale midpoint value and a 95% confidence interval around the scale mean excluded the midpoint.

4. Measurement of dependent variables.

Goldsmith (2000) states that five items formed a scale measuring the degree to which the advice recipient was perceived to solicit advice ($\alpha = .92$). The mean value is near the midpoint (3.90, SD 1.80). Goldsmith (2000) further states that four items form a scale measuring the degree to which the advice giver was perceived to show regard for the recipient's positive face ($\alpha = .72$; $M=3.30$, $SD =1.24$) Four items formed a scale measuring the degree to which the advice giver was perceived to show regard for the recipients negative face ($\alpha = .72$; $M=4.02$, $sd = 1.29$).

According to Goldsmith (2000) information regarding the measurement properties if items come from a confirmation factor analysis in which the three factors co-varied, items are constrained to load on their respective factors, and one item per factor was a reference indicator. The chi-square test was significant, $X^2 (62)=2.16$, $P<.001$, the comparative fit index indicates good fit.

5. Results

Sequence and Perception of Solicitation.

Goldsmith (2000) states that the first hypothesis predicts relationships between the six advice sequences and respondents' perceptions that the recipient solicited advice. Goldsmith (2000) postulates that she conducted a mixed-model analyses of variance, with perceived solicitation of advice as the dependent variable, the six sequential patterns as a

fixed factor and the ten different advice message scenarios as a random factor. Power to detect a main effect of sequential pattern was 1.00 for large effects, 80 to 90 for medium effects, and 28 to 34 for small effects.

According to Goldsmith (2000) perception that advice was solicited depends on how advice was introduced into a dialogue, $F(5.45) = 29.76$; $P < .001$ Goldsmith (2000) states that she uses student Newman-Keuls test ($P < .05$) to examine differences in mean perceived solicitation for the six sequences. According to Goldsmith (2000) sequences in which an advice recipient asks for advice ($M = 5.35$, $SD = 1.41$) do not differ from sequences in which advice recipient asks for opinion or information ($m = 5.02$, $SD = 1.66$). Both types of sequences are perceived as soliciting advice. The sequences in which the advice recipient discloses a problem ($M = 4.01$, $SD = 1.52$) are seen as similar to sequences in which advice recipient announces a plan ($M = 3.75$, $SD = 1.50$) with both means close to the midpoint and grand mean. The fifth sequence by Goldsmith (2000) in which the advisor identifies a problem, received the highest rating ($M = 3.05$, $SD = 1.35$) the sixth sequence, in which the advisor volunteers advice, received the lowest rating ($M = 2.19$, $SD = 1.17$)

The second hypothesis by Goldsmith (2000) predicts a positive association between perceptions that the recipient solicited advice and perceptions of the degree to which the advisor showed regard for the recipient's face.

The third hypothesis by Goldsmith (2000) again, examined the relationship between the different advice sequences and perceived regard for the recipient's face, and it also predicts that differences in perceived regard for face across the types of advice sequences would correspond to differences in perceived solicitation. Goldsmith (2000) states that sequential pattern has an effect on perceived regard for both positive and negative face. The average effect of sequential pattern on positive face was modest ($W^2 = .04$) whereas the average effect of sequential pattern on negative face was smaller ($W^2 = .03$)

Goldsmith (2000) lists the mean standard deviation for ratings of perceived regard for positive face as follows:

- Recipient identifies problem (sequence 3, $M = 3.61$, $SD = 1.33$);
- Recipient announces a plan of action (sequences 2, $M = 3.34$, $SD = 1.19$) recipient asks for advice (sequence 1, $M = 3.27$, $SD = 1.22$) advisor identifies recipient's problem (sequence 5,

M=3.08, SD=1.22) advisor volunteers advice (sequence 6, M=2.84,SD =0.97). The mean and standard deviation for ratings of perceived regard for negative face are as follows:

- Recipient asks for opinion or information (sequence 2, M=4.33, SD=1.38)
- Recipient announces a plan of action (sequence 4, M=4.19, SD=1.12)
- Recipient asks for advice (sequence 1, M=4.10, SD=1.23)
- Recipient asks for advice (sequence 3, M=4.10,SD=1.28)
- Advisor identifies recipient problem (sequence 5, M=3.93, advice (sequence 6, M=3.49, SD =1.25)

According to Goldsmith (2000) indicates how types of sequences were related to perceptions that advice was solicited suggested four groups: recipient asks for advice, opinion, or information (sequence 1 of 2 recipient discloses a problem or announces a plan (sequences 3 & 4) advisor identifies a problem (sequence 5); and advisor volunteers advice (sequences 6) in order to test the hypothesis that differences in perceived face regard would correspond to differences in perceived solicitation, goldsmith (2000) states that the created four non-orthogonal contrasts. The first contrast compared sequences in 1 and 2 to sequences 3 and 4, the second compared sequences 1 and 2 to 5 and 6, the third compared 3 and 4 and 5 and 6, and the fourth compared 5 and 6. According to goldsmith (2000) in sequences where the recipient discloses a problem or announces a plan (3 and 4) the advice giver shows more regard for the recipients positive face than in sequences in which the recipient asks for advice, opinion for information or sequences in which the advisor identifies a problem or volunteers advice (sequences 5 and 6) the negative face is revealed when the recipient asks for advice opinion or information or when the recipient disclosed a problem or announces a plan. Goldsmith (2000) states that hypothesis 36 predicts that solicitation mediate the effects of sequence on perceived regard for face. This hypothesis (136) has been tested by mixed model analysis of covariance in which perceived solicitation has been included as a covariate.

According to Goldsmith (2000) the results of cheese analysis are inconclusive. Goldsmith (2000) states that the sequences reveal a number of beta weights, namely;

- recipient asks for advice (sequence 1), b=.19;
- recipient asks for opinion or information (sequence 2), b=3.1,
- recipient discloses a problem (sequence 3) b, =.39.
- recipient announces a plan (sequence 4) b=.51;
- advisor identifies a problem (sequence 5) b=.41;

-advisor volunteers advice (sequence 6), 6=.28

Goldsmith (2000) states that heterogeneity precludes a meaningful significance test using a mixed model analysis. According to Goldsmith (2000) states that the direct effect of the covariant on perceived regard for negative face failed to reach significance.

(iii) Discussion (study 2)

The types of advice sequences identified in study 1 were associated with differences in the degree to which an advice recipient is as having solicited advice. According to Goldsmith (2000) the mean ratings of perceived advice solicitation their differences is said to be significant. Goldsmith (2000) states that advice is solicited when a recipient explicitly asks for advice, for an opinion of a particular action, for an opinion of a particular action, or for an opinion of a particular action, or for information about some action. The other type of sequence is ambiguous as to whether the recipient is soliciting advice. Goldsmith (2000) states that sequences in which the advisor identified a problem are seen as closer to the "unsolicited" end of continuum, but seen less unsolicited than sequences in which the advisor simply volunteers advice without the advice recipients acknowledgment of a problem. According to Goldsmith (2000) different types of advice sequence are seen as threatening both positive and negative face. Goldsmith (2000) states that she pays much attention to the negative face implication, for example, bold on record advice is seen as less threatening to negative face when the advice recipient initiated the sequence, for examples, asking for advice and so on, than when the advisor identified the problem or volunteered advice.

Goldsmith (2000) states that mitigation of face threats arises when the advice recipient lets the advisor is told that there is a problem before she / he give advice. Goldsmith (2000) postulates that there is link between differences in advice sequences and differences in perceived regard for negative, and that link as the perceived solicitation. Goldsmith (2000) states that advice sequences and perceptions of solicitation have effects on perceived regard for face, and these effects are larger than the effects on perceived regard for negative face, out the effect are more variable and less consistent in goldsmith's view.

According to Goldsmith (2000) dialogues used in study 2, recipients who asked for advice, opinion or information (sequences 1 and 2) received advice with no problem discussion goldsmith (2000) states that effects of advice sequence on perceptions of solicitation and

regard for positive face are important and variability is also important across dialogues. According to goldsmith (2000) the respondent's perception that advice is solicited mediates judgments about the regard for positive face that is shown in a particular type of advice sequence. Goldsmith (2000) states there is one interpretation of the findings, that is a judgment about the degree to which advice is solicited is one factor that is most influential when the discursive cues are mixed.

CHAPTER 4

4.1 AIM

In this chapter, advice situations will be selected together with sub-situations from these situations, a questionnaire will be drawn up which will be completed by learners. An analysis of advice expressions within these completed questionnaires in Tshivenda will be made in accordance with a list of advice applications, that is, emotion topics, problem topics, relationship topics, speaker topics and conversation topics.

4.2 ADVICE SITUATIONS

Ten advice sub-situations, dealing with advice topics in Tshivenda, have been selected. These advice situations have been selected because they are applicable to the target group, which in this case are learners in grade ten at Tshala Secondary School. The school is situated in Mamuhoi village, Limpopo Province, Venda. These situations have been divided into two major situations, namely teachers and learners, each situation has five sub-situations. These situations are considered to be relevant to various problems which learners may encounter, either at school, at home or with their friends.

The first situation, teachers, it is relevant to learners because at school learners are taught by teachers who have different attitudes towards them (learners) and some of the teachers acted as the untouchables hence they don't do their job properly, for example, there are teachers who do not teach while they are in their classes, some discriminate children against each other are, and some don't even look at their learners' work.

The second situation, learners, it is relevant to learners because these are the problems that learners are encountering at school situation, for example, English proficiency, it is a problem because English is an additional language to the African learners. As a result they meet some difficulties while learning it. Late coming as a problem is also relevant to learners. Drinking is also relevant because these days some learners come to school while drunk as a result they cause havoc at their respective schools. Stolen money too is a problem relevant to the learners.

4.3 QUESTIONNAIRE

4.3.1 COPY OF A QUESTIONNAIRE

THAIDZO DZA VHATUKANA NA VHASIDZANA

MUROLE GIREIDI 10

1. THAIDZO: MUDEDEDZI U TAMBISA TSHIFHINGA

Vhagudiswa vha gireidi ya fumi vho no vha kha themo ya vhuraru ya nwaha. Munwe wa vhadededzi ha khou ita mushumo wawe wa u funza lwo fhelelaho. U tambisa tshifhinga tshinzhi a khou amba nga ha thaidzo dzawe.

MBILAELO: Mugudiswa u vhilaela nga ha mudededzi a sa funzi

NGELETSHEDZO : Ni nga eletshedza hani mugudiswi uyu zwifhiwa uri a ite mini.

2. THAIDZO: VHUKONI HA MUGUDISWA KHA LUISIMANE

Munwe mugudiswa u khou tea u lugisela tshipida tsha dibeithi nga luisimane, fhedzi mugudiswa uyu ha tou vha na vhukoni ha nthesa kha luisimane,

NGELETSHEDZO: Ni nga eletshedza mugudiswa uyu zwifhio:

3. THAIDZO: U LENGA U DA TSHIKOLONI

Munwe mugudiswa u khou tea u da tshikoloni nga tshifhinga, fhedzi mugudiswa uyu u ita mishumo minzhi ya hayani phanda ha musi asa athu u di lugisela u ya tshikoloni.

MBILAELO: Mugudiswa u vhilaedzwa nga u lenga u swika tshikoloni

NGELETSHEDZO: Ni nga eletshedza mugudiswa uri a ite mini?

4. THAIDZO: MUDEDEDZI HA TOLI BUGU YA MUGUDISWA

Bugu ya maanea a munwe mugudiswa yo vha yo tea yo tolwa na dza vhanwe vhagudiswa fhedzi mudededzi o i humisela murahu i songo tolwa.

MBILAELO: Mugudiswa u vhilaedzwa nga bugu yawe i songo tolwaho:

NGELETSHEDZO: Ni nga eletshedza mugudiswa uyu uri a ite mini.

5. THAIDZO: MUDEDEDZI HA FUNI MUGUDISWA

Munwe mugudiswa u khou takalela u vha khou khwairi ya tshikolo, fhedzi mudededzi o rangaho phanda khwairi u thudzela mugudiswa kule ngauri ha mu funi.

MBILAELO: Mugudiswa u vhilaedzwa nga u bviswa kha khwairi ya tshikolo

NGELETSHEDZO: Ni nga eletshedza mugudiswa uyu uri a ite mini?

6. THAIDZO: MUDEDEDZI A RE NA VHUTEVHELELI

Ho vha hu tshifhinga tsha u tamba, musi tsimbi itshi lila minwe mugudiswa u swika o lenga nahone u wana mudededzi o no vha kilasini. Mudededzi u hanela mugudiswa u dzhena kilasini u fhedza nga u mu valela nnda.

MBILAELO: Mugudiswa u vhilaedzwa nga u hanelwa u dzhena kilasini

NGELETSHEDZO: Ni nga eletshedza mugudiswa uyu uri a ite mini?

7. THAIDZO: U NWA HALWA

Vhagudiswa vha gireidi ya 10 vha kilasini ndi nga tshifhinga tsha u guda tsha masiari. Vhagudiswa vha khou kundelwa u guda ngauri vhanwe vhagudiswa.

MBILAELO: mugudiswa u vhilaedzwa nga u hana u dzhena kilasini.

NGELETSHEDZO: Ninga eletshedza muguduswa uyu u ri aite mini?

8. THAIDZO: MUDEDEDZI WA U BVAFHA

Vhagudiswa vha tea u ita orala. Ndi kha themo ya vhuna ya nwaha. Mudededzi u nanga lugwadanyana lwa vhagudiswa vhanwe vha newa maraga vha songo ita orala.

MBILAELO: mugudiswa munwe u khou vhilaela uri vhanwe vhagudiswa vha khou newa maraga vha songo ita orala.

NGELETSHEDZO: Ninga eletshedza muguduswa uyu u ri aite mini?

9. THAIDZO: U TSWELWA TSHELEDE

Munwe mugudiswa oda tshikoloni na tshelede ya u di rengela zwiliwa nga tshifhinga tsha u awela u wana uri tshelede yo tswiwa

MBILAELO: mugudiswa u vhilaedzwa nga tshelede yawe yo tswiwaho.

NGELETSHEDZO: Ninga eletshedza muguduswa uyu u ri aite mini?

10. THAIDZO: VHUSHAI HAYANI

Munwe mugudiswa u bva mutani u shayaho. Mushumo wawe wa tshikolo u khou tsela fhasi tshothe ngauri tshinwe tshifhinga u da tshikolini a songo ita tshunwahaya ngauri ha vha hu si na luvhone hayani, tshinwe tshifhinga u da kilasini a sokou edela nga mulandu wa ndala.

MBILAELO: mugudiswa u vhilaedzwa nga vhushai ha mutani wa hawe.

NGELETSHEDZO: Ni nga eletshedza mugudiswa uyu uri a ite mini

4.3.2 COMPLETION OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

The section on the complaint has been completed by the learners at grade ten at Tshala Secondary School. These learners ranged in age from 15 to 17 years. The advice givers were teachers from Tshala secondary school and some from Mungomani Primary school social workers and nurses from Rabali Clinic and parents from Raliphaswa Community. Tshala Secondary School and Mungomani Primary School, Rabali Clinic and Raliphaswa village are in Nzhelele area, former Venda, in Limpopo Province.

4.4 ANALYSIS OF ADVICE TOPICS

The twenty questionnaires which have been completed as indicated in par 4.3.2 above have been analyzed with regard to the various advice topics, which appear in Goldsmith (1999:319). These advice topics have been numbered from 1-7, namely,

1. Emotion topics
2. Problem topics
3. Action topics
4. Hearer topics
5. Relationship topics
6. Speaker topic
7. Conversation topics

And together with various sub-topics, a total number of 21 advice topics had been used in analysis 20 questionnaires, that is, the purpose was to establish whether these advice topics do appear in the data, and secondly, in what frequency may they occur in the advice situations.

TABLE 1: TOTAL NUMBER OF ADVICE TOPICS

Situation	No	%
A. Teachers		
1. Waste time	14	19,4 %
2. Marking books	14	19,4%
3. Choir	15	20,8%
4. Strict teacher	17	23,6%
5. Lazy Teacher	12	16,7%
TOTAL A	72	
B. LEARNERS		
	No.	%
1. English Proficiency	18	22,8%
2. Late coming	14	17,7%
3. Stolen money	15	19%
4. Poverty	16	20,2%
5. Drinking	16	20,2%
TOTAL B	79	99,9
TOTAL A + B	151	

In table 1 above, the various advice situations have been listed in a vertical order from situation 1 to situation 2. These situations refer to those which have been listed in the questionnaire above. The numbers which appear next to these situations in a horizontal order reflect the total number of advice topics which have been used in each situation as well as in each sub-situation.

4.4.1 MAJOR SITUATIONS

Situation	Total
1. Teachers	47,7%
2. Learners	52,3%

According to the above table, the advice topics which have been used in each situation may be classified into two groups:

1. Situation 2 : 52 3%
2. Situation 1: 47, 7%

In the second situation (Learners) the advisor could either clarify the problem, help to sort options or confirm choice or straight forwardly advice.

In the first situation (teachers): It seems as though students have more problems at school with other students than with related issues. Students find it easier to give each other advices than to other people as other people are not likely to understand the situation better. In this manner, the advisor then has a dual role. Students approach each other at the same level and the distance is bridged in a way that allows openness.

4.4.2 THE SUB-SITUATIONS

The two major situations in table 1 above have each five sub-situations, that is, a total number of ten sub-situations. The aim of this section is to establish the difference in the number of advice topics in the sub-situations and also to find the reasons for big difference in these advice topics.

(i) TEACHERS

Sub-situation	Percentage
1.1. Waste time	19,4%
1.2 Marking book	19, 4%
1.3 Choir	20,8%
1.4 strict teacher	23,6%
1.5. Lazy teacher	16,7%

The first advice situation, teachers, has 100 advice topics, of these 100 topics, 19,4% has been used in giving advice to situations with the problem of a teacher wasting time and marking books, 20,8% have been used in giving to students with a problem of a lazy teacher it is therefore clear that there is a big difference in the number of advice sub-situations. The length of advice in this sub-situations should differ because the weight of the problems with the teachers that learners have encountered also differed, meaning the problems are different hence they need different approach in solving them.

(ii) LEARNERS

Substation	Percentage
2.1. English Proficiency	22,8%
2.2. Late coming	17,7%
2.3. Drinking	20,2%
2.4. Stolen money	19%
2.5. Poverty	20,2%

(iii) LEARNERS

The second advice situation of learners, has 88 advice topics and 22,8% of them have been used in giving advice to the learners with the problem of English proficiency, 20,2% used in giving advice to the learners who have the problem with a learner who comes in class while drunk as well as the problem of poverty. 19% has been used in giving advice to the learner with the problem of stolen money and 17,7% used in giving advice to the learners with the problem of late coming. Therefore it is very clear that there is a big difference in the number of advice topics in these five advice situations. The length of

advice in these five sub-situations should differ because the problems with the learners that learners are encountering do have different weight, meaning that the problems are different and they need different approach in solving them.

4.5 ADVICE TOPICS IN SUB-SITUATIONS

(i) SITUATION 1: TEACHERS

Advice topics	1.1 waste time		1.2 marking books		1.3. Choir		1.4. Strict teacher		1.5. Lazy teacher	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
1.1										
1.2										
1.3										
1.4										
1.5							2	12,5%		
1.6	1	7.1%								
1.7										
2.1										
2.2	1	7.1%	1	7.1%	1	6.7%	2	12,5%	2	16,7%
2.3										
2.4			1	7.1%						
2.5										
2.6										
2.7										
2.8										
2.9										
3.1	7	50%	8	57,1%	6	40%	5	31.3%	3	25%
3.2	2	14.3%							2	16.7%
4.									1	8.3%
5.			3	21.4%	4	26.7%	1	6.3%	2	16.7%
6.	1	7.1%			3	20%	2	12.5%		
7.	2	14,3%	1	7.1%	1	6.7%	4	25%	2	16.7%

According to the table above, only 10 from 21 advice in five sub-situations above:

1. Emotion topics
 - 1.5. Your emotions is common
 - 1.6. Your emotion is temporary
2. Problem topics
 - 1.2. Problem is controllable
 - 1.3. Problem is common
2. Action topics
 - 3.1 Actions you can take
 - 3.2 Joint action we can take
3. Hearer topic
4. Relationship topics
5. Speaker topic
6. Conversation topics

EXPLANATION

The distribution of advice topics in table 4.3.1 is uneven according to the frequency of advice topic. In sub-situation 1.1. Waste time, topic 3.1. Actions you can take has 50%. It appears that the situation is workable and the advisor seems to know what actions could be taken. In topic 3.2 joint actions we can take has 14,3%, indicating that the situation as of a group nature, prompted by the teacher who waste time.

Sub-situation 1.2. Marking books, topic 3.1. Actions you can take has 57%. This single high figure in this sub-situation, directs the learner to be matured enough to address the situation either through referral to someone with authority at school or to politely confront the teacher and inform the teacher how he feels about the situation. Actions you can take in this sub-situation show that this situation has to be dealt with as a serious issue and emphasizes that the learner should not relent till the problem is handled.

Sub-situation 1.3. Choir 3.1. Actions you can take has 40%. This indicates that the situation is workable and the advisor emphasizes the point that the learner should not sit down and relax till the problem is handled.

Sub-situation 1.4. Strict teacher, topic 3.1. Actions you can take has 31,3%. The advisor realizes that the nature of and has to direct the learner to those appropriate skills that will benefit the learner in trying to bargain in negotiation a better relationship with the teacher.

Since every interaction carries with it a risk to one's humanity identifying relation dimensions is of paramount necessary in addressing the situation.

Sub-situation 1.5. Lazy teacher, topic 3.1. Actions you can take has 25%, while problem is controllable, joint actions we can take as well as relationship topics each the lateral level of concern for learners. In this instance, the learners are equally justified in the actions as they notice the outcome of the lazy teacher upon their studies. It is an act of responsibility to make teacher aware of that they wish to do well in their studies but cannot do so without the teacher's involvement.

(ii) SITUATION 2: LEARNERS

Advice topics	2.1. English proficiency		2.2 .Late coming		2.3. Drinking		2.4. Stolen money		2.5. Poverty	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
1.1	1	6.7%								
1.2			1	7.1%						
1.3	1	6.7%					2	13.3%	1	6.3%
1.4	1	6.7%								
1.5	1	6.7%								
1.6									2	12.5%
2.1										
2.2			1	7.1%	2	12.5%	2	13,3%		
2.3										
2.4	1	6.7%			1	6.3%				
2.5										
2.6										
2.7										
2.8										
2.9									1	6,3%
3.1	8	53.3%	10	71.4%	7	43.8%	6	40%	3	18,6%

3.2			1	7.1%	1	6.3%	2	13,3%	2	12.5%
4.	1	6.7%		7.1%					1	6.3%
5.					2	12.5%	1	6.7%	4	25%
6.	1	6.7%			1	6.3%			1	6.3%
7.			1	7.1%	2	12.5%	2	13.3%	1	6.3%

According to the table above, only 15 from advice topics have been used in giving advice in five sub-situations above:

- 1.1 Don't have the emotion
- 1.2 Emotion is inappropriate
- 1.3 You have this emotion
- 1.4 I share your emotion
- 1.5 Your emotion is temporary
- 1.6 Problem is controllable
- 2.2 Problem is common
- 2.9 Problem is not severe
- 3.1 action you can take
- 3.2. Joint action we can take
- 4. Hearer topics
- 5. Relationship topics
- 6. Speaker topics
- 7. Conversation topics

Explanation

Sub-situation 2.1. English proficiency, topic 3.1. Actions you can take has 53,3%. The percentage means that when the advisor evaluates all options, the most suitable approach is to direct the solicitor to take action in order to get positive results. The advisor has to be careful of the actions suggested since his role somehow aims at neutralizing the encounter.

Sub-situation 2.2. Late coming, topic 3.1 Actions you can take has 71,4%. It is always important to notice the background prompting a problem in order to solve it. In this manner, the advisor identifies the problem cause in order to advice properly. The topic

does not necessarily direct the speaker on what to do but helps the teacher understand the situation by analyzing the problem cause.

Sub-situation 2.3. Drinking, topic 3.1. Actions you can take has 43,8%. Actions that can be taken with regard to a disrespectful learner are linked to discipline that has changed in modern times where new and disciplinary measures have been introduced. It can be difficult for a teacher to negotiate respect from learners when learners feel that they have freedom to say and to do as they wish. Politeness etiquettes are highly important in my dealing with this situation where the teacher has to win or gain respect from the learners.

Sub-situation 2.4. stolen money topic 3.1. Actions you can take has 40%. It seems appropriate for the advisor to suggest an action to take because the teacher has more authority over the situation than learners with a learner who has stolen money, the teacher can take actions to encourage or penalise the learner for stealing.

Sub-situation 2.5 poverty, topic 3.1. actions you can take has 18,6%. The percentage shows that the teacher is aware of the real problem and will therefore hopefully advice accordingly. Topic 5: relationship topic has 25% because it is an area of reading and support. How the teacher addresses the learner in this situation depends on the politeness skill employed

The distribution of these advice topics is also uneven like the advice topics given in situation 1: teachers. The reason being the advice givers are quite well relevant in response to the students who have problems in this table (situation) 2: learners) the significant parentage are: 53,3%, 71,4%, 43,8%, 40% 25% and 18.6%. These percentages tell us that the advice topics they are representing or reflecting have been chosen most compared to other advice topics and some advice topics are not taken or not used at all. The advice givers think that these advice topics with high percentages are the most relevant in response to the students problems.

4.5.1 INDIVIDUAL ADVICE TOPICS IN MAJOR SITUATIONS.**(i) ADVICE SITUATION 1: TEACHERS**

Advice topic	Number	Percentage
1.1		
1.2		
1.3		
1.4		
1.5	2	2.8%
1.6.	1	1.4%
2.1.		
2.2.	7	9.9%
2.3.		
2.4	1	1.4%
2.5		
2.6		
2.7		
2.8		
2.9		
3.1	29	40.9%
3.2	4	5.6%
4.	1	1.4%
5.	10	14%
6.	6	8.4%
7.	10	14%

Explanation

Teachers: 3.1. Actions you can take has 40,9% topics used to confirming that in terms of the situation the adult teacher has to take action to save the situation. The teacher a has to be confidence and responsible enough to be held accountable for the action taken. Based on the assumption that a teacher would have received pedagogical instruction and training, he or she has to show consent for he learners.

Given this background, the advisor would take it in good faith that action will be taken intuitively.

(ii) ADVICE SITUATION 2:

LEARNERS

Advice Topic	Number	Percentage
1.1	1	1.3%
1.2	1	1.3%
1.3	1	1.3%
1.4	4	5.3%
1.5	1	1.3%
1.6	2	2.6%
2.1		
2.2	5	6.6%
2.3		
2.4	2	2.6
2.5		
2.6		
2.7		
2.8		
2.9	1	1.3%
3.1	34	44.7%
3.2	6	7.9%
4	2	2.6%
5	7	9.2%
6	3	3%
7	6	7.9%

In the table 4.4.2. above, I have identified 15 advice topics. In this table, topics which have the significantly high percentages are : 3.1. Action Topic-actions you can take 44.7%

Explanation

Learners: topic 3.1. Actions you can take have 44,7% referring to a high number of what learners try to find their own individually and ways of doing things, mostly indifferent ways from others.

4.6 INDIVIDUAL ADVICE TOPICS

Advice Topics	No	%
1.1	1	0.7%
1.2	1	0.7%
1.3	1	0.7%
1.4	4	2.7%
1.5	3	2.1%
1.6	3	2.1%
2.1		
2.2	12	8.2%
2.3		
2.4	3	2.1
2.5		
2.6		
2.7		
2.8		
2.9	1	0.7%
3.1	63	43.2%
3.2	10	6.9
4	3	2.1%
5.	17	11.6%
6.	8	5.5%
7.	16	11%

In the table above I have identified 15 topics and those with a high percentage are as follows:

- (a) 3.1 Actions you can take 43.7%,
- (b) 5. Relationship topic 11.6%,
- (c) 7. Conversation topic 11%
- (d) Problem is uncontrollable 8.2%
- (e) Joint actions we can take 6.9% and
- (f) Speakers topic 5.5. %.

In the table 4.5. above I have identified 15 topics and those with a high percentage are as follows: 3.1. Actions you can take 43,2%

The topic 3.1. Actions you can take have 43,2%. This refers to a high number of what learners are advised to do. Learners try to find their own individuality and ways of doing things ways from others. Topic 5: relationship topic has 11,6%. This indicates that the advice givers expect learners to form good relations with their teacher so that they can tell him or her their dissatisfaction about the treatment they are getting from him or her and the learner too can tell them how he or she feels about them

CHAPTER 5

PATTERNS OF ADVICE SOLICITATION IN TSHIVENDA

5.1. AIM

The purpose of this chapter is to investigate the manner in which students solicit advice and to classify the solicitation acts according to Goldsmith's (2000) patterns. There are various ways of asking for advice. Classifications serve the purpose of identifying the most commonly and less frequently used patterns. The patterns indicate a trend student and possibly people in general, use in soliciting advice.

5.2. PATTERNS OF ADVICE SOLICITATION

According to Goldsmith (2000:6) there are six patterns through which advice is introduced. The six patterns are as follows:

- (a) Recipient asks for advice
- (b) Recipient asks for option or information
- (c) Recipient discloses problem
- (d) Recipient announces a plan of action
- (e) Advisor identifies problem experienced by the recipient; and
- (f) Advisor volunteers advice.

(a) Recipient asks for advice.

According to Goldsmith (2000:6) advice is asked in three explicit ways. The most explicit statement "I need your advice". Goldsmith (2000) states that this statement identifies advice as a desired response and expresses some degree of urgency. Goldsmith (2000) states that statement "I need your advice" is followed by the assent of the advice giver and then by a description of the recipient's problem, for example the advice seeker (recipient) would ask "what must I can do in order to get it not stolen? Goldsmith (2000) states that before advice is given it is important that the advice seeking questions for example, " what should I do? and so on are preceded by discussion of the problem but in other distances the participants have prior knowledge of the problem.

(b) Recipient asks for option or information

According to Goldsmith (2000) advice recipients sometimes asks for an opinion of some action, for example, "should I do X?" According to Goldsmith (2000) advisor is option is implicit in his or her answer about whether or not to do it, but in the desired response to "what do you think if X?" "The evaluation of the action is explicit and the advisability of the action is implied. Goldsmith (2000) states that the asker (for an opinion) has the right to decide. Goldsmith (2000) further states that both information and opinion are useful in evaluation of some course of action and asking for an opinion could be treated as a means of establishing that one's feelings are justified or a means of gauging the other's willingness to be a listener.

(c) Recipient discloses a problem

Goldsmith (2000) states that other researchers have come to a conclusion that advice is an unwelcome response to a problem disclosure "a trouble's teller; may prefer a sympathetic and responsive" troubles recipient instead. For example in the questionnaire there is a such utterance; "I am missing other period or lessons" however in the data the interpretations of participants and observers suggest announcing a problem had been heard as a way of asking advice, but observers could hear announcing a problem as a way of asking advice for advice does not mean the problem announces wanted advice. According to Goldsmith (2000) the way in which a problem is alluded may influence its hearer's ability as solicitation of advice.

(d) Recipient announces plan of action

According to Goldsmith (2000) means that after advice has been given it is now left for the recipient to decide and take some action when the recipient announces a plan, for example, "because of hunger I am thinking of leaving school just to get something to eat;" this is heard as soliciting advice. Goldsmith (2000) further states that if the plan to be taken is problematic further advice is encouraged to correct the problem, like in the following example:

Holly: "Are you going for break?"

Wendy: concern, you?"

Holly: "No, I can't afford a plane ticket. I was going to Florida to see my grandparents"

Wendy: "Why don't you drive?"

Holly: says, "I was going to ---"instead of saying; " I am going" and by offering lack of finding as she explains, she suggests that Florida is an affordable but not preferred destination. Goldsmith (2000) states that the way Holly announces her plans simultaneously suggests a "problem" with the plan, and this means that the advice was not solicited.

(e) Advisor identified problem

Goldsmith (2000) postulates that sometimes advice giver introduces the problem to the topic, rather than the recipient and thus is called "advisor volunteers advice". According to Goldsmith (2000) once the problem has been identified the recipient has to rectify the problem, and then the advice is offered in next turn for example;

Dori: "You look like you're allergic."

Katy: Yes, it's been awful. I've never has allergies before"

Dori: "I 'm taking Seldane and that really helps"

Goldsmith (2000) states that once the advisor introduces the problem into the conversation, the recipient could be seen as having solicited advice.

(f) Volunteers advice

According to Goldsmith (2000) advice follows the givers observation of an action he or she views as problematic. For example, observing leave taking behaviour, a friend says, "Don't leave tonight. You shouldn't drive in the dark." According to Goldsmith (2000) the recipient has already undertaken or in process of completing some act and the fact that the recipient is doing the action suggests he or she does not see it as problematic and the recipient of advice does not see it as problematic and the recipient of advice does not introduce the action as a topic on which the advisor's comment is desired recipient, either doesn't introduce the action into the conversation at all or they introduce it as a fait accompli.

5.3. ADVICE SITUATIONS AND PATTERNS OF ADVICE SOLICITATION**Table**

Situation	Number	Percentage
A. Teachers		
1. Waste time (1)	25	24.2%
2. Marking of books (4)	21	20.3%
3. Choir (5)	20	19.4%
4. Strict teacher (6)	19	18.4%
5. Lazy teacher (8)	18	17.4%
Total A	103	
B. Learners		
1. English Proficiency	25	22%
2. Late coming (3)	22	19.1%
3. Drinking (7)	26	23%
4. Stolen money (9)	21	18.2%
5. Poverty (10)	21	18.2%
Total B		
Total A + B	218	

In table 5.3 above, the various advice situations have been listed in a vertical order from situation 1 (teachers) to situation 2 (B learners). These situations refer to those, which have been listed in the questionnaire. The numbers which appear next to these situations in a horizontal order reflect the total number of advice solicitations which have been used in each situation as well as in each sub-situation.

5.3.1 MAJOR SITUATIONS

Situation	Total
1. Teachers	47.3%
2. Learners	52.7%

According to table 5.3.1 above, the patterns of advice solicitation, which have been used in each sub-situation, may be classified as follows.:

The patterns of advice solicitation which have a significantly high percentage are the following: identify a problem, recipient announce plan of action, recipient asks for advice and asks for opinion.

Explanation

In situation 1.1. teacher wastes time, advice solicitation 5 identifying problem has 56%, here the learners are able to identify the problem because failure to do so could have an impact in their studies.

The same goes for situation 1.2. Marking books, advice solicitation number 5 identifying problem has 62%. It is good to identify a problem when a learners keep on getting low marks that are not satisfactory when a learner has done his best. It might be that the teacher is not marking the books properly.

In the same situation, the advice solicitation number 2 asks for opinion has 19%. Here the learners realise that they need the opinion of someone with the authority or from someone who is more knowledgeable than them so that their problem might or could be justified.

In situation 1.3. choir advice solicitation number 5 identifying problem has 55%. Here the learners are able to identify the problem because failure to do so they could develop a bad attitude towards music teachers and this could have an impact in their self-esteem.

In situation 1.4. strict teacher, advice solicitation number 5 identifying problem has 63.1%. * Here the learners are also able to identify a problem. it is good to identify as problem when a learner is denied the right to enter the class when he or she is a minute or seconds late and the learner has tried to run to the class when the bell is ringing. It might be that the teacher is not exercising his or her power properly or not acting professionally.

In situation 1.5. Lazy teacher, the advice solicitation number 4 plan of action has 61.1%. here the learners have identified the actions they could take rather than wait and see what the teacher could do for their studies.

In the same situation, the advice solicitation number 1 asks for advice has 22% . Here the learners have realised that they must get an advice from someone in the higher office of the school because failure to do so could have a bad impact on their studies.

5.4.2 SITUATION 2: LEARNERS

Advice solicitation	2.1 English proficiency		2.2Late coming		2.3 Drinking		2.4. Stolen money		2.5 Poverty	
	No	%	N	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
1. ask for advice	3	12%	2	9%	3	11.5%	6	28.5%	3	14.2%
2. ask for opinion									1	4%
3.1 statement of facts					1	4%	1	4%		
3.2 consequences	4	16%	3	14%	4	15,3%	1	4%	1	4%
4. announce plan of action	1	4%			1	4%	2	9.5%	7	33.3%
5. identify problem	17	68%	17	77.2%	17	65.3%	11	52.3%	9	43%
6. volunteers advice										

In this situation 2 (learners), the patterns of advice solicitation which have significantly high percentages are the following:

- 5. Identity problem. (68%,77.2%), plan of action 33% and ask for advice(28.5%)

Explanation

In sub-situation 2.1 English proficiency, the advice solicitation number 5 identifying problem has 68%. This high figure of percentage indicates that this is a major problem for the learner and needs to be addressed as quickly as possible because if it goes unchecked this would have an impact on the performance of the learner in his or her studies.

The same goes for sub-situation 2.2. late coming, the pattern of advice solicitation number 5 identifying problem has 77.2% . This indicates that the issue needs to be investigated further because the learners late coming might be caused by household chores that the learner is doing at home. Therefore the learner's parents need to be seen and talked to about this problem.

In sub- situation 2.3. drinking: the patterns of advice solicitation number 5 identifying problem has 65,3%. This high figure of also indicates that this is a major problem that needs immediate attention of the school management because learners could not learn in such environment.

In sub-situation 2.4. Stolen money: the patterns of advice solicitation number 5 identifying a problem, has 52,3%. This also proves that this is a major problem and the management of the school has to do something to curb this problem. However, it is a difficult issue because teachers are trained to teach not to investigate offences occurring in their workplaces. In the same sub-situation 2.4. stolen money, the pattern of advice solicitation number 1, ask for advice has 28,5%.

This indicates that this is a frustrating issue, the learners have to get advice on how avoid their possessions get stolen.

In sub-situation 2.5. Poverty, the patterns of advice solicitation number 5 identifying a problem has 43%. This indicates that this is not a serious problem because the learner can go to school, as the government of the day has some schemes on place that help the needy people.

In the same sub-situation 2.5. poverty, there is another pattern of advice solicitation, number 4 announces plan of action has 33,3%. This indicates that there is more that the learners can do on their own, but they need the approval of the management of the school,

learner's representative council (LRC) or school governing body (SGB) so that the problem could be well solved.

In this situation 2 (learners), the patterns of advice solicitations which have significantly high percentages are the following: identifying problem, plan of action and asks for advice.

5.5. INDIVIDUAL PATTERNS OF ADVICE SOLICITATION

5.5.1. ADVICE SITUATION 1: TEACHERS

Advice solicitation	Number	Percentage
1. Ask for advice	15	14.5%
2. ask for opinion	11	10.6%
3.1 Statement of facts	2	2 %
3.2. Consequences	6	6 %
4. Announce plan of action	19	18.4%
5. Identity problem	50	48.5%
6. Volunteer's advice		
Total	103	100%

5.5.1. ADVICE SITUATION 1: TEACHERS

In this advice situation 1 (teachers), the patterns of advice solicitation which have the highest percentage are as follows: identifying a problem 48.5% and announce plan of action 18.4%.

Explanation

In advice situation 1 (teachers), the pattern of advice solicitation number 5, identifying a problem has 48,5%. This refers to a high number of problems that learners have which need to be handled by the teacher. This is also based on the assumption that a teacher would have received pedagogical instruction and training, he or has to show consent for the learners. Given this background the advisor would take it in good faith taken intuitively.

The patterns of advice solicitation number 4, announce plan of action has 18,4%. This indicates that the adult teacher has to take action in order to save their situation.

5.5.2 ADVICE SITUATION 2: LEARNERS

Advice situation	Number	Percentage
1. Ask for advice	17	14.8%
2. Ask for opinion	1	1%
3.1 Statement of facts	2	1.7%
3.2 Consequences	13	11.3%
4. Announce plan of action	11	9.5%
5. Identify problem	71	61.7%
6. Volunteers advice		
Total	115	100%

In the table above I have identified five patterns of advice situation, namely:

- Ask for advice
- Ask for opinion or information
- Statement of facts
- Consequences
- Announce plan of action and
- Identify problem.

These patterns could be again grouped as follows:

- Identity problem 61.7%
- Ask for advice 14.8%
- Consequences 11.3%
- Announce plan of action 9.5%
- Statement of facts 1.7% and
- Ask for advice 1. %

Explanation

In this advice situation 2 (learners), the patterns of advice solicitation number 5, identifying a problem has 61,1% referring to a high number of problems which learners have. The learners try to understand that they are unique and coming from the unique families. They do not have to blame themselves for their family backgrounds.

5.6. INDIVIDUAL PATTERNS OF ADVICE SOLICITATION

Advice solicitation	Number	Percentage
1. Ask for advice	32	14.6%
2. Ask for opinion	12	5.5%
3.1 Statement of facts	4	2%
3.2 Consequences	19	8.7%
4. Announce plan of action	30	13.7%
5. Identify problem	121	55.5%
6. Volunteers advice		
Total	218	100%

In the table above, I have identified five patterns of advice solicitation through which advice were introduced. The pattern of advice solicitation with a high frequency is the pattern number 5, identifying a problem.

Explanation

In this section the pattern of advice solicitation that has been used most is number 5, identifying a problem with 55,5%.

This indicates that the problem is a major one and it needs to be attended to as a matter of urgency. The learners know that the teacher has received the pedagogical instruction and training on the basis of this background situation could be handled professionally.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSIONS

The study of the language of politeness in giving advice illustrates certain language aspects as found in the advice and solicitation strategies of Tshivenda speakers, and the responses to advice solicitation strategies of Tshivenda speakers. The responses to advice solicitation as indicated by percentages, reveal that a polite strategy of soliciting is mostly not a direct approach among the speakers. A polite approach is generally considered as disclosing a problem, talking about it, in the hope that hearers will volunteer advice.

The major situations of solicitations indicate that in this specific set up, students have more complication with fellow learners than with teachers. One gets a closer look to investigate the reason for the complexity. Learners at grade ten are being teenagers, experience psychological and physiological changes and difficulties as they try to find their own place in the world. Cultural differences also play a role in the situation. The cultural dimension overshadows the advice-giving section, by reviling the level at which politeness is emphasized and encouraged.

According to the presentation on the outcomes of this study. Most problems leading to advice situations are derived from interpersonal relationship and consequences thereof. As in learner situation 2.4. Stolen money, Suggests the learner's frustration when denied help, which is the most common of all situations. Learners appear to wish to know how to handle or behave towards others in stressful situations. The study does not focus on the gender differences as the intensity of these issues spread beyond gender. Theft as a common problem in schools but no precise tact or in mechanism can be put in place to make the school theft-proof. In most other situations, it appears that learners behave helplessly desperate. The first highest frequency of solicitation is a learner who is coming late at school 77,2%. The current educational system seems to require that some serious politeness strategies should be applied when dealing with learners nowadays. Distance between learners and teachers as elders, has been bridged by contemptuous disregard for age and leadership. Soliciting advice in some situations gave a notion that he or she did not wish to be found undeserving of the learner's respect.

The teacher also discloses a problem as a way of introducing it to the advisor, suggesting to create ground for talk and advice while still maintaining dignity and trying to protect or reduce threat to self-esteem. To the teacher it appears to be a step-down from authority in failing to control learners, therefore not earning their respect. This situation can only be redeemed by the polite manner in which an advice is to be given to the distressed Solicitor.

The most frequently used advice topic in this section, is in the learner situation, where 3.1 Actions you can take has 44,7%

As mentioned earlier, the students have high expectations of their teachers and tend to get disappointed if these expectations are not met.

Teachers play a role if guiding, instructing giving or refusing permission and so on, that frames them in the learner's mind as those requiring a good following tend to assume that teachers are or should at least be superior in all operations. This view sometimes dehumanizes teachers and denies them a right to exist as humans than programmed machines. Once a learner can learn to use certain speech acts properly, the situation could be easily neutralized.

Some frequently used topics are; 3.1. Actions you can take (43,2%) and relationship topic (11,6%) unlike 3.1 actions you can take, these topics have fewer percentages, some features of these topics especially topic 5: relationship topic, reveals that most problems are related to personal relations. It has been interesting to find that the advisor often identifies advice to be used as related to relationship topics, signing that if learners and teachers can learn to improve how they relates, then there will be less hassles, especially by exploiting politeness strategies to neutralize ground for confrontation.

More advice topics were not frequently used in giving advice, these are; 1.1. Don't have the emotions (0,7%), 1.2. Emotions is inappropriate (0,7%) 1.3. You have this emotion (2,7%), 1.5. Your emotion is common (2.7%), 1-6. Your emotion is temporary, 2.4 problem is common (12,1%) problem is not severe (0,7%) hearer topics 92.1%) and speaker topic (5.5%).

The nature of the problem in schools did not find much use for the above topics, which were minimally used. In categorizing problem advises, advisors did not associate the above topics with the situations reported or complained about. In this case, significance to

the study because the topics do not carry much weight in proving or driving any specific point home.

The following topics were never used: 2.1. problem is uncontrollable, 2.3 problem has positive aspects 2.5 problem is temporary, problem is severe.

Problem topics 2.1. 2.3, 2.5, 2.6 and 2.7 have been grouped together. The distinctive difference of emotional input contained in these topics does not impact much value and effect in the outcomes. These have thus been grouped into problem topics.

The patterns of advice solicitation most frequently used are: 5 identifying a problem (55,5%), 1. Asks for advice (14,6%) and 4. Announces plan of action (13,7%)

Unlike 5. Identifying problem these patterns have fewer percentages. Some features of these patterns especially patterns 1. Asks for advice, reveals that in most problems learners ask advice from the advice givers and with pattern 4, announce plan of action this reflects that learners sometimes show what they can do on their rather than wait. It has been interesting that the advisor has identifies more problems these indicate that learners are really facing problems in their schooling environment.

The patterns of advice solicitation which have been used only a few times are the following: 3.2 consequences (8,7%), 2 ask for opinion (5,5%) and 3.1. statement of facts (2%)

The nature of the problems in schools did not find much use for the above patterns of advice solicitation, which were minimally used. The advisors did not associate the above patterns with learners' problems or complaints. In these case the use of these patterns of advice solicitation has no significance to the study because the patterns do not carry much weight in soliciting or giving advises to the situations reported or complained about the patterns of advice solicitation never used at all is: 6 Volunteers advice.

In this study on advice was solicited through this patters this means that it does not impact much value and effect in the outcome.

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