

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

In order to analyze the data, this chapter was aimed to present what experts said in relation to the object of this study. It involves Pragmatic, Speech Acts, Politeness, Public Communication Campaign, Donald Trump profile, Donald Trump Presidential Campaign and Theoretical Framework.

2.1. Study of Pragmatic

According to Jacob L. Mey (2001, p. 6), pragmatic study is the use of language in human communication as determined by the condition of society. Communication in society happens chiefly by means of language. However, the users of language, as social beings, communicate and use language on society's premises; society controls their access to the linguistic and communicative means. Pragmatic, as the study of the way humans use their language in a communication, bases itself on a study of those premises and determines how they affect, and effectualize human language use.

For Yule (2003, p. 3), pragmatic is concerned with the study of meaning as communicated by a speaker (or writer) and interpreted by a listener (or reader). It has, consequently, more to do with the analysis of what people mean by their utterances than what the word or phrases in those utterances might mean by themselves. According to Yule (2003, p. 4), the advantage of studying pragmatic

is that we can talk about people intended's meaning, their assumption, their purposes, and the kinds of action that they want to speak.

From all the views presented above, the writer can conclude that pragmatic studies gives account of meaning in context, the factors that affect making of the utterances by users and the effect of the utterances.

2.2. Speech Acts

Language is inseparable part in or everyday life. It is main device to convey message, communicate ideas, opinions and though. In specific situation there are moments we need to be understood language quite correctly. According to one of language philosopher J. R Searle (1976), language is performing speech act such as making request, statements, giving comments, etc. Hornby states that language is a system of sound word patterns use by human to communicate though and feeling cited in (Kisno, 2012, p. 351). It proved that all human being used language to communicate with other in order to transmit their message and to understand what they mean.

Other expert who concern at this branch also gives definition about speech act. From Yule (1996, p. 47), he said that speech act is action performed via utterance. Then, Mey (1994, p. 111) viewed that speech act are actions happening in the world, that is, they bring about a change in the existing state of fairs. In addition, Parker (1986, p. 14) defined speech act as every utterance of speech act constitute some sort of fact. In general terms, it can usually recognize the type of action performed by a speaker with the utterance. The term of speech act is to

describe actions performed by a speaker with the utterance. It can define a speech act as the action performed by a speaker with an utterance (Yule, 2006, p. 118). The importance of studying speech act is to make us comprehend what message that discovered in every utterance. If we can understand about the meaning of speech act with clearly when we speak with other people in the communication or conversation, the speaker not only speak source (the utterance have no intention and goal), but the speaker must be interpret of the speaker's meaning to the hearer and the speaker can make the hearer understand the meaning of what utterances which speaker said. The writer use Searle's theories to describe the classification on speech act

2.2.1. Illocutionary acts

Illocutionary acts are one of the three types of speech acts proposed by Austin which deal with the purpose, function, or force of utterances. This type of speech acts is generally said to be the central of speech acts and even said as the speech acts themselves (Yule, 1996, p. 49).

The criteria of illocutionary acts are based on the contexts which determine the forces or functions of the utterances (Mey, 2001, p. 110-111). Same utterances can be categorized as different illocutionary because of different forces or functions which are greatly influenced by context of use. According to Nunan (1993, p. 65) forces are the characteristics that differentiate speech acts from one another. Forces are mainly about the different ways the content propositions are involved in speech acts. Some examples of forces are

pronouncing, stating, commanding, thanking, and promising. Those forces are the functional intentions of speaker when performing an utterance.

2.2.2. Illocutionary Classification based on Searle

To make clear about the meaning from utterance, Searle (1976) proposed that speech act could be grouped into general categories based on the relation of word and world. There are five basic kinds of actions that one can perform on speaking or utterance, by means of the following types: representative, directives, commissives, expressives, and declaratives.

2.2.2.1. Representatives

Representatives cited in Yule (1996, p. 53) tells about the truthfully of the utterance. In other words, it presents external reality by making their utterance or words fit with the worlds as they believe it to be. Searle used the term “assertive” in stating this category. This type performs action such as: stating, describing, affirming, boasting, concluding, claiming, and etc. For example: “no one can make a better cake than me”, this utterance is a representatives that utterance was stating some general truth (Peccei, 1999, p. 51).

2.2.2.2. Directives

This second category means that speakers direct the hearer to perform some future act which will make the world fit with the speaker’s word (Peccei, 1995, p. 51). Directives perform commanding, ordering, requesting, warning, suggesting, inviting, and etc. For example, because the garage was mess, Ed said to Fay “clean it up!” its means that Ed commanding Fey to clean the mess.

2.2.2.3. Commisives

In commissives, speaker commits themselves to a future act which makes the words fit their words. They express what speaker intends (Yule, 1996, p. 54). Commissive is the utterance is produces to give action in the future. They are promising, vowing, planning, threatening, offering, and etc. They can be performed by the speaker alone, or by speaker as a member of group. "I'll take her to the doctor" it is the example of planning. The situation is Steve's cat named Coco is sick, and he will take Coco to the vet to check the cat (Peccei, 1999, p. 51).

2.2.2.4. Expressives

Searle make a one category for speech act that focus on primarily on representing the speaker's feeling, it was expressive. They express a psychological state (Yule, 1966, p. 53-54). The expressions such as thanking, apologizing, welcoming, condoling, pleasuring, like, dislike, joying, etc. "I'm really sorry!" is the example of apologizing in expressives types. It reflect that speaker require some apologizing to the hearer.

2.2.2.5. Declaratives

This kind of speech act is quite special, because the speaker utters words or statement that in themselves change to the world via word (Yule, 1966, p. 53). Declaration which effect immediate changes in the institutional state of affairs and which tend to rely on elaborate extra linguistic institution (Levinson, 1983, p. 236). The paradigm cases are: excommunicating, declaration war, firing, christening, etc. For example utterance: "I pronounce you husband and wife. This

utterance by a priest to declare a man and a woman marriage and become a husband and wife (Yule, 1996, p. 53).

2.3 Politeness

Pragmatics tries to establish a universal concept of politeness. It is expected to be able to be applied by all people in a whole world. However, politeness has various definitions based on each person around the world who define it because politeness is understood in different ways based on the context of each society.

Yule (1996, p. 60), defines politeness as “a system of interpersonal relations designed to facilitate interaction by minimizing the potential for conflict and confrontation inherent in all human interchange”. In the other hand, Cook (1989, p. 34) stated in *Discourse* that “politeness is the way how to act effectively together with other people”. Based on the definitions, we may assume that politeness is the best expressed of human being in order to make a good social relationship. There are several politeness theories in *Pragmatic*. In this study, the writer will discuss several well-known politeness theories.

1. Politeness Theory by Lakoff (1973)

Politeness theory of Lakoff is mother of politeness theory. It is the first theory which is explained based on *pragmatic* point of view. Lakoff's theories are presented in a politeness rules. Politeness rules contains several rules, they are:

R1: Do not impose

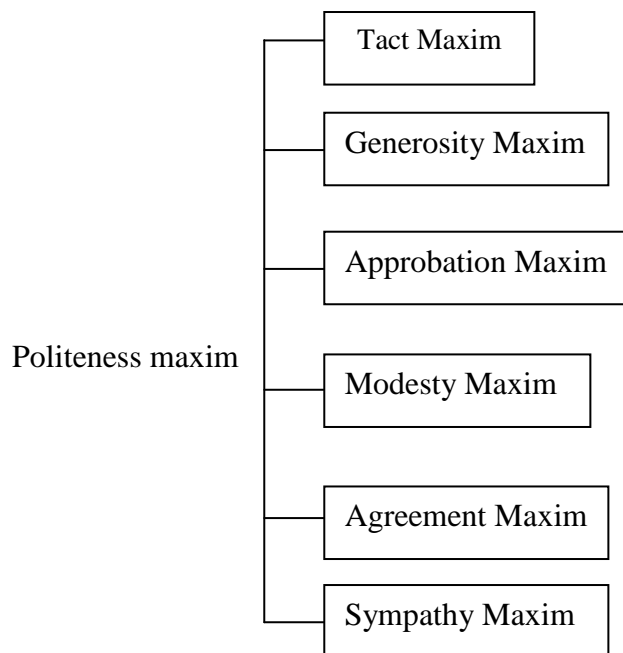
R2: Give a choice

R3: Make the hearer feels comfort, be kind

2. Politeness theory by Leech (1983)

Leech states that “politeness concerns a relationship between two participants whom we may call *self* and *other*” (Leech, 1983, p. 131). He formulates politeness theory as an effort to minimize cost and maximize benefit for the hearer. This is why Leech focusing his politeness theory on cost-benefit scale. The scale is realized in several politeness maxims. The maxims are formulated as follows:

Figure 2. Politeness theory by Leech



3. Politeness Theory by Brown and Levinson (1978)

Principally, politeness theory of Brown and Levinson is strategies to maintain other people’s “face”. The concept “face” here refers to self-esteem of human. So, the politeness strategies of Brown and Levinson here facilitates language user to save other people’s self-esteem. By using this strategy, language user will take a step to not embarrassing other people. Those strategies are:

- 1) Bald on record
- 2) Positive politeness
- 3) Negative politeness
- 4) Off record

2.3.1. The “Face” Concept

At first, “face” concept was used by Goffman. He used this concept to analyze social interaction’s structure. He analogized member of society with characters in a play. Like the characters in the play, the member of society must perform their “face”, self-esteem of everybody, as well as possible. In the play, every character has to support and save other characters’ face. It is done in order to make the other characters’ do not lose face. Like in the play, the language users have to save their own face and other people face in interaction. So that there is not face this is threatened or loose.

Brown and Levinson define face as individuals’ self-esteem. They also define face as “basic wants, which every member knows every other member desires, and which in general it is in the interest of every member to partially satisfy” (Brown, 1978, p. 62). Furthermore, Brown and Levinson divide the face concept into two categories. They are positive face and negative face. The former is understood as the desire to be approved of while the later category is the desire to be unimpeded in one’s actions. According to Brown and Levinson, the idea of face is universal. In all of human culture, this concept is exist. The two concepts of face are the basic wants of individuals in each interaction. It means that every

participant have to maintain other participant's face. It is needed to make the interaction run well.

2.3.2. The Face Threatening Acts (FTA) Concept

In our society, sometimes we find acts that are not friendly and not satisfied with us, such as the "face" of the speaker and the hearer. Brown and Levinson (1978, p. 66) states "Face Threatening Acts (FTA) is such that threats generally require a mitigating statement or some verbal repair (politeness), otherwise breakdown of communication will ensure. In other word, Face Threatening Act is action that threatened by other face, and it does not make satisfied or not run a well in communication.

	Negative Face	Positive Face
Affecting Hearer	Orders/requests	Disapproval/criticism/contempt/ ridicule
	Suggestion/advice	Complaints/reprimands/ accusations/insults
	Reminder	Contradictions/disagreements/ challenges
	Threat/warning/dares	Violent emotions
	Offers	Irreverence/taboo
	promises	Bad news/boasting
	Compliments/envy/admiration	Emotional/divisive subject matter
	Strong negative emotions	Non co-operation

		Inappropriate
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	Negative Face	Positive Face
Affecting Speaker	Acceptance of thanks/apology	Acceptance of compliment
	Excuses	Breakdown of physical control
	Acceptance of offers	Self-humiliation/deprecation
	Responses to hearer's faux pas	Confessions/admissions of guilt
	Unwilling/reluctant promises/offers	Emotional leakage/non-control of laughter/tears

2.3.3. Politeness Strategies by Brown and Levinson

Politeness theory of Brown and Levinson explain about a strategy to manage an interaction between speaker and hearer. Brown and Levinson formulate this theory in 1978 and revise in 1987. In this theory, Brown and Levinson provide several strategies to maintain the hearer's face. Thus, language users can use the strategies to achieve a successful communication without any confrontation with the hearer.

Table 2.3.3: Politeness Strategies by Brown and Levinson

No.	Politeness Strategy	Strategies
1.	Bald on record This strategy is emphasized on achieving maximum efficiency of	a) Cases of non-minimization of the face treat. It is the case where the great

	<p>communication. Thus, the speakers do the FTA directly and openly</p>	<p>urgency happen</p> <p>Ex:</p> <p>“Attack!”</p> <p>(Shane give a command for the children in a water balloon fight)</p> <p>b) Cases of FTA – oriented bald on record usage.</p> <p>This case is face oriented. It is the way how to respect for face that involves mutual orientation.</p> <p>Ex:</p> <p>“Thanks for picking me up, Tom!”</p>
2.	<p>Positive Politeness</p> <p>Positive politeness is a strategy which oriented to positive face of the hearer.</p>	<p>a) Use in-group identity markers</p> <p>Usually, this strategy is done by using a common form in a certain community or group.</p> <p>Ex:</p> <p>“Rockers, boat now!”</p> <p>(rockers is a summons of Camp Rock’s campers)</p>

		<p>b) Give or ask the reason</p> <p>Ex:</p> <p>“Trust me. Everything’s cool when I do it.”</p> <p>c) Include both S and H in the activity</p> <p>Ex:</p> <p>“Let’s do this!”</p>
3.	<p>Negative Politeness</p> <p>This strategy is purposed to save negative face.</p>	<p>a) Be conventionally indirect</p> <p>Ex:</p> <p>“Dude, you can’t keep hitting me”</p> <p>(Shane said it to Nate to make Nate stop hitting him)</p> <p>b) Question, hedge</p> <p>Ex:</p> <p>“Mitchie, can I talk to you?”</p> <p>c) Impersonalize S and H</p> <p>Ex:</p> <p>“I think somebody should talk to uncle Brown.”</p> <p>(Actually Shane want to ask Mitchie to talk to her uncle,</p>

		because Mitchie was the camper who challenged their enemy)
4.	Off Records	<p>a) Give association clues</p> <p>Ex:</p> <p>“Mom, obviously it’s something. I mean, you and subtle are not very good friends.”</p> <p>(Actually S want to say: “tell me what actually you want to told me”)</p> <p>b) Presuppose</p> <p>Ex:</p> <p>“I thought you were going to be rehearsing.”</p> <p>(S want to give a critique to H who didn’t do his/her obligation)</p>

2.3.3.1. Positive Politeness

Brown and Levinson’s work consists of two parts. The first part is their fundamental theory concerning the nature of ‘politeness’ and how it functions in

interaction. The second part is a list of 'politeness' strategies. In the theoretical part of their work, Brown and Levinson introduce the notion of "face" in order to illustrate 'politeness' in the broad sense. That is to say, all interactants have an interest in maintaining two types of 'face' during interaction: 'positive face' and 'negative face'. Brown and Levinson define "positive face" as the positive and consistent image people have of themselves, and their desire for approval. On the other hand, 'negative face' is "the basic claim to territories, personal preserves, and rights to non-distraction".

The positive politeness strategy shows that the hearer has a desire to be respected. It also confirms that the relationship is friendly and expresses group reciprocity. Positive politeness strategy ("showing solidarity"): FTA is avoided by appealing to the listener's positive face.

Examples:

- a. Is it okay if I borrow one of your pens?
- b. Can you close the door?
- c. Mind passing me the salt?
- d. Hey, can you be quite for a moment?

Positive face can be used when speaker and listener have a symmetrical relationship in terms of power (friends, siblings, students) and the speaker wishes to phrase his request as a positive appeal. Positive face-threatening acts are a direct challenge to the face of the listener. They contain an indifference to the listener's self-image and include things such as threats, insults, and belittling the listener. Positive FTA includes speech that involves socially unacceptable topics,

such as sexual innuendo and racial slurs. A speaker might also embarrass a listener by inappropriate references to gender, age, or status. A speaker's own face may be damaged in these situations by the necessity of an apology or an admission of personal weakness.

Positive politeness is redress directed to the addressee's positive face, his perennial desire that his wants (or the actions/ acquisitions/ values resulting from them) should be thought of as desirable. Redress consists in partially satisfying that desire by communicating that one's own wants (or some them) are in some respects similar to the addressee's wants.

Brown and Levinson (1978, p. 103-129) reveal the positive politeness strategy into:

Strategy 1 – Notice attend to hearer (his interest, wants, goods)

Example: *What a beautiful vase this is! Where sis it come from?*

Strategy 2 – Exaggerate (Interest, approval, sympathy with hearer)

Example: *What a fantastic garden you have!*

Strategy 3 – Intensity interest to hearer (by making good story)

Example: *I come down the stairs, and what do you think I see? – a huge mess all over the place, the phone's off the hook and clothes are scattered all over...*

Strategy 4 – Use in group identify markers

Example: *Come here, buddy.*

Strategy 5 – Seek Agreement

Example: *Isn't your new car a beautiful color!*

Strategy 6 – Avoid Disagreement

Example: *Yes, I do like your new hat!* (c.i. The speaker does not like the hearer's new hat)

Strategy 7 – Presuppose/Raise/Assert common ground

Example:

a). *John says he really loves your roses.*

b). *Oh dear, we've lost our little ball, haven't we, Johnny?*

Strategy 8 – Joke

Example: *Ok, if I tackle those cookies now?*

Strategy 9 – Assert presuppose speaker's knowledge of and concern for hearer's wants.

Example: *I know you love roses but the florist didn't have more, so I brought you geraniums.*

Strategy 10 - Offer, Promise

Example: *I'll drop by sometime next week.*

Strategy 11 – Be Optimistic

Example: *I've come to borrow a cup of flour*

Strategy 12 – Include both speaker and hearer in the activity

Example: *Let's have a cookie, then.*

Strategy 13 – Give (or ask for) reasons

Example: *Why not lend me your cottage for the weekend?*

Strategy 14 – Assume or assert reciprocity

Example: *I'll do X for you if do Y for me or I did X for you last week, so you do Y for me this week (or vice versa).*

Example 15 – Give gifts to hearer (goods, sympathy, understanding, cooperation).

Speaker may satisfy hearer's positive face want by satisfying some of hearer's wants.

2.3.3.2. Negative Politeness

Negative politeness used when speaker wants to show if he/she cares and respect to hearer's negative face (Brown and Levinson, 1978, p. 128). In this method, speaker trusts if he/she does not bother hearer's freedom of action by not showing off, being formal and restraining him. If speaker did or will do an FTA, he/she will minimize the threat by using apology, deference, hedges and the other strategies. It considered as follow:

Negative politeness strategies in assurances that the speaker recognizes and respect the addressee's negative-face wants and will not (or will only minimally) interfere with the addressee freedom of action. Hence, negative politeness is characterized by self-effacement, formality restraint, with attention to very restricted aspects of hearer's self image, centering in his/her want to be unimpeded FTA's are redressed with apologies for interfering or transgressing, with linguistics defense, with hedges on the illocutionary face of act, with impersonalizing mechanism (such as passive) that distance speaker and hearer from the act, and with other softening mechanism (Brown and Levinson, 1987, p. 70). Based on Brown and Levinson cited in (Goody, 1996, p.137) there are some strategies that included in negative politeness they are:

Strategy 16 - Be conventionally indirect

Example: I needed to step out of the picture for a little while. Description: In this sentence there are two tensions that a speaker faced in this strategy are the desire to give H an “out” by being indirect and the desire to go on record.

Strategy 17 – Question, hedge

Example: Is it comfortable for you to tell us your story? Is it OK? Description: Avoiding coercion of H may take the form of attempting to minimize the treat of coercion by clarifying S’s view of the power, social distance, and ranking values.

Strategy 18 – Be pessimistic

Example: how did an infant only one month old survive the tsunami?

Description: Gave redress to the H’s negative face by expressing doubt of an infant only one month’s condition. She just being amazing and there’s nothing that she can speak, not a word about that infant.

Strategy 19 – Apologize

Example: I’m sorry, but I need to be this raw.

Description: This strategy is used where Donald Trump as speaker can simply admit that he is impinging on H’s face. S can indicate his reluctance to impinge on H’s negative face and hereby partially redress that impingement by apologizing.

Strategy 20 - Impersonalize speaker and hearer: Avoid the pronouns ‘I’ and ‘you’.

Example: I tell you that it is so → It is so.

Strategy 21 - State the FTA as some general social rule, regulation or obligation.

Example:

- a). Passengers will please refrain from flushing toilets on the train

b). You will please refrain from flushing toilets on the train.

Strategy 22 – Nominalize

Example :

a). You performed well on the examinations and we were favourably impressed.

b). Your performing well on the examinations impressed us favourably.

c). Your good performance on the examinations impressed us favourably.

Here c) seems more formal, more like a business letter than b), and b) is more than a). a) seems a spoken sentence while c) is a written one. So, as we nominalize the subject, the sentence gets more ‘formal’.

Strategy 23 - Go on record as incurring a debt, or as not indebting hearer

Example:

for requests → I’d be eternally grateful if you would ...

for offers → I could easily do it for you.

Strategy 24 - Minimize the imposition

Description: One way of defusing the Face Threatening Act is to indicate that rating of imposition, the intrinsic seriousness of the imposition, is not in itself great, leaving only distance and power as possible weighty factors.

Example: I just want to ask you if I can borrow a tiny bit of paper.

Strategy 25 - Give Deference

Description: There are two sides to the coin in the realization of deference: one in which speaker humbles and abases himself and another where speaker raises hearer (pays him positive face of a particular kind, namely that which satisfies

hearer's wants to be treated as superior). In both cases, hearer has a higher social status than speaker.

2.4. Public Communication Campaigns

Public communication campaigns use the media, messaging, and an organized set of communication activities to generate specific outcomes in a large number of individuals and in a specified period of time (Rogers & Storey, 1987). Public communication campaigns are an attempt to shape behavior toward desirable social outcomes (Weiss & Tschirhart, 1994). Those behaviors might include eating right, drinking less, recycling, and breastfeeding, reading to our children, getting a mammography, voting, or volunteering. The outcomes of those behaviors, the campaigns' ultimate goals may include healthier individuals, families, and communities or specific policy results that lead to better outcomes for individuals, families, or communities.

Very rarely do public communication campaigns feature only communications through media channels. "Promotion is only part of the 'marketing mix' (Balch & Sutton, 1997, p. 64). Usually they coordinate media efforts with a diverse mix of other communication channels, some interpersonal and some community-based, in order to extend the reach and frequency of the campaign's messages and increase the probability that messages will successfully result in a change (Dungan-Seaver, 1999).

Various literature and thinking about public communication campaigns makes a distinction between two types of campaigns based on their primary goals: individual behavior change versus public will and political change (e.g., Dungan-

Seaver, 1999; Henry & Rivera, 1998). There are individual behavior change campaigns and public will campaigns. In this study, writers discuss about public will campaigns.

A public will campaign attempts to legitimize or raise the importance of a social problem in the public eye as the motivation for policy action or change (Henry & Rivera, 1998). It focuses less on the individual who is performing the behavior (i.e., the smoker, polluter, drug user), and more on the public's responsibility to do something that will create the environment needed to support that behavior change. For this reason it is sometimes also referred to as a public engagement campaign.

The basic theory of change that underlies most public will campaigns with policy change as an outcome is based on the agenda-setting process, which encompasses media, public, and policy agenda setting, in that order (Bohan-Baker, 2001), and integrates framing, agenda setting, and priming theory (described later). The idea is that the policy agenda is influenced by what the public thinks, cares about, and does. Public thinking and acting, in turn, are thought to be influenced at least in part by the media. So public will campaigns try to ignite a chain reaction of sorts in the agenda-setting process. They do this primarily on two fronts: by working to influence what's on the media's agenda and how issues get reported (e.g., using media advocacy) and by communicating to the public directly. Public will campaigns typically coordinate these efforts with more traditional organizing and policy advocacy work to bolster possibilities that the intended policy outcomes are reached. The goal of these campaigns, as

their name implies, is to build public will. Therefore the measure of a campaign's success is the extent to which it in fact accomplishes that goal.

2.5. Donald Trump Profile

Donald Trump was born in the neighborhood of Queens in New York City, New York, to parents of German and Scottish descent. He earned academic honors in basic schooling, where he also proved a gifted student athlete, before going on to study first at Fordham University and then at the Wharton School of the University of Pennsylvania. He graduated in 1968, earning a Bachelor of Science degree in Economics

In 1971 he became involved in large, profitable building projects in Manhattan. In 1980, he opened the Grand Hyatt, which made him the city's best known and most controversial developer. In 2004 Trump began starring in the hit NBC reality series *The Apprentice*, which also became an offshoot for *The Celebrity Apprentice*. In 2015 Trump announced his candidacy for president of the United States and shortly after the first Republican debate became the party's front-runner.

2.6. Presidential Campaign Announcement by Donald Trump

On June 16, 2015, Trump made his White House ambitions official when he announced his run for president on the Republican ticket for the 2016 elections, joining a crowded field of more than a dozen major candidates with his slogan "Make America Great Again". Though Trump did not fare as well in a televised debate held a month later, as of the middle of September 2015, numerous polls indicated that he still held a significant lead over his rival candidates.

In his speech on June 16, 2015 at Trump Tower, New York, he promises a lot of thing to the U.S. and he also comment to the Obama's presidential. Trump also made many controversial statement and outrageous quotes in his campaign. He announced that he would be the "greatest jobs presidential that God ever created", Trump stated that he would support a database tracking Muslims in the United States and expanded surveillance of mosques. In early December 2015, Trump called for a ban on Muslims entering the US. As a candidate for president of USA, Trump have to keep persuading many people to vote him in the election day through his controversial statements.

2.7. Theoretical Framework

This study applies speech act theories proposed by Searle (1969) and politeness strategies proposed by Brown and Levinson (1987) in order to analyze the speech act type and positive politeness that used in Donald Trump speech. According to Austin (1962), there are three kinds in utterances which are locutionary act, illocutionary act, and perlocutionary act. Further, Searle (1969) developed in illocutionary act, which consist of five types of speech act which are representative, directive, commissive, declarative and expressive. In the other side, Brown and Levinson (1987, p. 101) list 15 positive politeness strategies and 3 negative politeness strategies: (1) Notice. Attend to hearer's wants, (2) Exaggerate interest / approval, (3) Intensify interest, (4) Use in-group identity markers, (5) Seek agreement, (6) Avoid disagreement, (7) Presuppose / assert common ground, (8) Joke, (9) Assert knowledge of hearer's want, (10) Offer, promise, (11) Be optimistic, (12) Give (or ask for) reasons, (13) Assume / assert reciprocity, (14)

Include speaker and hearer in the activity, (15) Give hints to the hearer (goods, sympathy, etc), (16) Be conventionally indirect, (17) Question, hedge, (18) Be pessimistic, (19) Apologize, (20) Impersonalize speaker and hearer, (21) State the FTA as some general social rule (22) Nominalize, (23) Go on record as incurring a debt, or as not indebting hearer, (24) Minimize the imposition, (25) Give Deference. At the end, this study find out what message is trying to convey to the audience through his speech in the campaign using the theory of speech act (Searle, 1969) and politeness strategy (Brown and Levinson, 1987).