Discourse Analysis of Politeness Strategies in Literary Work: Speech Acts and Politeness Strategies

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Abstract: *The strategies of politeness are not arbitrarily chosen by speakers in interaction. Instead, the choice of a strategy is constrained by a number of contextual features (socio-cultural variables), such as the relative power of the speakers, the social distance of the speakers and what the speakers happen to be negotiating at the time of speaking. This study focuses on the linguistic strategies of politeness, and more specifically on the positive politeness, as represented in fiction. The novel chosen is that of Montgomery's Anne of Green Gables- a novel in which the main character Anne Shirley tries her best to establish common grounds with others until she achieves friendly and social harmonious relationships with nearly everybody. To show the above point, Brown and Levinson's (1987) theory of politeness is adopted to account for the linguistic strategies, in addition to some subsequent contribution provided by Spencer-Oatey (2002) to account for sociality rights and obligations. This model is chosen to explore the relation between language use and the social relationship of the speakers. A point of departure, and according to O'Driscoll (1996), Brown and Levinson's hierarchy of politeness strategies allows attention to positive to cover more ground than that subsumed under positive politeness (super-strategy 2). That is why baldly on-record (super-strategy 1) is used to pay positive face. The analysis shows that most of Anne's directives in this speech event, which are linguistic realizations of both super strategy 1 and 2, are meant to establish common grounds to achieve friendly and harmonious relationships with others.*

Keywords: *Politeness, positive politeness strategies, social power, social distance, rank of imposition.*

Introduction

In different societies, people speak different languages and have different dialects. Thus, they utilize them in radical and different manners due to the cultural differences. For instance, although in some cultures it is very bad to talk while another person is talking; it is, in some other cultures, a normal behaviour (Cliff & Wierzbicka 1997). Such differences may cause confusion for language learners.

The literature shows that some linguists, for example, Chomsky, only tackled the first obstacle without reference to the social context. Chomsky (1965) endeavored to help the English learners by claiming that if the learner knows syntax, phonology and lexis, he/she will unconsciously be a

competent speaker of the language. However, the literature shows that his concept has been criticized.

Figure 1 Language owned by human in mind

Language   Mind   Human
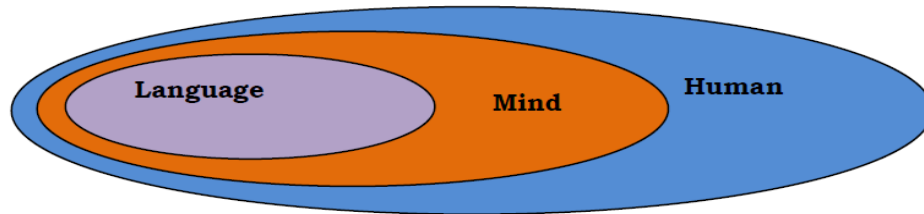
Consequently, the social-linguist moved from the isolated language form into the actual use in a specific social context. Thus, the term communicative competence was set by Hymes to include linguistic competence as well as pragmatic competence. The lack of either competence might cause the conversation to break down or cause pragmatic error/failure between speakers who come from different cultures (Jie 2010).

In this study, speech acts requests will be focused on. It will primarily focus on the politeness strategies. This comparison is grounded in Blum-Kulka et al's. (1989) taxonomy which includes direct, conventionally indirect, and non-conventionally indirect strategies. Another point that will be focused in this study is a comparison between the types of politeness strategies employed by each group to soften the imposition on the hearer and avoid pragmatic error/failure between them. This comparison is grounded Brown and Levinson's (1987) taxonomy. In sum, these comparisons are based on data collected from literary works.

Literature Review

Until few decades, the researchers only focused to the linguistic aspects of the language. This was defined by Chomsky who theorized *linguistic competence*. He mentions that only learning the given grammar will help the learners to be a competent speaker-listener (Chomsky 1965). On the other hand, Hymes (1967, 1972) has developed the notion of communicative competence, which has been mentioned in Austin (1962) and Searle (1969), and criticized Chomskian concept due to its ignorance to the social factors of the language.

Hymes (1972, P. 282) generally defines *communicative competence* as including "both linguistic and cultural aspects". He also argues that "competence is dependent upon both (tacit) knowledge and (ability for) use". Hymes (1972) also sets four questions (parameters) to the systems of rules suited under the communicative behavior.

"1. Whether (and to what degree) something is formally possible. 2. Whether (and to what degree) something is feasible). 3. Whether (and to what degree) something is appropriate. 4. Whether (and to what degree) something is done". Knowledge of each of these parameters is a part of communicative competence. This knowledge contains the noncognitive factors, not limited to, attitude and motivation, and interactional competence, such as, courage, composure and sportsmanship. Yule (2010) adds that it has three components: grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, strategic competence and communication strategy. First, grammatical competence refers to the accurate use of syntax and lexis. Second, the sociolinguistic component refers to the ability to use an appropriate utterance. It provides the learner the knowledge of when to say "Can I have some water?" and when to say "Give me some water?" based on the social context. Third, the strategic component refers to the ability to go through the difficulties of the L2. For example, if the L2 learners have difficulty in expressing something they know in their first language, they should use the strategic component of the communicative competence through using some other words expressing the meaning for not

breaking down the interaction. Halliday (1970) adds another dimension to the communicative competence which is the functions of language by noting that language has developed in the service of social functions. He is concerned with completely moving from the structural dominations that have been deposited by linguistics into a combination of structural and functional approaches in language study. In other words, Halliday (1970) is concerned with the context of a situation which enables us to understand the functions of specific utterances. He also set three basic functions which match generic needs met by the language. First, the language serves for the content which refers to the utterance's experience of the real world and the way he/she sees the world. Second, the language serves to form social relations between the person and others. Finally, the language makes connections between itself and features of a specific situation.

Interactional Competence

Young (2008, p. 100) defines Interactional Competence as "a relationship between participants' employment of linguistic and interactional resources and the contexts in which they are employed…). From his definition, it could be understood that the aspect of IC does not depend on the individual skills but depends on how all the interact ants use the resources to achieve the mutual and coherent understanding and does vary with the participants, practice and specific contexts. Hall (1993, 1995) adds to interaction that interactive practices means that the individual's utterance is not free from social coercion but it is composed of interactive practices that are socio-culturally significance to a community of interact ants. Additionally, Young (2011) points out four aspects of IC. First, IC could be observed in a discursive practice of the spoken discourse and that happens due to the concentration of the researchers only on the spoken interaction. Discursive practice is defined by Young (2011,p. 3) as "recurring episodes of social interaction in context, episodes that are of social and cultural significance to a community of speakers". As discursive practices happen frequently in a conversation, participants expect what happens in a practice and what linguistic and nonverbal resource such as gestures, gazing, posture, kinesics and proxemics used by people in managing the practice. Second, IC enables participants to understand and correspond to the expectations of what to say and the way of saying it. This ability of expectation in cross-cultural discourse leads the interact ants to interpret forms of utterances in such practice with traditional meanings and might lead to pragmatic failure. In other words, the relationship between pragmatics and IC is fundamental. Third, IC is not the individual's knowledge of possession, but it is co-constructed by the interact ants through discursive practices. Finally, the context of IC should not be restricted to the order of talk that happens at a specific time and place but it subsumes the network of physical, spatial, temporal, social, interactional, institutional, political and historical experiences in which interactants do a practice.

Pragmatic Competence

Pragmatics is a fairly new linguistic discipline in second language acquisition which became an independent field of linguistic study only about forty years ago. Thus, linguistic pragmatics has been created in language philosophy by philosophers such as Austin (1962), Searle (1969) and Grice (1968). However, the first term of pragmatics was coined by Morris (1938) in his shaping the science of semiotic (semiotics). Morris (1938, p. 6) distinguishes between the syntax which is defined as "the study of the formal relations of signs", Semantics which is defined as" the study of the relations of signs to the objects to which the signs are applicable", and Pragmatics which is defined as "the study of the relation of signs to interpreters". The term pragmatics has been widely used when the social linguist shifted the study of the language from the structure into the language use in a specific social context.

Speech Act theory & Politeness Theory

Pragmatic competence is one of the crucial components of communicative competence. It is made up of illocutionary competence, which refers to knowledge of speech acts and speech functions, and sociolinguistic competence, which refers to the ability to use language properly in a specific context as well as referring to the ability to select communicative acts and convenient strategies to act on them based on the situational features in a given context (Eslami-Rasekh 2005).

Historically, Austin (1962) has been regarded as the pragmatics' father (Mott, 2003) and as speech act theory's father (Mey 2001). Based on Austin's (1962) view, the speaker does not frequently use language to say things, but to do things. Moreover, these utterances could be considered as speech acts. For example "*I now pronounce you husband and wife*" has been said by the speakers to do something. Such a sentence is called per formatives. On the other hand, a sentence such as "New York is a large city" is identified as constatives. Accordingly, he differentiates between three fundamental components of speech acts: locutionary, illocutionary and elocutionary acts. (Yule 1996) explains that a locutionary act refers to what is said. It is the basic act of utterance and gives a meaning linguistically. Searle (1969,1975,1976), who is the a student of Austin, developed speech act theory and points out that the illocutionary force of an utterance and elocutionary effect is based on words and expressions that the speaker selects in his/her utterance. Thus, the illocutionary point of requests is the same as the commands because each tries to let the hearers to do something. However, the illocutionary forces are apparently different (Searle, 1976). More importantly, (Searle 1969, 1975) focuses on the indirect speech acts as it is a more polite form than a direct one. Yule (1996, p. 47) distinguishes between the speech acts and speech events. Speech acts is defined as " [A]actions performed via utterances and, in English, are commonly given more specific labels, such as apology, complaint, compliment, invitation, promise, or request" while speech events are defined as "A set of circumstances in which participants interact in some conventional way to arrive at some outcome" (Yule 1996, p.47, 57). In short, the nature of the speech event determines the interpretation of what is said by the hearer. For example, *this tea is really cold!* If the above mentioned example has been said on a wintry day, it could be interpreted by the hearer as a complaint. However, if it has been said on a really hot summer's day, it could be interpreted as praise. In addition, the term speech act is generally known narrowly as the illocutionary force of an utterance. For example, if the speaker says "*I will see you later*", it could be interpreted differently by the hearers as a promise or warning.

A speech acts theory will not be completely presented without depicting the speech acts types. Searle (1976, p. 10) distinguishes five types of speech acts: representatives, directives, co missives expressive, and declarations as follows:

Representatives: speakers commit themselves to something being true, for example, to boast or to deduce.

Directives: attempts by speakers to get hearers to do something, for example, to request or to beg.

Co missives: speakers commit themselves to some future course of action, for example, to promise or to threaten.

Expressive: speakers express their psychological state, for example, to thank or to apologize.

Declarations: speakers bring about correspondence between propositional content and the reality, for example, to christen or to appoint.

According to Searle's (1975) typology of speech acts, request is classified beneath the category of directives. Moreover, Yule (1996) argues that speech acts are classified into a direct speech act and an indirect speech act. The difference between them could be made on the basis of structure. In details, if there is a direct relationship between a structure and a function, there will be a direct speech act and if there is an indirect relation between a structure and function, there will be an indirect relation. Additionally, a declarative utilized to create a statement is a direct speech act; while a declarative utilized to make a request is an indirect speech act. For example, when the speaker utters declarative utterance *"it is cold outside"*, it would be considered as a direct speech act if it is used to make a statement. However, it would also be considered an indirect speech act if it is used to make (a request). Yule (1996) confirms Searle's (1969, 1975) hypothesis that, in English, indirect speech acts are, in general, greatly more polite than direct speech acts. Like speech acts theory, Politeness theory is considered one of the pillars of pragmatics research. In fact, politeness theory has been identified by many scholars since the late 1970s (Kasper, 1990). Thus, Lakoff (1973, 1977) is considered the mother of modern politeness theory (Elene 2001). Lackoff (1977, p. 86) argues that "the pillars of our linguistic as well as non-linguistic interactions are to (1) make yourself clear and (2) be polite". Thus, Lackoff (1977, p. 88) assumes three rules of politeness which are" Formality: Don't impose/remain aloof, hesitancy: allow the address his options, and Equality or camaraderie: act as though you and address were equal/ make him feels good". On the one hand, she argues that there are three factors that determine whether the utterance is polite or not. The first factor is the status difference between the speakers. The second factor is the degree of formality between them while the third factor is the social context of the situation. On the other hand, a philosopher Grice (1975) argues that all human communication is governed by universal principles such as" be brief (the maxim of quantity), be informative (the maxim of quality), be relevant (The maxim of relevance) and be clear (the maxim of manner). Leech (1983, p. 132) develops politeness principle to be an important component of his interpersonal framework.

Schauer (2009) commentates that Leech's maxims are useful in describing why the speaker employs particular strategies and modifiers to construct his/her request utterance. Thus, according to Leech's maxims, the indirect request is regarded as more polite than a direct one in English language due to its un-conditionality and gives the hearer a higher degree of optionality. The most well known model of politeness has been created by Brown and Levinson (1987) which is grounded in Goffman's (1967) notion of face. He defines the face as "the public self-image that every member wants to claim for himself" (Goffman, 1967, p. 66). Brown and Levinson's (1987) universal politeness model (a person model) contains two components, rationality and face. In addition, they suggest two types of face: negative and positive. Negative face is defined as "the want of every component adult member that his/her actions be unimpeded by others" while the positive face is defined as "the want of every member that his/ her wants be desirable to others" (Brown and Levinson, p. 62). Yule (1996) mentions that the word "negative" is not a bad word, but, it is just the opposite pole from the "Positive" word. Additionally, Brown and Levinson (1987) argue that in people's interactions, each person tends to protect his/her face as well as his/her interlocutor's. However, some speech acts have face-threatening features in which the speaker should avoid. Yule (1996) explains that avoiding a face threatening act (henceforth FTA) is accompanied by face savings acts that use some strategies of positive or negative politeness. Three important terms have been illuminated in Brown and Levinson's study (1987) is the redressive action, positive politeness and negative politeness. Redressive action refers to the action which is done by the speaker (S) to the hearer (H) for reducing any possible face damage of the face-threatening act with modifications that demonstrates that no face threat is hoped. Redressive action can happen in either in a form of positive politeness or negative politeness. Positive politeness happens when (S) performs respect to the positive face on (H). On

the contrary, negative politeness happens when (S) gives importance to the negative face of (H). He/she avoids restriction of his/her hearer's freedom of an action. Furthermore, Brown and Levinson (1987) suggest a taxonomy which contains four super-strategies to the speakers to choose when attempting to conduct FTAs. These strategies which increase or reduce the level of FTAs are: Bald on record strategy, positive politeness strategy, negative politeness strategy and off record strategy. Bald on record strategy refers to S, concisely and directly without redressive action, performs FTA with maximum efficiency on the account of satisfying H's face, even to any degree, for example, "*Wash the dishes*". Positive politeness strategy refers to that S performs FTA with redressive action which is directed to the H's positive face, for example, *Wash the dishes, honey*. Negative politeness refers to S performs FTA with redressive action which is directed towards H's negative face as in the form of conventionally indirect, for example, *would you mind washing the dishes, please?* Or *can you wash the dishes?* Off-record refers to S performs FTA that may have more than one meaning to leave himself/herself out and avoid the responsibility for doing the act as in the no conventionally indirect form, for example, *you left the dishes unclean*. From all of these strategies, B & L (1987) point out that there is a direct relation between politeness and directness/indirectness. Brown and Levinson (1987) also suggest that there are sociological variables which directly affect strategy selection. These variables, which are considered independent variables, are the social distance (D), the relative power (P) and the absolute ranking of impositions (R). These three variables are defined by B & L (1987, p. 74) as follows:

(i) The 'the social distance' (D) of S and H (a symmetric relation).

(ii) The relative 'power' (P) of S and H (an asymmetric relation).

(iii) The absolute ranking (R) of imposition in the particular culture.

They suggest that the strategies used between the speakers and hearers depend on their social distance. For example, if the two people are very close to each other, they could have a low degree of social distance and the vice versa. And that leads a person to be more indirect if the degree of social distance is high and he/she might be more direct when the degree of social distance is low. Thus, they also assume that the power between the speakers and hearers could be equal (S=H), more (S>H) or less(S<H). Finally, the ranking of imposition depends on the culture and situation's degree, importance and difficulty. For example, requesting for a big favor is considered a high rank of imposition while requesting for a small favor is considered a low rank of imposition. For example, asking for a dictionary to look up a word is thought to have a small ranking of imposition, while asking for bicycle is thought to be a high rank of imposition.

The Results

In this section, politeness strategies detected in the literary works will be introduced. As the aforementioned, the requesting strategies that the subjects have employed in their requests will be identified and described based on Blum-Kulka et al. 1989, while the politeness markers that the subjects have employed to soften the request will be based on Brown and Levinson (1987).

These results ring the bell to researchers, teachers, authors, and educational decision makers that in cross-cultural interactions, pragmatic error/failure could happen between the culturally different interact ants because they pragmatically could not understand what is meant of what is said. It greatly urges them to not only focus on the linguistic factors but they should also include the social factors in their materials, teaching strategies, syllabus and design, teaching, and learning programs based on the interactional competence, pragmatic competence, speech acts theory, and politeness hypothesis that all have derived from Hymes' communicative competence (1967, 1972).

1) Anne: "I suppose you are Mr. Matthew Cuthbert of Green Gables?.... I wouldn't be a bit afraid. And it would be lovely to sleep in a wild cherry tree all white with bloom in the moonshine, don't you think? You could imagine you were dwelling in marble halls, couldn't you? And I was quite sure you would come for me in the morning, if you didn't tonight."

2) Matthew: "I'm sorry I was late. Come along. The horse is over in the yard. Give me your bag."

3) Anne: "Oh, I can carry it... We've got to drive a long piece, haven't we? Mrs. Spencer said it was eight miles... Mrs. Spencer said it was wicked of me to talk like that, but I didn't mean to be wicked. It's so easy to be wicked without knowing it, isn't it? They were good....

As intimated above, in their first conversation, Anne and Matthew are no more than total strangers. As such Anne tries her best to establish a sort of common grounds with Matthew. Anne's directive 2 in (1) "... *don't you think?",* is suggestive in that it is uttered to get Matthew to agree with the idea of Anne's sleep in a wild cherry tree until Matthew's arrival the following day, i.e. positive politeness strategy 5 'seek agreement'. According to Brown and Levinson (1987, p. 112), a characteristic feature of claiming common grounds with H is to seek ways in which it is possible to agree with him" and ultimately to satisfy an interest in maintaining a relationship with him. A way from the above point, Anne's discourse style in this speech event is almost characterized by the heavy use of 'tag questions' which can be encoded as linguistic realizations of super strategy 2 (positive politeness). They are linguistically realized by statements followed by tag questions to elicit "some response, however minimal, from the addressee" (Holmes, 1982, p.44) to let him confirm or reject the speaker's propositional content as in directive (3) *"You could imagine you were dwelling in marble halls, couldn't you?",* (4) *"We've got to drive a long piece, haven't we?",* and (5) *"It's so easy to be wicked without knowing it, isn't it?".* In all these examples, Anne is trying to draw her interlocutor as a participant into the conversation but unfortunately she does so without giving him a chance to reply with 'yes' or 'no'. It is until directive 7 in (4) " *What did that tree, leaning out from the bank, all white and lacy, made of* with the discourse goal 'To get information' where Anne gives Matthew the chance to reply:

4) Anne: "Isn't that beautiful? What did that tree, leaning out from the bank, all white and lacy, make of?"

5) Matthew: "well now, I dunno,"

6) Anne: "Why, a bride, of course-a bride all in white with a lovely misty veil.... And I've never had a pretty dress in my life that I can remember-but of course it's all the more to look afterward to, isn't it?.... It's delightful when your imaginations come true, isn't it?.... but how are you going to find out about things if you don't ask questions? And what does make the roads red?

7) Matthew: "Well now, I dunno,"

8) Anne: "Well, that is one of the things to find out sometimes. Isn't it splendid to think of all the things Isn't it splendid to think of all the things there are to find out about? It just makes me feel glad to be alive-it's such an interesting world. It wouldn't be half so interesting if we knew all about everything, would it? There'd be no scope for imagination then, would there? But am I talking too much? People are always telling me I do. Would you rather I didn't talk? If you say so I'll stop. I can stop when I make up my mind to it, although it's difficult."

9) Matthew: "Oh, you can talk as much as you like. I don't mind."

10) Anne: "Oh, I'm so glad... And people laugh at me because I use big words. But if you have big ideas you have to use big words to express them, haven't you?

11) Matthew: "Well now, that seems reasonable, "

12) Anne: "Mrs. Spencer said that my tongue must be hung in the middle.... You do get so attached to things like that, don't you? Is there a brook anywhere near Green Gables? I forgot to ask Mrs. Spencer that"

13) Matthew: "Well now, yes, there's one right below the house."

Analysis and discussion

In both directives 8 and 9 in (6), Anne shifts back to her habit of issuing negative tag questions which are supposed to receive a positive response (positive face strategy 5 of 'seek agreement') from her interlocutor. But again Matthew is not given a chance to respond.

The discourse marker 'And' in (6) is used here to aid the discourse coherence and according to Shiffrin (1987, pp.143- 44), it initiates a turn in which "the speaker tries to take control of the conversation's subject". Rossen-Knill (1995) believes that discourse markers serve both to enhance text coherence and to attend to H's positive-face wants and this is significant in that "the act of making a text more coherent is in itself a means to draw the hearer into a relationship with the speaker, thus creating through successful communication a social group in which both speaker and hearer are members" (p. 142).

Directive 12 in (8) *"Isn't it splendid to think of all the things there are to find out about? It just makes me feel glad to be alive-",* which is a linguistic realization of super-strategy 2, is issued with the discourse goal 'To get Matthew to agree to her proposition' and again she is utilizing positive politeness strategy 5 'seek agreement' followed by positive strategy 13 'give reasons. This is part of 'claiming common grounds' and 'conveying that S & H are cooperators'. One more time, Matthew is not given a chance to reply until directive 16 in turn (8) when Anne issues *"Would you rather I didn't talk? If you say so I'll stop. I can stop when I make up my mind to it, although it's difficult."* with the discourse goal 'To get information'. A number of outputs are used to minimize the imposition including positive politeness strategy 1 'attend to H's wants, interests and concerns' as reflected in *'if you say so, I'll stop',* positive politeness strategy 13 'give reasons' as in *'I can stop when I make up my mind'* and negative politeness strategy 2 'hedges' represented by the use of 'rather' and negative politeness strategy 3 'be pessimistic' due to the use of the subjunctive 'would'. In directive 20 (14), Anne seems to seek agreement (positive politeness strategy 5) for both propositions *"Dreams don't often come true, do they? Wouldn't it be nice if they did?"* as part of her strategy of 'claiming common point of view, opinions, etc'.

In addition to super-strategy 2, Anne shows preference for super-strategy 1 (bald on-record).This strategy is characterized by issuing wh-questions and yes/no questions to get information. In directive 11 in (16), for instance, Anne asks her first real question *"And what does make the roads red?"* to which Matthew answers with " *Well now, I dunno".* Anne's directive starts with the connector 'And' which is generally used to initiate turns and to give the speaker the chance to take control over conversation. This is typical of Anne who enjoys being the productive side in conversation. In turn (12), Anne issues another directive with the discourse goal 'To get information from Matthew' being followed by positive politeness strategy 13 'give reasons' which conveys that S and H are cooperators. Therefore, Anne's speech style seems to stem from her desire to acknowledge and uphold Matthew's social identity face as a friend (rather than a master) since she is after maintaining a friendly social relationship with him.

Table.1

No.	Directive(s)	Utterance no.	Discourse goal	Politeness-super strategy	Positive politeness strategy	Negative politeness strategy	Off-record Strategy
1	I suppose you are Mr. Matthew Cuthbert of Green Gables?	1	To get Matthew to assert her proposition	3		2:hedge 5:give deference	
2	I wouldn't be a bit afraid, and it would be lovely to sleep in a wild cherry tree all white with bloom in the moonshine, don't you think?	1	To get Matthew to agree	2	5:seek agreement	2:hedge	
3	You could imagine you were dwelling in marble halls, couldn't you?	1	To get Matthew to agree	2		3:be pessimistic	
4	We've got to drive a long piece, haven't we? Mrs. Spencer said it was eight miles.	3	To get Matthew to agree	2	13:give reasons		
5	Mrs. Spencer said it was wicked of me to talk like that, but I didn't mean to be wicked. It's so easy to be wicked without knowing it, isn't it?	3	To get Matthew to agree	2	5:seek agreement 13:give reasons		
6	Isn't that beautiful?	4	To get Matthew to agree	2			
7	What did that tree, leaning out from the bank, all white and lacy, make you think of?	4	To get Matthew to talk	2			
8	And I've never had a pretty dress in my life that I can remember-but of course it's all the more to look afterward to, isn't it?	6	To get Matthew to agree	2	5:seek agreement		

9	It's delightful when your imagination come true, isn't it?	6	To get Matthew to agree	2	5:seek agreement		
10	.but how are you going to find out about things if you don't ask questions?	6	To get Matthew to excuse her habit of asking	4			1:give hints
11	And what does make the roads red?	6	To get information	1			
12	Isn't it splendid to think of all the things there are to find out about? It just makes me feel glad to be alive-it's such an interesting world.	8	To get Matthew to agree	2	5:seek agreement 13:give reasons		
13	It wouldn't be half so interesting if we knew all about everything, would it?	8	To get Matthew to agree	2	5:seek agreement		

The Conclusions and future considerations

The analysis attempted in this paper has aimed at showing how the positive politeness strategies, especially the ones examined here, are capable of reflecting the people's intention to establish common grounds and ultimately achieving and maintaining friendly and harmonious relationships with others. More specifically, this study shows how the character 'Anne Shirley', the socially marginalized female orphan with low P, except for that of being 'eloquent and influential', and low D is successful in manipulating low-numbered strategies, namely super-strategy 1 (baldly, on record) and super-strategy 2 (on record with redress to positive face) to pay positive face wants, i.e., positive politeness in her interaction with the people of Avonlea to achieve social harmonious relationships with them.

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