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Politeness strategies as persuasive tools used in Lombok commercial magazines

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Abstract

This research aimed to illuminate the pragmatic function of politeness in the world of advertising. Politeness theory posits that politeness is a key factor for successful communication and persuasion. In this research, a corpus of 91 advertisements, both in English and Indonesian, was collected from Lombok Guide, Lombok Magazine and Majalah Bandara magazine. Each advertisement was then analyzed in terms of category and sub-category of politeness strategy in the two languages. The research found that the use of politeness strategies indicated that English advertisements exploited more “off record,” “bald on-record,” and “positive face strategies,” while Indonesian advertisements tended to use a negative politeness strategy.

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Introduction

In the world of business, the language in an advertisement plays an important role. It is considered a “directive speech act,” (Searle, 1970) and its nature is impositive (Leech, 1983), which influences and motivates people to buy products. Advertisers use different kinds of language strategies to reach their goal, including a politeness strategy, which is usually employed to strengthen rapport and to maintain social equilibrium (Fraser & Nolen, 1981).

People in general tend to pay more attention when they face polite language that shows deference and consideration to others. Therefore, it is critically important for advertisers to catch the readers’ attention and maintain social and emotional relationships with their customers. In order to reach the goal, they are expected to use politeness strategies in their advertisements with careful consideration of many different aspects. Moreover, one thing that must also be considered is that every community has a different culture. Therefore, as stated by Hughes (1984), one way to understand cultural viewpoints is by analyzing the advertisements presented in various kinds of media including advertisements found in business or commercial magazines. As long as those working in

the world of advertising want to change the purchasing or consumption behavior of the consumers by influencing them to do what they want them to do, they must be certain that the same advertisement presented in each culture and language employs a different persuasive strategy which is in line with the politeness principle and strategy upheld in that culture.

Lakoff (1975) has her own view that politeness has been developed to lessen the friction in social communication and interaction so that politeness can be seen as a constraint in human communication which is aimed at considering others’ feeling, establishing a degree of mutual comfort, and promoting rapport. Further, Ide (1989) sees it as “language usage associated with smooth communication”. All these understandings reveal the true fact that politeness is an important element in creating effective relationships with other people, and therefore any failure in using these strategies can debar effective communication, leading to individual disappointment and dissatisfaction.

Knowing that different cultures employ different politeness strategies, it seems that exploring the nature of these differences can be of great interest and help to researchers and practitioners. This study aimed at investigating different linguistic politeness strategies which are often used in advertisements to persuade people to buy different products in the form of goods and services.

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Literature Review

Politeness

Politeness as a communication phenomenon has attracted much research attention (Brown & Levinson, 1987; Geis, 1982; Lakoff, 1973; Scollon & Scollon, 2001) in analyzing many theoretical and practical issues which are relevant to politeness itself. Using Grice's Cooperative Principles and Speech Act Theory as its background (Watts & Meshtrie, 2003), politeness theory has been a milestone by which acceptable and correct behavior can be analyzed. Because of its importance in identifying the elements related to politeness behavior and discourse, some studies have been conducted (Hardin, 2001; Matsumoto, 1989; Pishghadam, 2011; Schmidt, Shimura, Wang, & Jeong, 1995) in the area related to politeness theory in Pragmatic Linguistics which introduces researchers to the politeness strategies in various cultures.

In everyday interaction, people exchange various politeness strategies among themselves to maintain effective communication. Johnstone (2008), for example, observed that people in every culture can use politeness markers to interpret language appropriate to a given situation. The important meaning behind every interaction can be recognized through the types and numbers of politeness strategies being used by speakers and listeners to establish appropriate interpersonal relationships (Woods, 2006).

In the field of Pragmatic Linguistics, advocates like Lakoff (1973) and Leech (1983) have provided differing definitions of politeness theory in line with their specific rules. Leech's ideas, for example, mainly focused on the goal-oriented speech situation in which a speaker uses language in an effort to provide a particular effect on the hearer. Criticizing Leech's (1983) politeness model as too abstract and theoretical, Brown and Levinson (1987) proposed a politeness model which was based on social interaction and viewed the strategic choices of people in social interactions as reflecting cross-cultural diversity present in communication. In their theory, which is now popular as the most comprehensive and influential theory of politeness, Brown and Levinson (1987) based their view on "face" in a similar way to Goffman's (1955) argument. For them, there are two goals that any speaker wants to convey to his/her addressee: first, that the listener's desires are not be impeded or limited in his/her actions (negative face). Second, that his/her desires are approved (positive face)". Both faces are considered a part of the view on "face" by Johnstone (2008).

In accord with the idea that everyone, as much as possible, tries to save face during social interaction, it is expected that all people involved in all social interactions try to reduce face-threatening acts (FTAs). However, Brown and Levinson's (1987) model indicated that whenever a person is forced to execute an FTA as a logical response to a positive face threat or negative face threat of the interlocutor, the person employs some strategies that can reduce or "redress" the coming threat. Woods (2006) emphasized that there are at least five super-strategies proposed by Brown and Levinson (1987) which are employed by an addresser to reduce FTAs. Those five super-strategies range from a strategy that tends to increase the risk of losing (bald on-record strategy) an FTA without any

redressing effort, to a strategy that reduces the level of risk (Avoidance strategy).

One of the arguments that makes Brown and Levinson's (1987) model a credible source of politeness strategy analysis is its universality in nature (Magdalena, 2015) and the real fact is that almost all our everyday interactions fit in these categories. Another important point of this model is its emphasis on the culture of the addressee based on the three variables that trigger a face saving act in every interaction. Those three variables are: the different social gaps perceived between participants (D), the different power between an addresser and an addressee (P), and the level or rank of speech-act culture (R).

Analyzing culture using this model is supported by considering the quantity of negative and positive face strategies and also by considering those strategies among each other in every culture to get to know whether solidarity or imposition is more dominant. By the same reason, Scollon and Scollon (1981) emphasized that in a different culture, negative politeness determines the seriousness of imposition, whereas positive politeness emphasizes the general nature of the relationship of the participants.

Advertisement Language

From the various research studies on politeness strategies, some researchers have analyzed advertisement at the intercultural scale. Written persuasive discourse on advertisements has influenced many researchers (such as Geis, 1982; Hardin, 2001; Lakoff, 1973; Lin, 2005; Schmidt et al., 1995) who conducted studies on certain societies and cultures in connection with the roles of advertisements. Written advertisements as a verbal interaction are considered a politeness discourse. Lakoff (1973), as the pioneer on the study of politeness, focused more specifically on the advertisement discourse, (see also Lin, 2005), defining politeness discourse as "non-reciprocal effort or intention of one side to influence or change attitude, feeling, intention, or point of view of other people through communication".

According to Reardon (1991), communicative media are divided into three main categories: interpersonal persuasion, organizational persuasion, and mass media persuasion such as advertisements (the most common form). Lakoff (1973) conducted studies on the apparatus of politeness strategy and provided some examples of advertisements that deviated from Grice's Cooperative Principle and Maxim of Manner.

Further, Geis (1982) conducted wider studies on TV advertisements and concluded that aside from using certain language techniques, advertisers tended to use indirect ways of making claims about their products. Pearson (1988) also conducted research to obtain data based on the opinions of people using politeness strategy in their business meetings at a church to seek support. He found out that in such meetings, the religious leaders, in their main duties, employed more positive and negative politeness strategies compared to other strategies that would make him/her seem more talented, stronger, or more persuasive. Matsumoto (1989) emphasized the importance in Japanese culture of interpreting the politeness phenomena. He also underpinned the importance of

social context in the politeness theory applied in Non-Western society.

Schmidt et al. (1995) analyzed TV advertising with the purpose were of finding out the differences in use in speech acts in various different cultures. In their studies, they compared advertisements from the United States, Japan, China, and South Korea. They found that advertisements on consumer products in the United States were more persuasive compared to those of the same kind in Asian countries in terms of message frequency to buy products and the imperative level used in their advertisements. In other research, Obeng (1997) analyzed politeness strategies in spoken discourse which were used by professionals in the legal field and found out that they used politeness strategies. For example, they used different terms of address and other complimentary remarks to soften the coming FSA locution; it therefore became polite and negative.

Further, in connection with the study on negative strategies which are often used in TV advertisements, Hardin (2001) analyzed a corpus consisting of 214 advertisements from three countries—Chile, Spain, and the United States. Politeness strategy was one of the pragmatic instruments in the study compared and contrasted according to the model proposed by Brown and Levinson (1987). The results showed interesting differences in the use of positive and negative politeness in the culture of each country.

Benkendorf, Prince, Rose, De Fina, and Hamilton (2001) studied politeness strategies on some indirect sentences used by medical consultants. They found that in conveying their ideas to their patients, medical consultants decreased the level of direct imposition to their patients by using “impersonal and indirect language.” However, in other research, Daly, Holmes, Newton, and Stubbe (2003) focused their attention on the way one ‘expletive’ form was used in two face saving acts (that is, ‘direct complaint’ and ‘refusal’ by workers in one industry team). By analyzing the use of expletives by the workers based on politeness strategies, they found that the use of particular expletive forms indicated the socio-pragmatic functions of the words and the ownership of the community where the words were used.

In another study, Lin (2005) observed the use of politeness strategy in a business dialogue in the Chinese language by introducing the newest data collection method called the Natural Data Elicitation Technique. In another study, Lin

(2005) concluded that the sellers used different politeness strategies and at the highest level of the strategies, emphasis was on the collectivist nature of Chinese culture. By analyzing the impact of impoliteness of TV quiz performers, Culpeper (2005) demonstrated how impoliteness can increase the possibility of face-damage. He concluded that valuable information on politeness is collected based on how creative the nature of a discourse is and by prosodic analysis. Another study in the context of health was conducted by Brown and Crawford (2009) where they explained the importance of appropriate politeness markers during telephone conversations between a health consultant and his patient. They reported that the health consultant tried to reduce the level of imposition and increase co-operation by applying acceptable or appropriate politeness markers.

Marketing as a Discourse

As in communication in general, communication in the world of advertising is determined by various factors. Those determinant factors can be seen by presenting questions such as: who says what to whom with what purpose, in what media, in what way and in what circumstances? These questions are often used to obtain data from questionnaires as demonstrated in the Figure 1.

The World of Advertising

It has been 250 years since advertising language found itself a specific textual model of its own (Gieszinger, 2001). This model can be distinguished from other models because it has specific features both in lexical, morphological, syntactic, stylistic, and pragmatic levels. The propelling power behind the development of those unique textual models lies in the specific function of advertising text, which is mainly determined by the relationship between a sender and his recipients and the goal of the sender (Sternkof, 2004). Further, Kroeber-Riel (1993) enumerates the functions of advertisements in some groups as follows:

1. Provide information source about products and services,
2. Motivate consumers to buy products,
3. Strengthen purchasing motivation,
4. Provide a socialization function,
5. Provide an entertaining function.



Figure 1 The determining variables in a marketing discourse

If we shed light from a pragmatic point of view, an advertising speech act can be considered as a recommendation act or a presentation act, (Nusser, 1975) but naturally, most of the advertisements could be categorized as persuasive or impositive language acts.

Most consumers do not agree with the statement that the purpose of an advertisement is to improve information about goods and services. In 1992, 20% of the consumers believed that advertisements provided true information about goods and services. As a comparison, 20 years before, nearly double that number of people believed an advertisement conveyed true and useful information (Felser, 1997).

The problem of truth in the world of advertisement constitutes a hot debate topic in the philosophy of advertisement. Daniel Boorstin, as quoted in Hughes (1984) for example, argued that advertising has significantly changed the whole concepts of truth. The duty of experts is to make persuasive statements which are neither true nor false.

However, the informative function of an advertisement cannot be underestimated. Providing markets with information about products and services is one of the oldest and most important functions of an advertisement. Of course, the content of one advertisement differs from others—it all depends on the advertised product circulation. According to Sternkof (2004), there are four general functions of advertisements in relation to the life cycle of a product:

Introductory advertising: When there is a new product to be launched to the markets, information about it needs to be provided to consumers so that they are familiar with the product in an effort to persuade them to use the product.

Penetration advertising: After the new product is launched, it should be easily distinguished from other competitors' brands. At this stage, the two most common strategies are that some brands struggle hard to establish their own brand image by providing factual information, whereas others rely on emotional support.

Cutthroat advertising: This stage is achieved when the markets have been saturated. The purpose of this kind of advertisement is to win over the competitors' markets. At this stage, information is no longer relevant since the consumers already have good knowledge of the products.

Expansion advertising: This strategy aims to get new customers for a product that is already popular in the market. The new market targets will not be taken from competitors, but the main goal is to convince customers of the benefit of the product. The information content is of crucial importance at this stage.

Functions of an Advertisement

Leech (1966) argued that there are four functions of the so-called "successful advertisement" each of which is interconnected with the language used to come to the main objective:

Attention value

An advertisement needs to gain attention and arouse curiosity. On the language level, this goal can be achieved if it is done through breaking language conventions, for example by using wrong spelling, neologisms, the use of puns, grammatical

solecisms, rhymes, semantic deviations, or the use of language in the wrong or inappropriate context.

Readability

After an advertisement successfully steals the readers' attention, simple information needs to be provided that can be cached in a second. Therefore, the presentation style needs to use general vocabulary (Caples, 1994). That kind of language gives an informal and friendly impression and is often conveyed by using the spoken language style.

Memorability

A message in the advertisement is a very important point so that it will be easily memorable and become commonplace. Therefore, repetition is considered the most common technique for that purpose in line with the nature of a human's short memory (Sowinski, 1991).

Selling power

Ultimately, because the final goal of any advertisement is to sell a product, persuading people to buy can only be achieved by clear instructions about what should be done next. Imperative language is the most appropriate for that purpose.

Methodology

Corpus of Research

The corpus of this study was a collection of 91 written Indonesian and English advertisements collected from some of the most-read and popular magazines available at some tourism spots in Lombok—Lombok Guide, Lombok Magazine, and Majalah Bandara. All kinds of advertisements were sampled providing some language was provided to accompany the visual base. All the advertisements were considered representative of persuasive ads. The sources and total number of the advertisements are presented in the Table 1.

Procedure

The first step in analyzing the data in this study was to identify the politeness strategies used in the corpus as proposed by Brown and Levinson (1987). Based on the model, there were five super-strategies that could be exploited by any individual during the FTA: 1) bald on-record, 2) positive politeness, 3) negative politeness, 4) off-record, and 5) avoidance.

Every advertisement was grouped based on the above five categories. The groups were then tabulated in terms of frequency. To identify any significant differences among the data in English and Indonesian, a chi-square test was applied. The results reported in this study cannot be generalized to advertisements in commercial magazines in Indonesia because of the limited instruments used and the limited sampling time, place, and selection.

Results

As shown in Table 1, there is a significant difference between the total number of advertisements written in Indonesian and in English ($\chi^2 = 24.28$). Neither the Indonesian

nor the English advertisements employed an avoidance strategy. Of the strategies used in Indonesian ($n = 22$), it was clear that a positive strategy outnumbered the other strategies, whereas the English advertisements were dominated by three strategies: off record ($n = 27$), bald on-record ($n = 22$), and positive strategy ($n = 19$). One interesting point was that both the Indonesian and English advertisements had the same frequency in using a negative face strategy (Table 2).

As is clearly presented in Table 3, there was a significant difference ($\chi^2 = 22.73$) in the use of politeness strategies in Indonesian. Indonesian advertisements relied heavily on the use of positive politeness, outnumbering the other strategies far above the expected rate of $n = 5.5$, compared to the other three strategies—bald on-record ($n = 4$), negative ($n = 1$), and off-record ($n = 2$)—that were under the expected rate. From the existing span of the data, it can be said that positive face strategy > bald on-record > off record > negative face strategy.

The results of the chi square test on the politeness strategies used in the English advertisements showed significant differences ($\chi^2 = 22.31$) from the tabulated test value ($\chi^2 = 11.341$), as shown in the Table 3 below. It was clear that the frequency of each strategy—off record ($n = 27$), bald on-record ($n = 22$), and positive face ($n = 19$)—were intensively exploited more than expected ($n = 17.25$). On the

other hand, negative face strategy ($n = 1$) was used much less than expected ($n = 17.25$). From the data span, it was quite clear that advertisements in Indonesian differed significantly from those in English where the three main strategies that were highly employed were off record, bald-on record, and positive face. In Indonesian advertisements, the only strategy which was intensively employed was the positive face strategy.

As presented in Table 5, it is clear that there was significant difference between the bald on-record strategy used in the Indonesian and English advertisements. In the former, the bald on-record strategy was used four times ($n = 4$), which was less than the expected $n = 13$ rate, while in the latter ($n = 22$), this strategy was used more than expected. The chi square test showed a difference of $\chi^2 = 12.46$, which was higher than tabulated value ($\chi^2 = 6.635$) and therefore, the difference was considered significant.

The positive face strategy was used in advertisements in both languages and there was no significant difference ($\chi^2 = 0.46$) between the advertisements in Indonesian ($n = 15$) and in English ($n = 19$), which were both close to the expected rate of $n = 17$. There was a similar result for the use of the negative face strategy, with the English version having $n = 1$ and the Indonesian examples also having $n = 1$. Therefore, it was concluded that the negative strategy tended to be avoided in both languages.

A very interesting phenomenon was observed in the use of the off-record strategy because in both languages, there was a significant difference. In the English version, the use of this strategy occurred more frequently ($n = 27$) than the expected number ($n = 14.5$), whereas in Indonesian the frequency was much less ($n = 2$). This difference is discussed in the next section.

Table 1 Source of advertisements

Magazine	Indonesian	English	Total
Lombok Guide	1	52	53
Lombok Magazine	15	10	25
Majalah Bandara	5	7	12

Table 2 Frequency of politeness strategies in English and Indonesian advertisements

Language	Bald on-record	Positive	Negative	Off-record	Avoidance	Total
Indonesian	4	15	1	2	0	22
English	22	19	1	27	0	69

Table 3 Chi square test results on politeness strategies used in Indonesian advertisements

Strategy	Observed n	Expected n	df	Chi square test	Chi square table (0.01)
Bald on-record	4	5.5	3	22.73	11.341
Positive	15				
Negative	1				
Off record	2				

Table 4 Chi square test results on politeness strategies used in English advertisements

Strategy	Observed n	Expected n	df	Chi square test	Chi square table (0.01)
Bald on-record	22	17.25	3	22.31	11.341
Positive	19				
Negative	1				
Off record	27				

Table 5 Contrasts between the two languages in the advertisements

Strategy	Language	Observed n	Expected n	df	χ^2 test	χ^2 table
Bald on-record	Indonesian	4	13	1	12.46	6.635
	English	22				
Positive	Indonesian	15	17	1	0.46	6.635
	English	19				
Negative	Indonesian	1	1	1	0	6.635
	English	1				
Off record	Indonesian	2	14.5	1	21.55	6.635
	English	27				

Discussion

It is almost certain that the advertisements in Indonesian were primarily intended to provide information about products to and influence the speakers of the language, no matter what their nationality. This is probably also true for advertisements written in English. Remembering the very basic principle that the basis of any advertisement is to influence or persuade prospective buyers to follow the intention of the advertisers, it is very clear that the language in the advertisement has the ability to influence readers. In other words, it is very impositive in nature. Therefore, it could be concluded that an advertiser designing an advertisement will make every effort to understand the prospective buyers in terms of the most appropriate strategy of both politeness and language.

This study is important in that it tries to understand the tendency of the advertisers to use certain politeness strategies rather than others. This knowledge and understanding will hopefully reveal the most favorable strategy and language used by some promotional magazines in Lombok. It is also the rule that the advertisers are fully aware of their audience, otherwise they will fail to communicate harmoniously and effectively with them since, as stated by Yu and Ren (2013), politeness is one of the powerful social constraints in any social interaction to protect the feelings of others.

The main objective of this study was to reveal the politeness strategies applied by Indonesian and English advertisers. With specific regard to the Indonesian advertisements, if a thorough analysis shows that the most favorable strategy used was positive face with $n = 15$ from the total of 22. The characteristics of this strategy are to show concern, interest, optimism, promise, guarantee, offer, to give reason, to show solidarity, to compliment, to joke, to show sympathy, or to show approval as the following examples show.

Liburan ke Lombok makin indah dengan diskon berlimpah (Vacation in Lombok will be more beautiful with ample discounts)

1 Dekade bersamamu dari Lombok untuk Indonesia (One decade with you from Lombok for Indonesia)

Hemat untuk pembelian melalui channel manapun (Economical payment through any channel.)

Ayo ke museum, Cinta Budayamu-Kenali Jati dirimu. (Let's go to the museum, love your culture-understand your identity.)

In accord with its nature, the positive politeness strategy was dominantly used in Indonesian advertisements showing the collectivist nature of the Indonesian culture as part of eastern culture (Nisbett, 2004). An example is one of most popular Indonesian slogans "kita semua bersaudara" (we are all siblings) that shows in-group solidarity or tends to show one's affiliation with interlocutors (Khalik, 2013). This strong feeling of brotherhood is also commonly expressed among Sasaks¹ using both the local language or national language such as addressing one's interlocutor by saying "bro" (brother) "ton" or "semeton" (sibling). This kind of strategy is commonly used by street vendors, market vendors, or sellers in general. This is also in line with the two main functions of the

advertisements—to communicate effectively with an audience, and to persuade consumers to buy the advertised products. Brown and Levinson (1987) considered that the positive face strategy is an effort to close the social distance between the advertiser and the audience to create more harmonious inter-personal relationships.

An understanding of the audiences' interests and characteristics is highly important in the world of advertising so that the advertising goal can be achieved. On the other hand, the English versions of the advertisements relied strongly on three main strategies—off record ($n = 27$), bald on-record ($n = 22$), and positive face ($n = 19$) as can be seen in the following examples.

Off Record

- The following advertisements fall within the off-record strategy since they only give hints, provide contradiction, irony, metaphor, understate, or overstate, and they also provide ambiguity, vagueness, overgeneralization, and ellipsis.

- "The only fast boat direct to Bali Gili Terawangan. Direct transfers between Bali, the Gili Islands and Lombok, hassle-free bookings and comfortable transfers everyday on board getaway!!"

- "Hot taste, cool venue"

- "Western-Asian fusion with a Mediterranean twist—the new dining experience in Lombok"

- Intimate escape destinations reflecting the diverse spirit of Indonesia"

- "Specializing in delicious and authentic meals...Real Italian food from our real Italian chef!"

Bald On-Record

The bald-on-record strategy can be easily recognized from the intensive use of disagreement, advice, request, warning, and other imperative forms as can be seen in the following excerpts.

- "Get there fast, then take it slow..."

- "Now open! Happy Hours 6-9pm Daily"

- "Dine in or take-away! Local and imported meats, chicken and seafood Dairy-cheeses, yoghurts, cream and fresh milk."

- "Great prices and trained therapists... Come in and try our full range of services for beauty, health and relaxation!"

- "Discover the wonder of the secret Gilis with Cocotinos"

- "Cities can wait. This can't."

Positive Face

This was the most dominant strategy used in Indonesian advertisements, and similarly, in English, the characteristics of this strategy are to show concerns, interest, optimism, promise, guarantee, offer, to give reason, to show solidarity, to compliment, to joke, to show sympathy, or to show approval as can be seen in the following data.

¹ Sasak refers to both indigenous people and language of the dominant local tribe in Lombok-Indonesia.

- “Italian & Indonesian Beachfront Restaurant, delicious fresh seafood, authentic Italian dishes, oriental food, barbecue on the beach, Wood oven pizza, homemade pasta and Italian bread.”

- “Serving fresh seafood imported meats, gourmet pizzas, exotic juices, icy beers & colourful cocktails.”

- “Luxury and tranquility, privately positioned on terraced slopes of beautiful flowers, overlooking Senggigi bay and the Lombok Strait to Bali.”

- “Complete Spa services at Local Prices!”

- “We can make your dreams come true!”

- “The safe way to buy land and build in Kuta”

From these examples, it can be interpreted that English advertisements are more flexible in choosing politeness strategies. The dominant use of the Off-record strategy in English advertisements can be understood because this strategy provides the most polite way to perform an FTA by presenting an idea indirectly to the audience.

The other politeness strategies not intensively used in Indonesian advertisements can be understood as strategies of avoiding business communication failure. The bald on-record strategy, for example, in the context of Indonesian culture, not to mention Sasak, is considered highly risky, aggressive, and offensive in certain circumstances.

Negative Face Strategy

Almost the same thing occurs with the negative face strategy, which for the most part, with Indonesian people creates a very formal communication situation. There were two examples of this strategy—one in English and one in Indonesian.

- “Looking for Nice presents or home decoration?”

- “Nasi??? Cobain Mie Ayam Katsu Teriyaki Sauce. Rasanya...yummy? (Rice??? Try Chicken Noodle Katsu Teriyaki Sauce. Taste...tummy?)”

The last politeness strategy, rarely used in Indonesian advertisements, was the off-record strategy ($n = 2$), which can be interpreted as an effort to avoid misinterpretation in the content of the advertisement, since the nature of everyday communication in Indonesian is quite direct and straight to the point. It is very different from the characteristics of the off-record strategy itself which is a more indirect way of providing information through only providing hints, association, presupposition, contradiction, irony, metaphor, rhetorical question, through understating, overstating, the use of tautologies, presenting ambiguity, vagueness, overgeneralization, incomplete statement, and ellipses which may potentially give misunderstanding on the part of readers.

Conclusion

Having analyzed the corpus of 91 advertisements sampled from some of the most widely circulated commercial magazines in Lombok tourism spots, we found that the English advertisements ($n = 69$) outnumbered significantly the total of Indonesian advertisements ($n = 22$) ($\chi^2 = 22.73$). The logic behind this phenomenon is that the advertisers are aware that nowadays Lombok enjoys its status as the primary

tourist destination spot after Bali. Consequently, they are aware that foreigners (who it is believed are able to understand English) are the buyers primarily targeted for any product advertised. On the other hand, they also see the local or domestic visitors as less important targeted buyers based on their assumed reduced purchasing power. However, the most interesting finding of the study was the different tendency in both languages in advertisements to employ politeness strategies. The Indonesian advertisements relied heavily on the use of positive politeness strategies, whereas the English language advertisements were considered to be more flexible in employing three dominant strategies—off record ($n = 27$, 39%), bald on-record ($n = 22$, 32%), and positive face ($n = 19$, 27.5%).

Conflict of Interest

There is no conflict of interest.

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