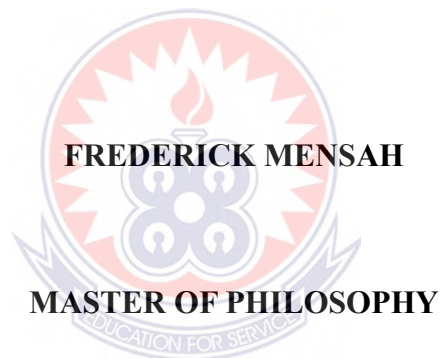


UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA

**POLITENESS STRATEGIES IN LEGAL DISCOURSE: AN ANALYSIS OF
CROSS-EXAMINATIONS AT THE WINNEBA DISTRICT COURT**



2024

UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA

**POLITENESS STRATEGIES IN LEGAL DISCOURSE: AN ANALYSIS OF
CROSS-EXAMINATIONS AT THE WINNEBA DISTRICT COURT**

FREDERICK MENSAH



**A Thesis in the Department of Communication Instruction,
School of Media and Communication Studies, submitted to the
School of Graduate Studies in partial fulfilment**

**of the requirements for the award of the degree of
Master of Philosophy
(Communication Instruction)
in the University of Education, Winneba**

FEBRUARY, 2024

DECLARATION

Student's Declaration

I, **FREDERICK MENSAH**, declare that this Thesis, with the exception of quotations and references contained in published works, which have all been identified and duly acknowledged, is entirely my own original work, and it has not been submitted, either in part or whole, for another degree elsewhere.

SIGNATURE:

DATE:

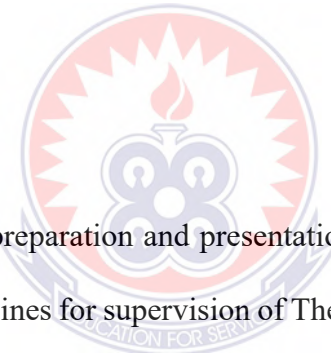
Supervisor's Declaration

I hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of this work was supervised in accordance with the guidelines for supervision of Thesis as laid down by the University of Education, Winneba.

NAME OF SUPERVISOR: PROF. ALBERT AGBESI WORNYO

SIGNATURE:

DATE:



DEDICATION

Dedicated to Justina Araba Rockson, Belvic Kwaw Mensah and Evander Kaku Mensah.



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ABSTRACT

The present study investigated the politeness strategies in legal discourse through an analysis of cross-examinations conducted at the Winneba District Court. The study is qualitative, and used document as the data collection method because the data were obtained from some selected record of proceedings on cross-examination sessions from 2020-2022 at the Winneba District Court. The study is guided by the Politeness Theory and Speech Acts Theory. Utterances from the cross-examinations is gathered as data. The researcher analyzed the utterances of all the cross-examiners and the cross-examinees, and then classified them into politeness strategy themes such as bald on-record politeness, positive politeness, negative politeness, and off-record politeness. The four themes were further put into sub-themes such as deference, seek agreement, hedging, apology, request, assert a common ground, among others. The study indicates that the politeness strategy mostly used is positive politeness, and this is followed by negative politeness, bald on-record, and finally, off-record politeness. The findings suggest that it is necessary for cross-examiners and cross-examinees; whether professional or non-professional to use politeness strategies in order to as much as possible avoid threatening the face of others they communicate with. The findings contribute to the understanding of how politeness operates within the context of legal discourse and have implications for legal practice, courtroom communication, and politeness theory.



CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.0 Background to the Study

Language is used by human beings as a tool for communication in order to express various acts such as asking for help, making promises, reporting news, giving directions, conveying greetings and performing hundreds of other ordinary verbal actions in everyday life (Finegan, 2004). In other words, language is important to fulfil human needs and convey messages or/ and feelings. Since humans are social beings, when one speaks, he or she usually talks with or to others. Human beings face many differences such as age, gender, social status and ethnicity. These differences can be challenging for humans as they need to adapt their language to convey their messages and feelings to the situation. People are not always able to say exactly what they mean because they generally do not want to force or criticize the hearer (Holtgraves, 2002). There is the need for one to take into consideration the person whom he or she is talking with, pay attention to the situation, act in the way that it requires, and choose the best way of conveying his or her message so as not to destroy the self-image of others. In establishing social relationships, several communication strategies must be applied to achieve communication goals. In linguistic analysis, there are different strategies in social relationship communication and these include implicit, explicit, politeness, etc. (Gunawan & Aprizawati, 2018).

Politeness can be expressed through how one uses language. Politeness strategies are often used in real life situation (from an experience to an event to a contemporary issue, provided it's concrete and identifiable) in order to maintain each other's face. Politeness is applied by someone because he or she wants to respect the hearer. Politeness is not

something one is born with, but something one has to make effort to learn and be socialized into. Politeness theory is an important branch of pragmatics developed by Brown and Levinson (1987). According to this theory, the interlocutors use specific strategies in order to achieve successful communication. These strategies enable the interlocutors to create maximally comfortable environment for communication.

The theory draws heavily on Erving Goffman's concept of face on how and why people are polite to others. Goffman (1967, p. 5) defines face as "the positive social value a person effectively claims for himself by the line others assume he has taken during a particular contact". Face can also be understood as public image individuals seek to establish in social interactions. It is also helpful to think about face as 'self- image'. Naturally, most people want to protect their self-image and wish to portray a positive image of themselves to others.

Politeness theory works on the assumption that there are two types of "face": Positive face and Negative face. Positive face is an individual's desire to be liked and appreciated by others (Brown & Levinson, 1987). Think of this as a person's self-esteem. In other words, positive face reflects an individual's need for his or her wishes and desires to be appreciated in a social context. This helps to maintain a positive and consistent self-image. Negative face is an individual's desire to protect their personal rights, such as their freedom of speech and action. Together, these types of face respect the face needs which include an individual's face needs for autonomy and competence. Politeness theory relies on the assumption that most speech acts inherently threaten either the speaker or the hearer's face, and that politeness is therefore a necessary component of unoffensive, that is, non-face threatening communication and involves the redressing of positive and negative face. Brown and Levinson (1987) posit that in

order to avoid embarrassing someone or making them feel uncomfortable, there are four main politeness strategies that are used: Bald on-record, Positive politeness, Negative politeness, and Off-record (indirect). The strategy used will depend on the relationship between the speaker and the hearer.

There are several works carried on politeness in general. Widarwati (2014) has done a study into politeness and linguistic politeness markers in Indonesia. Farida and Yuliana (2019) have also conducted a study in Sudan by pointing out the politeness strategies used by Sudanese students and lecturers through WhatsApp text messaging. Yusuf and Anwar (2019) have examined the use of politeness strategies in the classroom context by English University students. Moreover, Widyastuti (2019) has also carried a study into the politeness strategies used by the main characters of the novel *The Sun also Rises*. Additionally, Fridolini et. al (2021) did a study to analyze the politeness strategies employed in *Little Women Movie* by Greta Gerwig. Their research revealed that all the characters used all the politeness strategies and that the positive politeness strategy was used most (Fridolini et. al, 2021).

Previous studies have been carried on politeness strategies in the courtroom. For instance, Mawaddah and Cahyono (2022) did a study into positive politeness strategies used in the court situation on the TV programme called “Welcome to America” by gathering data from a YouTube account called “Caught in Provident”. Ardi et. al (2021) and Liao (2019) also conducted a study into the application of politeness strategies in the courtroom using the framework of Brown and Levinson (1987). The study by Ardi (2021) revealed that the politeness strategies in criminal trials is crucial in upholding fairness in judicial decisions whereas Liao (2019) also concluded in his study that politeness in courtroom discourse as a typical example of institutional discourse is

fundamentally different from that of everyday conversation. Yibifu (2020) also conducted a similar work on politeness and impoliteness strategies in the courtroom by analyzing a trial script from an American reality TV show. All these works are relevant to the current study because they give insights into the types of politeness strategies available.

Besides the various studies, some scholars like Aditiya et al. (2021); Sudarmawan et al. (2022); Supriatna et al. (2023); and Zulianti and Nurchurifiani (2021) have conducted studies into politeness strategies and the speech act classification using Brown and Levinson's Politeness Theory and that of Searle's Speech Act Classification respectively. These studies are relevant to the current study because they delve into the intricate interplay between politeness strategies and speech act classification which can be likened to an aspect of the current study. Bhatia (2010) also has explored the interplay between different discourses in legal communication, including how speech acts and politeness strategies are used within the context of legal discourse. This study is relevant to the current study because the work provides insight into the relevance of speech acts to politeness strategies in legal discourse and offer valuable perspective on how language is used in legal setting to achieve communicative goals while maintaining politeness.

This present study seeks to explore the politeness strategies employed by courtroom cross-examiners and cross-examinees (witnesses) in cross-examinations at the Winneba District Court. Ardi et al. (2021, p.1240) says "a courtroom is a solemn place which requires participants to observe courtroom decorum by maintaining a respectable attitude at all times." The judges, prosecuting officers, counsels, plaintiffs, defendants, witnesses and accused persons must adhere to professional courtesy when

communicating in court. The law regulates the mannerism in examination of witnesses. The court forbids offensive courtroom strategies which are intended to insult or annoy any party. In Ghana, Constitutional Instrument 59 which establishes the District Court Rules, 2009, Order 25, rule 6 states that “the magistrate may disallow a question asked in cross-examination of a party or witness which appears to the magistrate to be vexatious and not relevant to any matter which it is proper to enquire into in the cause or matter.” From the cited law, the term “vexatious” in context means that any question causing or tending to cause annoyance, frustration, or worry. The law therefore expects whoever is asking questions to be decorous to the one listening during cross-examination. Again, Act 29 of Criminal and other Offences Act, 1960 (Act 29) section 224, talks about insulting court. It states “Whoever in the presence of any Court is guilty of contempt of Court by any insulting, opprobrious, or menacing acts or words, is guilty of a misdemeanor.” With respect to the cited law, it is obvious that the court does not take it lightly with anybody who insults or speaks derogatory words about it. Observation of politeness in the courtroom is very paramount and so it is very important for courtroom cross-examiners and cross-examinees to be familiar with the various politeness strategies in order to ensure that speakers avoid threatening the face of hearers.

1.1 Statement of Problem

In human communication, the interlocutors have the obligation to show politeness to each other for a successful interaction. Non-observance of politeness amongst interlocutors has the potential to infringe upon or destroy the self-image of the addressees. Therefore, in order to avoid threatening or infringing on the hearer’s face, there is the need to employ politeness strategies which can serve as mechanisms put in place to check these potential face-threatening acts and this explains why this study is

very crucial. Politeness has been studied in various domains or areas. Some of the works cover areas or domains such as religion, health, movies, politics, social media, education and law.

In relation to religious field, Al-Khatib (2012) has conducted a study into politeness, and his study sought to investigate politeness in the Holy Quran from a socio-pragmatic perspective. The data was analyzed in relation to both Brown and Levinson's (1987) theory of politeness and Leech's (1983) maxims of politeness. The study found out that the Quran consists of a wide range of politeness in order to convey a huge number of divine ethical messages. Also, Kareem (2018) investigated the use of im/politeness in Muslim sermons or Khutbahs. To identify these elements, a modified version of Brown and Levinson's (1987) model of politeness was used as an analytical framework. Using naturally occurring data collected from Friday sermons, the study shows that the Imams used several politeness strategies identified in the Brown and Levinson model. Again, Jewad et al. (2020) have done a study on whether or not the theories of Leech (1983) and Brown and Levinson (1987) can be applied to find out the positive and negative politeness strategies and the politeness maxims. The findings of their study revealed that there was more negative politeness in the Quran as compared to that of the positive politeness. The use of politeness maxims was the least. These studies are relevant to the current study because they provide much understanding about works on politeness and the theoretical framework of Brown and Levinson's politeness theory.

Another area where works on politeness have been done is health. For example, Lodhi et al. (2019) did a study on the linguistic analysis of the politeness strategies used in the doctor-patient discourse by using Brown and Levinson's (1987) theory of politeness as a framework. Findings reveal that majority of the doctors unduly focused on exhibiting

power and dominance over patients in their talks made with them. It was also found that doctors mostly used the strategy of “Bald on Record” with both male and female patients; and wide majority of patients showed dissatisfaction with doctor’s conversation during diagnosing, treatment and follow-up visits. In the same vein, Dhayef and Khudhair (2022) employed Brown and Levinson’s (1987) model of positive politeness to do a comparative study between the use of English and Arabic speeches that are related to Covid-19. Their study concluded that the strategy of exaggeration is the appropriate one in comparison with the other strategies when talking about Covid-19 matters. Similarly, Rabab’ah et al. (2022) conducted a study to investigate the various strategies utilized by Arabic speaking patients and / or their relatives to express impoliteness towards the Emergency Room (ER) staff at Jordanian hospital. Using Culpeper’s (1996) model of impoliteness, the study concluded that the various types and strategies of impoliteness used by the patients and / or their relatives were aiming at offending and threatening the face of the hospital staff and doctors, and this behaviour, as observed in the various interactions that took place, could be attributed to their dissatisfaction of the health care services provided. These studies are also useful to the current study because the current study also seeks to investigate into the politeness strategies used.

The use of politeness strategies has also been studied in movies. For instance, Damara and Romala (2022) have worked on politeness strategies in the movie “Two Distant Strangers”. Using Brown and Levinson’s 1987 model of politeness strategies, the results of their findings revealed that all the characters in the movie applied four types of politeness strategies and that bald on-record is the most frequently used strategy. It was also discovered that the characters’ utterances demonstrated a relationship between politeness strategies and related sociological factors. Again, Permadi et al. (2022)

researched into politeness strategies used by the main characters of Aladdin movie. The study used Brown and Levinson's 1987 model of politeness and the results of the research showed that the types of politeness strategies used by the four main characters in the Aladdin film are the bald-on record strategy, positive politeness strategies, negative politeness strategies, and off-record politeness strategies.

The research also revealed that bald on record was the most widely used. It was followed by both positive and off-record politeness which had the same number of utterances. The least uttered politeness was that of the negative politeness.

Additionally, Nurlayli and Widyastuti (2022) have also done a study to identify and describe the negative politeness strategies across cultures using the TV series *Emily in Paris* for the study. The study applied the theory of politeness proposed by Brown and Levinson (1987) and the supporting theory by Holmes and Wilson (2017) about social factors that can affect politeness. The data were taken from Emily Cooper's utterances in the form of words or phrases. According to Nurlayli and Widyastuti (2022), the results of the study revealed that there were five kinds of negative politeness strategies noticed in Emily's utterances: giving, deference, apologizing, questioning, and hedging. It was also found out that the social factors that influenced Emily's politeness are the participants, the setting, the topic, and the function. The study further revealed that apologizing was the most used strategy for Emily because she tried to be polite and avoid offending her interlocutors. The aforementioned studies are also relevant to the current study because the current study also seeks to investigate into the politeness strategies used using Brown and Levinson's politeness theory just as the previous studies did.

With respect to the use of politeness strategies on social media, Sagala (2021) has done a study using Facebook and Twitter. He used Brown and Levinson's (1987) theory of

politeness and he found that there were five types of positive politeness and these include making offer, showing a sense of optimism, involving the interlocutor and speaker in certain activities, giving and asking for reasons, and expected-demand reciprocity, while there are six negative politeness strategies, they also include using fences, stating clearly that the speaker has given goodness, among others.

Again, Yulandari (2022) has equally worked on politeness strategies for men on social media. The study was anchored on Brown and Levinson's 1987 theory of politeness. The findings indicated that male conversational class/student group tends to use blunt politeness strategies and positive strategies whereas in the Wa alumni/bachelor group, men tend to use positive politeness and negative politeness strategies. Sarfo-Adu and Osei (2021) have also conducted a study into politeness in media talk shows in Ghana. Using Brown and Levinson's 1987 politeness theory, the results indicated that 43.35% panelists marked politeness by addressing the positive face of their interlocutor(s) as against 38.93% occurrences of negative face, with Face Threatening Acts (FTAs) on record recording 15.70%. Their findings suggest that Ghanaian media panel discussions are characterized by positive politeness. The aforementioned studies are pertinent to the current study because, like the earlier studies, it aims to examine the politeness techniques employed in light of Brown and Levinson's politeness theory.

Application of politeness strategies in the political field is another area of interest. Hammond (2021) has also dealt extensively with the (im) politeness strategies and tactics of self-presentation employed by John Dramani Mahama after the 2016 general election in Ghana using Brown and Levinson's (1987) politeness theory. Her findings indicate that John Dramani Mahama employed the four types of politeness and these include positive politeness, negative politeness, bald on-record, and off-record

politeness in his concession speech. In another study, Njuki and Ireri (2021) have conducted an in-depth study on positive and negative politeness strategies used by Kenya's members of National Assembly. They used politeness theory by Brown and Levinson (1987) to analyze, interpret and discuss the data collected. The outcome of the research suggests that Members of the National Assembly use positive and negative politeness strategies and that positive politeness strategy was the most used politeness strategy by the parliamentarians.

Additionally, Akuka et al. (2021) have as well done an in-depth study into politeness in parliamentary discourse using Brown and Levinson's (1987) model. Using parliamentary Hansard as a source of data, the research concluded that the political actors in the Parliament of Ghana, such as Members of Parliament and Speaker used politeness strategies in various forms and frequencies as observed in the parliamentary Hansard. Sukmawati et al. (2023) have also conducted research on how people use impoliteness strategies in communication, and identify the impoliteness strategies used in the Vice-Presidential United States of America candidates' debate between Mike Pence and Sen, while also figuring out the purpose of using these strategies in the debate by using Brown and Levinson's politeness theory as a framework. Dalimunte and Wen (2022) also embarked on a study into how the politeness investigations in presidential debates enable voters to assess the candidates' behaviour to make-well informed decision during the election by using Brown and Levinson's 1987 politeness theory as a theoretical framework. Sibarani and Marilina (2018) have equally conducted a study on politeness strategies used in the Republican debate by Donald Trump using the theory of politeness. The finding of the study indicated that Donald Trump used only three types of politeness strategies in Republican debate. It further exposed that the most prominent politeness strategy used by Trump was positive politeness. The

aforementioned studies are also pertinent to the current study because, similar to the previous studies, it seeks to examine the politeness strategies employed in light of Brown and Levinson's politeness theory.

Another fascinating area that politeness strategies have been studied is that of education. A study by Mantra et al. (2022) investigates the language politeness strategies students and university lecturers employ during the online learning processes. The study used Brown and Levinson's 1987 politeness theory and the outcome of the research was that several language politeness strategies were employed by the students and lecturer, namely: the maxim of appreciation, the maxim of tact, the maxim of generosity, the maxim of appreciation, the maxim of humility, the maxim of agreement, and the maxim of sympathy. Besides, Algiován (2022) investigated into politeness strategies used by lecturers and students in thesis guidance through virtual communications. The study used Brown and Levinson's 1987 politeness strategy theory and the findings of the research revealed that positive politeness, negative politeness, bald on record and off-record politeness were all used.

In all, it was found that the lecturers used the bald on record strategy more frequently than students in their interactions in thesis guidance through virtual communication. Additionally, Umar (2021) conducted a study to find out the language politeness strategies used by English teachers in motivating students to learn in the Mandar Community. Brown and Levinson's 1987 theory of politeness strategies was used to support the study. The results of the study concluded that politeness strategies in communication between students and teachers is important in classroom interactions and that politeness strategies can be chosen as student behaviour by teachers or students to their teachers. Similarly, Reformita (2022) has done a detailed study into language

politeness carried out by teachers in building student learning motivation in class. The study relied heavily on Brown and Levinson's 1987 politeness theory and the conclusion of the study was that building student learning motivation is very important for teachers to do and that one way is to use politeness in language to create a comfort towards the teacher. The above-mentioned studies are also relevant to the current study because the current study also aims to investigate into the politeness strategies used using Brown and Levinson's politeness theory just as the previous studies did.

Another remarkable area which has gained attention to scholars is the application of politeness in the courtroom or the court setting. For instance, Yibifu (2020) worked on politeness and impoliteness strategies in the courtroom by analyzing a trial script from an American reality TV show. The theoretical frameworks used in his study were that of Brown and Levinson's (1987) politeness model as well as Culpeper's (1996) impoliteness model, and his findings revealed that politeness and impoliteness strategies appear to be used by the participants in the courtroom. However, according to the study, positive impoliteness and positive politeness are used more frequently than other strategies (Yibifu, 2020). Liao (2019) also used politeness theory strategies (Brown & Levinson, 1987) to analyze the courtroom language in both criminal and civil trials in China. Liao (2019) arrived at a conclusion that politeness discourse as an exemplary institutional discourse is essentially distinct from that of everyday conversation, and the findings exposed that there are various strategies and forms of politeness employed by the participants in the courtroom trial. The studies showed that, the judge used the politeness strategies in the whole process of trial, especially, during the court sentencing to the defendant as well as to the opposing lawyer.

Not only that but also, Ardi et al. (2021) studied the politeness strategies used in the cross-examination of court trials in criminal cases. The study adopted the politeness theory proposed by Brown and Levinson (1978, 1987) and illocutionary functions (Leech, 1983) to identify the language usage during the cross-examination. The study found out that the politeness strategies in criminal trials is crucial in upholding fairness in judicial decisions. From the above referred works on politeness strategies, it is clear that research on politeness is an important area of concern to many researchers. All these above-mentioned studies are also pertinent to the current study because the current study also seeks to investigate into the politeness strategies used using Brown and Levinson's politeness theory just as the previous studies did.

Politeness studies conducted in Ghana appear to pay attention to aspects such as politeness in administrative discourse (Hammond, 2017); politeness in adversarial panel discussion on radio (Afful, 2017); (im)politeness strategies and tactics of self-presentation employed by politicians in their concession speech (Hammond, 2021); perception of impoliteness by the Ghanaian folk (Thompson & Agyekum, 2015); hybridized form of politeness in English spoken in Ghana (Anderson, 2009). Little or no attention is given to politeness in courtroom cross-examination. Even though there are some studies on courtroom cross-examination in Ghana, the scholars did not incorporate politeness into their work. For example, Edu-Buandoh and Ahialey (2012) explored the ideological implications of question in elicitation in courtroom cross-examination discourse in Ghana by counsels. Ahialey (2011) examines how the linguistic structures inherent in counsels' elicitation strategies and defendants/witnesses' response strategies aid in promoting unequal power relations in trial cross-examination. Logogye (2016) also did a study into syntactic and pragmatic analysis of cross-examination in Ghanaian law courts. All these works offer valuable

insights into the role of language, discourse, and communication in legal settings, shedding light on the nuances of courtroom interaction and legal processes.

This current study is based on the recommendation made by Permadi (2022, p332) that “there are many aspects which can be analyzed about Pragmatics including politeness strategy.” This suggests that further studies can be carried out into politeness which forms part of Pragmatics. Although, there are relative number of studies with regard to the use of politeness strategies in courtroom trial, there seems to be no study on politeness strategies in courtroom trial, specifically, cross-examinations between cross-examiners and cross-examinees in court cases in the Ghanaian context, and this is the gap that the study seeks to fill. Therefore, this study aims at analyzing politeness strategies used by cross-examiners and cross-examinees in cross-examinations at the Winneba District Court. This study adopted the theory of politeness established by Brown and Levinson (1987) and also, the study used Searle’s 1976 Speech Act Classification as the supporting theory.

1.2 Purpose of the Study

The motive behind this study is to investigate the various politeness strategies used by cross-examiners and cross-examinees in cross-examinations at the Winneba District Court, and also explore the codes or rules of conduct that guide the expression of the politeness strategies. Again, this study also aims at finding the speech act class and function of the identified politeness strategies used by the cross-examiners and cross-examinees.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

The study seeks to:

1. identify the politeness strategies used by cross-examiners and cross-examinees during cross-examination sessions at the Winneba District Court.
2. investigate how rules or codes of conduct of court guide the expression of politeness between cross-examiners and cross-examinees.
3. examine the speech act class and function of the identified politeness strategies.

1.4 Research Questions

The study is guided by the following questions:

1. What are the politeness strategies used by cross-examiners and cross-examinees during cross-examination sessions at the Winneba District Court?
2. How do rules or codes of conduct of court guide the expression of politeness between cross-examiners and cross-examinees?
3. What is the speech act class and function of the identified politeness strategies?

1.5 The Significance of the Study

This study is relevant in diverse ways. First, the study will contribute to knowledge on politeness phenomenon in courtroom or legal discourse. Second, the study will contribute to practice because knowledge of politeness strategies in legal discourse can enhance legal professionals' communication skills, enabling them to navigate complex interactions with clients, colleagues, judges, and other stakeholders effectively. Third, by incorporating insights from the study of politeness, researchers can develop frameworks and tools for assessing communicative effectiveness, and professional ethics in legal practice. Lastly, the findings of the study will also be useful to the Judicial Service of Ghana in a way because it will encourage the service to incorporate polite language into its policies and programmes.

1.6 Delimitation

In this study, only some excerpts of cross-examinations between cross-examiners and cross-examinees from some selected civil and criminal cases at the Winneba District Court were selected and not in other courts. The study therefore did not explore data from other courts for the study. The reason for choosing Winneba District Court is that most studies have looked at the higher courts and not the lower courts. Also, there was no recording and transcribing of cross-examination sessions from the court but rather the court's recorded version of the cross-examination sessions was solely used. The choice for relying on the court's document was to ensure that the data obtained is accurate and free from unforeseeable mistakes.

1.7 Organization of the Study

This study is organized in five chapters. The first chapter is the introduction, and this consists of the background to the study, statement of the problem, the purpose of the study, the objectives of the research, the research questions that guided the study, the significance of the study, the delimitation, and the organization of the study.

Chapter two reviews relevant literature that supports the study. The chapter also describes the relevant theories that underpin the study. These include Brown and Levinson's 1987 Politeness Theory and Searle's 1976 Speech Act Classification. It also continues to elaborate on concepts or terms such as courtroom discourse, cross-examination, cross-examinee, cross-examiner, among others.

Chapter three also presents the methodology used to conduct the study. The chapter gives detailed information about the research approach, the research design, sampling technique and sample size, data collection method and procedure, data analysis plan and ethical consideration.

In chapter four, findings of the study are presented and analyzed. The discussions of the findings as they relate to the theories and other relevant literature are well catered for.

Chapter five, which is the final chapter, discusses the summary, conclusions and recommendations based on the findings of the study.

1.8 Chapter Summary

This chapter provided an overview of the pertinent concepts that formed the basis of the study. It also addressed the main topics that the study aims to address through the formulation of the problem. Additionally, the catalyst for the study was outlined, including the research questions and objectives, as well as the significance and scope of the study.



CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

This chapter reviews the existing literature on politeness strategies. It continues to talk about the term “courtroom discourse” and this is followed by the overview of the major theory that underpins the research work. The theoretical framework is Brown and

Levinson's Politeness Theory which brings to the fore linguistic strategies that are employed by interlocutors in a communication situation to avoid threatening the face of the other. It also looks at the following: Brown and Levinson's view on politeness, the concept of politeness, the role of politeness in communication, Brown and Levinson's concept of face, politeness strategies and Face Threatening Acts (FTA's), factors influencing the choice of politeness strategies, criticism of Brown and Levinson's (1987) politeness theory, relevance of Brown and Levinson's theory to the study, cross-examination, rules or codes of conduct in court on politeness, Speech Acts Theory, classification of speech acts, relevant literature on speech acts and politeness, and finally, chapter summary.

2.1 Empirical Studies on Politeness

There are numerous studies carried on politeness. These studies cover works of scholars from both global and local perspectives.

2.1.1 Politeness studies from the global perspective

Globally, studies on politeness strategies have been conducted in movies (Damara and Romala, 2022; Permadi et al., 2022; Isabella et al., 2022; Nurlayli and Widyastuti, 2022). For instance, Damara and Romala (2022) have worked on politeness strategies in the movie "Two Distant Strangers". Their study used Brown and Levinson's 1987 model of politeness strategies and the results of their findings revealed that all the characters in "Two Distant Strangers" movie applied four types of politeness strategies and that bald on-record was the most frequently used strategy. Similarly, Permadi et al. (2022) researched into politeness strategies used by the main characters of Aladdin movie. Their study also used Brown and Levinson's 1987 model of politeness and the results of the research showed that the types of politeness strategies used by the four

main characters in the Aladdin film were the bald-on record strategy, positive politeness strategies, negative politeness strategies, and off-record politeness strategies. The research also revealed that bald on record was the most widely used politeness strategy. It was followed by both positive and off-record politeness which had the same number of utterances. The least uttered politeness was that of the negative politeness.

The studies conducted by Damara and Romala (2022) and Permadi et al. (2022) both emphasize that bald on record was the most widely used politeness strategies. In my opinion, the findings of both studies suggest that the characters that were used for both studies used a lot of face threatening acts (FTAs) because perhaps they were the main characters and so they spoke with authority.

Isabella et al. (2022), also conducted a study by using Brown and Levinson's (1987) politeness theory to analyze the types of politeness strategies, to determine the most dominant types of politeness strategies and to determine the factors that influence the selection of politeness strategies contained in the Tinkerbell Film. The findings of the study showed that the main character in Tinker Bell Movie used the four politeness strategies and these included bald on-record, positive politeness, negative politeness and off-record. Unlike Damara and Romala (2022) and Permadi et al. (2022) whose work revealed that bald on record politeness strategies were the most widely used strategy, the data collected by Isabella et al. (2022) revealed that positive politeness was the most used politeness strategies found in Tinker Bell Movie. Their research concluded that in a conversation, the use of politeness strategies is really needed because by using politeness strategies one can communicate with other people well.

Additionally, Nurlayli and Widyastuti (2022) have also done a study to identify and describe the negative politeness strategies across cultures using the TV series *Emily in*

Paris for the study. The study applied the theory of politeness proposed by Brown and Levinson (1987) and the supporting theory by Holmes and Wilson (2017) about social factors that can affect politeness. The data were taken from Emily Cooper's utterances in the form of words or phrases. According to Nurlayli and Widyastuti (2022), the results of the study revealed that there were five kinds of negative politeness strategies noticed in Emily's utterances: giving, deference, apologizing, questioning, and hedging. It was also found that the social factors that influenced Emily's politeness were the participants, the setting, the topic, and the function. The study further revealed that apologizing was the most used strategy for Emily because she tried to be polite in order to avoid offending her interlocutors. Comparing their study to scholars like Damara and Romala (2022), Permadi et al. (2022) and Isabella et al. (2022), even though Nurlayli and Widyastuti's studies hover around politeness strategies, they focused on only negative politeness. The aforementioned studies are pertinent to the current study because, similar to the previous studies, it seeks to examine the politeness strategies employed in light of Brown and Levinson's politeness theory.

Studies from abroad also reveal that politeness has been done into politics (Sibarani and Marilina, 2018; Njuki and Ileri, 2021; Dridi, 2020; Anuar and Ngadiran, 2021). For example, Sibarani and Marilina (2018) did a study on politeness strategies used in the Republican debate by Donald Trump using the theory of politeness. The findings of their study indicated that Donald Trump used only three types of politeness strategies in Republican debate. It further exposed that the most prominent politeness strategy used by Trump was positive politeness. In another study, Njuki and Ileri (2021) have conducted an in-depth study on positive and negative politeness strategies used by Kenya's members of National Assembly. They used politeness theory by Brown and

Levinson (1987) to analyze, interpret and discuss the data collected. The outcome of the research suggests that Members of the National Assembly used positive and negative politeness strategies and that positive politeness strategy was the most used politeness strategy by the parliamentarians.

Additionally, Dridi (2020) adopted Brown and Levinson's 1987 Politeness Theory in examining the politeness strategies employed by the American Israel Public Affairs Committee (AIPAC) political annual speeches between 2006 and 2012. The findings of the study revealed that the political participants used both positive politeness and negative politeness to mark the inter-relation between politeness theory and political discourse. It was further revealed in the study that political speakers moved from expressing warmth, praise and acclamation to call for solidarity, engagement and action. Not only that but also, Anuar and Ngadiran (2021) employed Brown and Levinson's 1987 Politeness Theory to find the politeness strategies in the Malaysian Prime Minister's Maiden Speech. The study showed that positive politeness was much used (88%) compared to negative politeness strategies (12%).

Juxtaposing the studies conducted by Sibarani and Marilina (2018) and that of Njuki and Ireri (2021), it is obvious that both studies point out that positive politeness is used the most. Even though the study by Dridi (2020) focuses on politeness strategies by political actors of America and Israel, the outcome of the study suggests that both positive and negative politeness strategies were prevalent. However, the study by Anuar and Ngadiran (2021) revealed that even though both positive and negative politeness were identified, positive politeness strategies were used the most, and this I believe that since the prime minister was trying to convince the people of Malaysia how qualified he was, he needed to use a lot of positive politeness strategies in order to be appreciated

and accepted by his audience. The above-mentioned studies are also relevant to the current study because, similar to the previous studies, it aims to examine the politeness strategies employed as established by Brown and Levinson's politeness theory.

Studies in abroad again reveal that politeness studies have been done in education. Algiovan (2022); Luthfi (2022); Adel et al. (2016) have all conducted politeness strategy studies into education or classroom. Using Computer-Mediated Discourse Analysis, Adel et al. (2016) investigated the kinds of politeness strategies used by Iranian EFL learners in a class blog. The study found that students employed positive politeness the most in both Student-Instructor interaction and Student-Student interaction. Whereas, Algiovan (2022) sought to investigate into politeness strategies used by lecturers and students in thesis guidance through virtual communications, Luthfi (2022) too sought to research into the types of politeness strategies that were applied by teacher and students in classroom interaction. Both studies used Brown and Levinson's 1987 Politeness Theory.

The findings of the works by Algiovan (2022) and Luthfi (2022), revealed that positive politeness, negative politeness, bald on record and off record politeness were all used. In all, it was found that the lecturers used the bald on record strategy more frequently than students in their interactions in thesis guidance through virtual communication (Algiovan, 2022) and the research findings of Luthfi (2022), showed that there were four kinds of politeness strategy found in the classroom interaction and that positive politeness strategy was the most politeness strategy used. The study found out that positive politeness was used the most by teachers and students due to payoffs and circumstances. Even though Adel et al. (2016) and Luthfi (2022) did not use the same framework for their study, that is, Computer-Mediated Discourse Analysis and Brown

and Levinson's Politeness Theory respectively, both studies were conducted in a classroom related environment and that their findings revealed that positive politeness was the most used politeness strategies by the teachers and students. All the above-mentioned previous studies are relevant to the current study because they provide much understanding about works on politeness and the theoretical framework of Brown and Levinson's politeness theory.

Another area of concern where works on politeness have been done is the field of health (Lodhi, 2019; Dhayef and Khudhair, 2022; Rabab'ah et al, 2022; Olorunsogo, 2020). For example, Lodhi (2019) did a study on the linguistic analysis of the politeness strategies used in the doctor-patient discourse by using Brown and Levinson's (1987) Politeness Theory as a framework. Findings revealed that majority of the doctors unduly focused on exhibiting power and dominance over patients in their talks made with them. It was also found that doctors mostly used the strategy of "Bald on Record" with both male and female patients; and wide majority of patients showed dissatisfaction with doctor's conversation during diagnosing, treatment and follow-up visits. The findings of Lodhi (2019) which revealed that majority of the patients were dissatisfied with doctor's encounter with them is perhaps largely due to the fact that the doctors used more of bald on record because of how urgent situations at the hospitals need to be dealt with by health workers. In the same vein, Dhayef and Khudhair (2022) employed Brown and Levinson's (1987) model of positive politeness to do a comparative study between the use of English and Arabic speeches that are related to Covid-19. Their study concluded that the strategy of exaggeration was the appropriate one in comparison with the other strategies when talking about Covid-19 matters.

Similarly, Rabab'ah et al. (2022) conducted a study to investigate the various strategies utilized by Arabic speaking patients and / or their relatives to express impoliteness towards the Emergency Room (ER) staff at Jordanian hospital. Using Culpeper's (1996) model of impoliteness, the study concluded that the various types and strategies of impoliteness used by the patients and / or their relatives were aiming at offending and threatening the face of the hospital staff and doctors, and this behaviour, as observed in the various interactions that took place, could be attributed to their dissatisfaction of the health care services provided. Olorunsogo (2020) uses a pilot study to investigate how politeness strategies are deployed in Doctor-Patient interactions in private hospital. He relied on the theoretical orientation of Brown and Levinson's Theory of Politeness. The study discovered that doctors mostly make use of bald on-record strategies with older patients and more of positive politeness strategies with children. It was also discovered that patients employed positive politeness strategy and negative politeness as and when they deemed it necessary.

The findings of Lodhi (2019) and Rabab'ah et al. (2022) seem to be in contrast. This is based on the fact that in Lodhi's study, it was found out that the doctors used bald on-record the most but the study of Rabab'ah revealed that the patients and their family members used various types and strategies of impoliteness which were all aimed at offending and threatening the face of the hospital staff and doctors as ways of registering their displeasure for the health care services rendered. On the contrary, in Olorunsogo's study, he found that doctors mostly make use of bald on-record strategies with older patients and more of positive politeness strategies with children. It was also discovered that patients employed positive politeness strategy and negative politeness as and when it was necessary. The study of Dhayef and Khudhair (2022) on the other hand, concluded that exaggeration as a positive politeness strategy, was the suitable one

in comparison with the other strategies when talking about Covid-19 matters. These studies are relevant to the current study because they provide much understanding about how the theoretical framework of Brown and Levinson's politeness theory is applied in studies in politeness.

With respect to the use of politeness strategies on social media or media, Sagala, (2021); Sudaryat et al. (2020); Ammaida (2020) have all done studies on that. Sagala (2021) have done a study on politeness using Facebook and Twitter. They used Brown and Levinson's (1987) Theory of Politeness, and they found out that there were five types of positive politeness and these included making offer, showing a sense of optimism, involving the interlocutor and speaker in certain activities, giving and asking for reasons, and expected-demand reciprocity, while there were six negative politeness strategies and they also included using fences, stating clearly that the speaker has given goodness, among others.

Using Lakoff's 1977 principles of politeness, Sudaryat et al. (2020) also did a study to reveal the form of politeness and immodesty of language through the comments of West Java citizens who are famous for their culture of manners on the covid-19 pandemic. The results of the study proved that three principles of politeness dominated and, these included principle of formality, principle of hesitancy and principle of equality and these are presented from the highest order of frequency to less order of occurrence. The study further revealed that even though the comments made by the citizens in responding to the information on cities in West Java are in the polite category, some of the disrespectful comments from the citizens, both in official government accounts or in private city information accounts are due to dissatisfaction with government's performance in handling the pandemic case.

Again, Ammaida (2020) looks at the politeness strategies of the comments toward Trump's Instagram post on international women's day. The study used the Politeness Theory by Brown and Levinson (1987) and findings indicate that there were five bald on record strategies, thirteen positive politeness strategies, seven negative politeness strategies, and thirteen off-record strategies. The study further found that positive politeness strategy was the highest used strategy. The study concluded that when the users use social media, they decide to use positive politeness strategy because they want to show solidarity, treat the other users as a member of in-group, a friend, a person who are known and liked.

A critical look at the various works on social media or media suggest that there are similarities and differences between the discussed works. First, whereas Sagala (2022) and Ammaida (2020) used Brown and Levinson's (1987) Politeness Theory, Sudaryat et al. (2020) used Lakoff's 1977 Principles of Politeness. In Ammaida's study, it was found that positive politeness strategy was the highest used strategy. However, Sudaryat et al. (2020) revealed that politeness and immodesty language were used by the West Java citizens. All these previous studies are relevant to the current study because they provide much understanding about works on politeness and the theoretical framework of Brown and Levinson's politeness theory.

Furthermore, studies also reveal that politeness strategies have been done abroad in religion (Kareem, 2018; Jewad et al., 2020). For example, Kareem (2018) investigated the use of im/politeness in Muslim sermons or Khutbahs. To identify these elements, a modified version of Brown and Levinson's (1987) model of politeness was used as an analytical framework. Using naturally occurring data collected from Friday sermons, the study shows that the Imams used several politeness strategies identified in the

Brown and Levinson model. Again, Jewad et al. (2020) have done a study on whether or not the theories of Leech (1983) and Brown and Levinson (1987) can be applied to find out the positive and negative politeness strategies and the politeness maxims. The findings of their study revealed that there was more negative politeness in the Quran as compared to that of the positive politeness. The use of politeness maxims was the least.

The similarity between the studies conducted by Kareem (2018) and Jewad (2020) is that both studies used Brown and Levinson's 1987 model of politeness theory. The difference between the two studies is that Kareem focused on the Friday sermons by the Imams whilst Jewad focused on the politeness strategies used in the Quran. Again, whereas the study of Kareem (2018) revealed that the Imams employed all the politeness strategies as identified by Brown and Levinson (1987), on the other hand, the findings from Jewad (2020) revealed that the negative politeness were used much in the Quran as against the positive politeness. The aforementioned studies are pertinent to the current study because, like the earlier studies, it aims to examine the politeness techniques employed in light of Brown and Levinson's politeness theory.

Studies in abroad also address the application of politeness in the courtroom. For instance, Santoso et al (2020); Ardi (2021); Wang (2020); Yibifu (2020); Liao (2019) have all worked on politeness in the courtroom. Santoso et al. (2020) for example, did a study to investigate the forms of the linguistic politeness strategies used in Otto Hasibuan's Judge Session of Mirna's case. The findings of the research indicate that the forms of politeness used by Otto Hasibuan in thirteen typical speech acts included: asking for permission, warning, questioning, requesting, suggesting, begging, respecting, thanksgiving, agreeing, criticizing, abjuring, protesting, and informing

which are classified into five maxims such as tact maxim, approbation maxim, obligation maxim, agreement maxim, and opinion-reticence maxim.

Ardi et al. (2021) studied the politeness strategies used in the cross-examination of court trials in criminal cases. The study found out two main types of illocutionary functions; that is, competitive and conflictive. The study concluded that the politeness strategies in criminal trials is crucial in upholding fairness in judicial decisions. Liao (2019) also conducted a study to analyze the politeness in the courtroom language in both criminal and civil trials in China. Liao (2019) arrived at a conclusion that politeness discourse as an exemplary institutional discourse is essentially distinct from that of everyday conversation, and the findings exposed that there were various strategies and forms of politeness employed by the participants in the courtroom trial. The studies showed that, the judge used the politeness strategies in the whole process of trial, especially, during the court sentencing to the defendant as well as to the opposing lawyer.

Comparatively, whereas Ardi et al. (2021) focused on politeness strategies used in the cross-examination of court trials in criminal cases, Liao (2019) also conducted a study to analyze the politeness in the courtroom language in both criminal and civil trials. The studies conducted by Liao (2019) and Ardi et al. (2021) point out that politeness strategies are being used frequently by courtroom participants, especially, the judge used politeness strategies in the judicial process. Judging from the above-mentioned studies, it is conspicuously clear that politeness is very instrumental in the courtroom activities.

Moreover, Yibifu (2020) worked on politeness and impoliteness strategies in the courtroom by analyzing a trial script from an American reality TV show. His findings revealed that politeness and impoliteness strategies appear to be used by the participants

in the courtroom. However, according to the study, positive impoliteness and positive politeness were used more frequently than other strategies (Yibifu, 2020).

Even though Yibifu (2020) did a study into courtroom trial, his study differs slightly from Liao (2019) and Ardi et al. (2021) whose main focus was to look for politeness strategies. However, Yibifu focused on both politeness and impoliteness strategies.

Wang (2020) also investigated into politeness markers and modality in dialogue interpreting and analyzing how the illocutionary forces were modified by interpreters in their translations from English into Chinese and Spanish. The study concluded that even though interpreters achieved a highly appropriate equivalence for the source language but the illocutionary force of the source speeches were changed due to little speech usages such as politeness markers and modality, and due to this, the speeches' face-protective and face-threatening potential are affected. Moreover, in different languages, although their words were the same, they were not semantically equivalent. In this sense, different languages could not convey the same illocutionary force even if they accomplished equal level of speech contents. Wang's study reveals that interpreters who interpret from English to Chinese and Spanish and vice versa are able to some large extent convey the message from the source language to the target language, but the illocutionary force is altered because of the use of politeness markers and modality. This alteration affects the way the face of the hearer is protected or threatened. The aforementioned studies are also useful to the current study because the current study also seeks to investigate into the politeness strategies used in courtroom or legal discourse just as the previous studies did.

2.1.2 Politeness studies in Ghana

Locally, research works on politeness have also been conducted in Ghana. Similar to the works on politeness at the global level, scholars in Ghana have equally conducted studies into politeness in different fields of life. The areas or topics that the various studies appear to cover include administrative discourse, polite request and perception on politeness, social media or media, politics, and courtroom. For example, under administrative discourse, Hammond (2017) examined how 14 organisational structure and cultural expectations can influence the contents of administrative discourses to show (im)politeness from two institutions: University of Education, Winneba and the Ghana Police Service, Winneba. Her study was founded on Ting-Toomey's face negotiation theory and Fraser's views on politeness strategies. Her focus was to bridge the gaps between three pragmatic subfields: linguistic politeness research, organisational communication, and institutional communication pragmatics. Data was gathered through discourse completion tests, focus group discussions, observations, and a content analysis of selected written documents. Findings of the study was that differences exist in pragmatic variations: lexical, syntactic, and textual resources to mark (im)politeness in both institutions. In Hammond's study, there are two institutions where the research was focused and these two institutions have distinct focus. That is, the former is an educational institution whilst the latter is a law enforcement agency. It is therefore in order that the findings revealed that there were differences that existed in pragmatic variations including lexical, syntactic, and textual resources to indicate im(politeness) in the two institutions.

A careful look at the literature in Ghana also suggests that studies have been carried on polite requests and the perception people have about politeness (Thompson and

Anderson, 2019; Anderson, 2009; Akpanglo-Nartey, 2017; Totimeh and Bosiwah, 2015). Thompson and Anderson (2019) conducted a study into politeness and their study focused on what Ghanaians perceive as politeness in their daily interaction by gathering data from interviews granted by residents of Accra, Kumasi and Ho. Their study found that among Ghanaians, politeness is the use of any communicative behaviour that expresses respect or deference. Anderson (2009) also investigated polite requests in Ghanaian English. She used a politeness framework proposed by Blum-Kulka et al. (1989) which is regarded as an extension of Brown & Levinson (1987) theory of politeness. Using multiple data collection process of observation of natural speech, discourse completion tests and insights provided by a native speaker of Akan, she found out that speakers of English in Ghana do not frequently use modals such as "can", "could", "may", and "might" when they make polite requests in natural speech situation. Instead, they use more 'want'- statements and imperative forms that may be perceived as impolite forms in native varieties of English. These forms are, however, combined with lexical politeness markers such as "please" or "kindly". Her questionnaire data revealed the use of more modals than that of the oral data for this particular situation. The oral data seemed closer to typical Ghanaian English than the questionnaire data. The impression was that Ghanaian speakers transfer their first language pragmatic linguistic forms into the English Language.

From the literature, Thompson and Anderson (2019) sought to conduct a study on the perceptions of Ghanaians on what politeness is about in their daily interactions but Anderson (2009) centered her study on the polite requests in Ghanaian English. The two studies differ a little due to the fact that Thompson and Anderson (2019) sought to know the views of Ghanaians on what they perceived as politeness but Anderson (2009) was concerned with how Ghanaians actually make polite request while interacting.

In a similar study, Akpanglo-Nartey (2017) identified the use of the imperative in making requests in Ga and English by children to indicate equality. Totimeh and Bosiwah (2015) on their part employed ethnographic research approach to investigate how the Akyems of Ghana make polite request. The result was that generally, indirectness is used in making polite request among the Akyems, and also age, gender and socio-economic status influence request making. Studies conducted by Akpanglo-Nartey (2017) and Totimeh and Bosiwah (2015) focused on how polite requests are made in Ghana among some tribes and cultures. Even though both studies were conducted in Ghana, each study focused on certain group(s) of people. For example, Akpanglo-Nartey (2017) focused her work on Ga and English speakers whilst Totimeh and Bosiwah (2015) focused on the Akyems. These studies are relevant to the current study because they offer insights into different ways of expressing politeness thereby contributing to knowledge on politeness strategies.

Additionally, studies in Ghana also reveal works on politeness in social media or media (Sarfo-Adu and Osei, 2021; Yulandari, 2022; Afful, 2017). Sarfo-Adu and Osei (2021) have conducted a study into politeness in media talk shows in Ghana. Using Brown and Levinson's 1987 Politeness Theory, the results indicated that 43.35% panelists marked politeness by addressing the positive face of their interlocutor(s) as against 38.93% occurrences of negative face, with Face Threatening Acts (FTAs) on record recording 15.70%. Their findings suggest that Ghanaian media panel discussions are characterized by positive politeness. Again, Yulandari (2022) has equally worked on politeness strategies for men on social media. The study was anchored on Brown and Levinson's 1987 theory of politeness. The findings indicated that male conversational class/student group tends to use blunt politeness strategies and positive strategies

whereas in the Wa alumni/bachelor group, men tend to use positive politeness and negative politeness strategies. A careful look at the two studies indicates that positive politeness is commonly used among discussants on media talk shows and interactors on WhatsApp groups.

A study by Afful (2017) also examined the use of bald on-record politeness strategy by four hosts of adversarial panel discussions on radio. His work was hinged on Grice's (1975) Cooperative Principle and Brown and Levinson's (1987) Politeness Theory. Again, the Community of Practice (CofP) framework by (Wenger, 1998; Holmes & Meyerhoff, 1990; Eckert & Wenger, 2005), where the participants themselves define what is polite and impolite behaviour, against the norms they have for their specific discourse community, was adopted. His study sought to find out how face threatening acts (FTA) were performed by the hosts in their attempt to deal with departures from politeness and cooperative norms. Afful further investigated the outcomes of such face threatening interventions. The findings of his study established that the apparently impolite and face-threatening behaviour of the hosts is both common and effective in managing adversarial talk. In the study of Yulandari (2022), the findings indicate that male conversational class/student group tends to use blunt politeness strategies coupled with other strategies and this is synonymous with Afful's study that establishes that the relatively impolite and face-threatening behaviour of the hosts is both common and effective in managing adversarial talk. All the above-mentioned previous studies are relevant to the current study because they provide much understanding about works on politeness.

In Ghana, some studies on politeness have also focused on political discourses. (Agyekum, 2015; Hammond, 2021; Akuka et al., 2021). Agyekum (2015) for instance,

examines the semantics and pragmatics of political apology in the 4th Republic of Ghanaian contemporary politics from 2013 to 2015. His study concludes that the obligation on the part of the offender to apologise and for the offended to accept the apology and to forgive for socio-political harmony is driven by both the social pact and the Ghanaian communalistic context. Hammond (2021) has also looked at the (im)politeness strategies and tactics of self-presentation employed by John Dramani Mahama after the 2016 general election in Ghana using Brown and Levinson's (1987) politeness theory. Her findings indicate that John Dramani Mahama employed the four types of politeness and these include positive politeness, negative politeness, bald on-record, and off-record politeness in his concession speech, and that positive politeness strategy was the frequently used politeness strategy. Additionally, Akuka et al. (2021) have also carried a study into politeness in parliamentary discourse using Brown and Levinson's (1987) model. Using parliamentary Hansard as a source of data, the research concluded that the political actors in the Parliament of Ghana, such as Members of Parliament and Speaker used politeness strategies in various forms and frequencies as observed in the parliamentary Hansard. The study further reveals that the negative politeness strategy is the most frequently used politeness strategy with the Speaker being the highest user of the negative and the bald on-record politeness strategies. Again, the study found out that the off-record politeness strategy is the least used strategy. The Majority Members in Parliament use the highest frequency of the positive politeness strategies while the Minority Members of Parliament employ more negative politeness strategies.

Even though Hammond (2021) and Akuka et al. (2021) have different focus for their studies, the findings of each study seem to be the same. A critical look at the two studies reveals that John Dramani Mahama used all the four politeness strategies in

Hammond's study and similarly, the Members of Parliament and the Speaker of Parliament used all the forms of politeness strategies in the parliamentary Hansard. However, the findings of Hammond (2021) and Akuka et al. (2021) differ because in Hammond's study, positive politeness was the most frequently used politeness strategy used, but in that of Akuka et al. (2021), negative politeness occurred the most.

The studies by Afful (2017) and Agyekum (2015) have different focus. This is because whereas Afful (2017) was interested in examining how the four hosts of adversarial panel discussions on radio employ bald on-record strategy, Agyekum (2015) focused on the semantics and pragmatics in politics from 2013 to 2015. Again, both studies differ to the extent that Afful's work revealed that impolite and face-threatening behaviour of the hosts is common and effective in managing adversarial talk, but the study by Agyekum (2015) concludes that the offender is obliged to apologise and the offended is also obliged to accept the apology of the offender for social and political harmony because such is based on factors such as the social pact and the Ghanaian context.

A critical study of literature reveals that there are few studies on courtroom cross-examination in Ghanaian context (Edu-Buandoh and Ahiale, 2012; Ahiale, 2011; Logogye, 2016). However, those studies did not incorporate politeness into their work. For example, Edu-Buandoh and Ahiale (2012) explored the ideological implications of question in elicitation in courtroom cross-examination discourse in Ghana by counsels. Ahiale (2011) examines how the linguistic structures inherent in counsels' elicitation strategies and defendants/witnesses' response strategies aid in promoting unequal power relations in trial cross-examination. Logogye (2016) also did a study

into syntactic and pragmatic analysis of cross-examination in Ghanaian law courts using both Winneba and Agona Swedru High Courts as places of study.

Collectively, the aforementioned studies on politeness in the Ghanaian context expand the awareness of the kinds of strategies employed in the achievement of politeness among certain aspects of the Ghanaian culture. However, little or no scholarly attention has been paid to how cross-examiners and cross-examinees use politeness strategies during cross-examinations. This state of affairs deprives people of the knowledge and understanding of the kind of politeness strategies favoured by courtroom cross-examiners and cross-examinees during cross-examinations. It is against this background that this study seeks to research into the politeness strategies employed by cross-examiners and cross-examinees during cross-examinations at the Winneba District Court. This study further seeks to discover the rules or codes of court that guide the use of politeness strategies, and the speech act class and function of the identified politeness strategies.

2.2 Courtroom Discourse

Courtroom discourse presents the analysis on legal language used in the courtroom settings (Coulthard & Johnson, 2007; Olsson, 2004; Wang, 2012). Courtroom Discourse "conversation" differs in many ways from ordinary conversation due to the result of the institutional nature of its context. First of all, unlike most conversation, the format of courtroom conversation is generally the question-answer adjacency pair. Secondly, the type of speaker turn is fixed to the acting role - only the lawyer or the judge has the right to ask questions (Atkinson and Drew, 1979). Closed questions are generally used, and the witness is "under strong obligatory pressure to answer and to answer in certain ways only" (Penman, 1987a, p. 214). The ordinary processes of relationship and identity management which include "the freedom to negotiate the right

to speak, to qualify what is said, to demand respect and to distance or withdraw, if necessary, to save face" are prohibited, at least as far as witnesses are concerned (Penman, 1987b, p. 16). These characteristics result in discourse which is "highly formalized and a typical... an extreme in conversational types" (Penman, 1987a, p. 217 as cited in Sanderson, 1995, p.3). Yet another aspect of conversation in the courtroom is its "double frame" of listeners. For example, the main business of the courts, which is examination and cross-examination of witnesses, is attended to by a set of listeners beyond the immediate speaker and hearer in the presence of others present in the courtroom - the judge, possibly the jury, the courtroom staff, and so on. While legal conversation is designed to serve a functional purpose for these second-level listeners, they rarely play an active role in the conversation. Finally, the backbone of this highly controlled discourse structure lies in the institutional authority of the court which serves to bring about these conversations: for example, a subpoena compels a witness' attendance under threat of imprisonment, and a rigid power hierarchy prevails within the courtroom. The significance of this complex of power and control factors lies in its ultimate impact; as Penman has observed, "the talk-exchanges in court ... appear to be other than a genuinely cooperative effort. A contradiction in fact, appears to exist; viz., that courts need to coerce participants to be cooperative" (1987a, p. 214).

2.3 Theoretical Framework

Al-Hindawi and Alkhazaali (2016) justify that politeness theory is a set of language theories that associate linguistic acts or behaviour to human social behaviours. They explain further that politeness theories try to scientifically formulate and conceptualise common sense notion of politeness. This study will employ the Politeness Theory proposed by Brown & Levinson (1987) as the main framework. Also, the study will use the Speech Act Theory Classification by Searle (1976) as the supporting theory.

2.4 Brown and Levinson on Politeness

Regardless of several works on the study of politeness by different scholars such as Cooperative Principle (Grice, 1975); Politeness Model (Lakoff, 1975); Politeness Principle (Leech, 1983); Conversational Contract (1990); and Politeness Theory by Brown and Levinson (1978, 1987), the most popular theory to the study of politeness is Penelope Brown and Stephen C. Levinson's work. The politeness theory propounded by the two scholars is considered an essential and all-inclusive work on pragmatic politeness. Their work was first published in 1978 and they further advanced their work into another publication in 1987 where they added a preface that sought to give a summary of the first publication and in addition to give a justification for their argument raised in the previous edition.

The theory of politeness proposed by Brown and Levinson (1987) is widely recognized and remains relevant to contemporary research as the basis for further elaboration as indicated by (Harris 2001, p.452; Perez de Ayala 2001, p.144-145). Brown and Levinson (1978) assert that politeness is basic to the production of social order and a precondition of human cooperation. Therefore, it is expected that one uses the appropriate strategies of politeness by considering the condition and with whom one speaks in order to avoid misunderstanding. It is also (together with Leech's model) the most common model presentation in textbooks for students of pragmatics, e.g., Yule (1989), Thomas (1995), Mey (2000), and Cameron (2005).

The general frame for this model (Brown and Levinson 1987, p.4) "is the assumption about essentially rational and efficient nature of communication lying also at the heart of Grice's Co-operative Principle (CP)". In this conception, the CP is understood as the default principle governing verbal interaction, which is not deviated from without a

reason. Politeness, then, is interpreted as a principle motivating such deviations from the most efficient way of communication. In other words, it is the major underlying motivation for the most flouting maxims of CP. The word major does justice to the fact that there are, as Brown and Levinson (1987, p.95) admit, “motives for not following the maxims, such as to avoid responsibility”.

However, unlike CP, politeness does not have an irrevocable status as a principle. It cannot be interpreted as the background presumption with which interlocutors enter interaction. In this respect, Brown and Levinson disagree with Leech, who argues that both principles, i.e., CP (Cooperative Principle) and PP (Politeness Principle) are basically coordinates (Leech 1995, p.80). Brown and Levinson (1987, p.5) point out that “politeness must be expressed in a clear way, i.e., openly manifested”.

To substantiate this claim, then invoke Goffman’s notion of a ‘virtual offence’ (Brown and Levinson, 1987, p.33), which predicts that, “the non-communication of the polite attitude will be read not merely as the absence of that attitude, but as the inverse, the holding of an aggressive attitude.” To draw a contrastive parallel with CP, it means that one does not set out to look for a possible interpretation of an utterance as polite, contrary to what it communicates at face value. This contrasts with the way the mechanism of looking for an alternative interpretation works in the case of conversational implicatures, interpreted as cooperative contributions at a deeper level despite superficial flouting of the CP. Brown and Levinson’s example of ‘Shut your mouth’ demonstrates this clearly that there is hardly any possibility to read it as an expression of polite attitude.

To get straight to the core of Brown and Levinson’s theory, understanding their notion of face is essential.

2.5 The Concept of Politeness

Rahab'ah et al. (2019) emphasize that politeness as a pragmatic concept is a necessary part of both verbal and non-verbal human interactions. Yule (2017) also asserts that politeness relates to ideas like being tactful, modest and nice to other people. This implies that communicators are to employ tact and modesty in order to be perceived as being polite. Leech (2014) defines politeness as communicative altruism. He argues that to be polite is to speak or behave in a way that appears to give value or respect to the other person(s) whom you are engaged with a conversation. Additionally, Thomas (1995) iterates that politeness refers to the respect people show to other people by virtue of their higher status, greater age, etc. This means that politeness is an important factor in developing relationships with people, and any misuse of these strategies can hinder the effective communication, leading to individual's dissatisfaction and indifference (Pishghadam, 2012).

Brown (2015) affirms that politeness is basically about taking into consideration the feelings of others as to how to treat them during interaction and also how to act appropriately to show care about their social status and relationship. Brown and Levinson (1978) are of the view that politeness has to do with an expression of the intention of the speaker to mitigate threats of the face carried out by face threatening acts (FTAs) toward another person during interaction. According to Agbara (2018), in every human interaction, interlocutors endeavor to maintain appropriate decorum and politeness in order not to offend the other person's self-esteem or image. Agbara explains further that respect for the 'face-want' of participants in any interaction is a necessary strategy for achieving efficient communication. What stands out clearly from the definitions of politeness is the notion that politeness is about the face-want of the

other person. This implies that people who are involved in any discourse must care for the face need(s) of the other person by letting the other person feel respected.

2.6 The Role of Politeness in Communication

Politeness is a significant factor in everyday communication. The role of politeness in everyday interactions among interactants is very important so much so that every society has a way of socializing its members into behaviours that conform to the norms of such a society.

Bremner (2012), states that politeness is a necessary pragmatic behaviour which ensures that communications between interlocutors are orderly so as to achieve the desired goal. Ambuyo (2018) posits that politeness norms are designed to safeguard communication from breaking down and to avoid psychological and physical harm to interlocutors. According to Brown (2015), politeness is crucial for maintaining social relationships. She asserts that the politeness in communication is core to the social life and interaction, perhaps a general precondition for human cooperation. Politeness fosters good interpersonal relationship among speakers thereby ensuring harmony in our everyday social interactions. Omar et al. (2018) said that politeness employs a set of conventional strategies in order to maintain social relationships and avoid interpersonal conflict. Even though politeness is not a compulsory concept, it is a valuable ingredient that ought to be well sought after by persons who wish to be considered as good communicators.

More so, Daulay et al. (2022) have established that being polite allows individuals to show basic human politeness to others, even to strangers. They continue to argue that politeness is important because it shows the listener or speaker that he or she is valued and respected.

It is a must get skill for persons whose everyday job involves communicating. Politeness is usually seen as a fundamental element in building good relationships and social interaction. It is a must get skill for persons whose everyday job involves communicating. According to Yasmineen et al. (2014), politeness basically works to reduce the force of friction, roughness of behaviour, conflict and the rudeness between speaker and hearer in a personal communication.

2.7 Brown and Levinson's Concept of Face

According to Miller-Otter and Alvarez (2021, p.172), face is a “performance that people enact to convey an image of self they wish others to accept”. Brown and Levinson give prominence to the concept of face in their politeness theory. There have been many studies into the concept of face by several researchers and most of them borrow the term face from Erving Goffman's work in 1967. It is believed that Goffman derived the concept of face from the Chinese usage (Hu, 1944). According to Goffman (1967), face is the “positive social value a person effectively claims for himself by the line others assume he has taken during a particular contact”. He is also with the view that individuals are emotionally attached to the face they have constructed for themselves in social contexts and feel good when the face is protected or maintained. However, the individual tends to go through emotional pain or distress when he or she loses face either through embarrassment, criticism, or disagreements. In his work, Goffman (1967) spells it out clearly that every person's face can be looked at from three perspectives: a person to be seen as consistent, he or she has worth and he or she is worthy of respect.

He adds that social interaction by people requires two rules. These rules include the fact that an individual has to be considerate and respectful since both exist to ensure that the

face of an individual is maintained. As a way of further advancing the notion of face and face-work in Goffman's interactional perspective, Brown and Levinson (1987) bring out an analysis of the strategies that interlocutors employ in order to maintain face in their interactions. The two scholars believe that "all competent adult members of the society have (and know each other to have) face- "the public self-image that every member wants to claim for himself" (1987, p.61). They also add that face is something that is "emotionally invested and that can be lost, maintained, or enhanced and must be constantly attended to in interaction" (1987, p.61). This means that usually, everyone's face is dependent on everyone else's face being maintained, and due to the fact that it is anticipated that people tend to defend their faces if threatened, in an attempt to defend once own face, one tends to threaten other people's faces. It is therefore imperative that every participant in a conversation makes every effort to maintain each other's face (Brown and Levinson, 1987, p.61).

Brown and Levinson further admit that *face* has two components and these are *negative face* and *positive face*. These two components have a kind of relationship of the same entity, and they make reference to an individual's basic desires or wants in an interaction which are negative face and positive face.

Negative face is defined as "the want of every 'competent adult member' that his actions be unimpeded by others", (Brown and Levinson, 1987, p.61). In other words, it is concerned with the basic human desire to be independent and free from imposition. Negative face can further be explained as the basic claim to territories, personal preserves, right to non-destruction, that is, to freedom of action and freedom from imposition.

Positive face is “the want of every member that his wants be desirable to at least some others”, (Brown and Levinson, 1987, p.61). Again, positive face can be understood as the positive consistent self-image or personality. Brown and Levinson assert that there is universality in the two face wants. This assertion is also in line with Arndt and Janney (1985) who point out that “the desire to maintain face and the fear of losing it are interpersonal universals transcending all socio-cultural, ethnic, sexual, educational, economic, geographical and historical boundaries”. This aspect of face is therefore the space for, so to speak, filling up the autonomous being with personal content, i.e., self-image that the person wants others to respect and appreciate.

Even though Brown and Levinson borrowed the concept of face from Goffman (1967), they acknowledge that it is also related to the notion implied by the idiomatic expression “to lose face”. This connection suggests that interlocutors are aware of the risk to one’s face involved in interaction and therefore of their interdependence as far as face maintenance is concerned. Brown and Levinson argue that, in general, it is “to mutual interest of two MPs to maintain each other’s face”, unless one of the participants can secure respect for his/her face without complying with this reciprocity, e.g., by coercion, trickery, etc. This imbalance concerning what might be called face demands and face rights brings up the question of social factors, such as power and distance, playing a crucial role in shaping the interaction process. A closer look will be given to these factors later in this chapter.

It is significant that Brown and Levinson treat both aspects of face as basic wants. The attention paid to them in communication is interpreted as having rational foundation in terms of practical means-end reasoning mentioned above in terms of face wants. This means that in order to have one’s wants respected and at least partially satisfied by

others, one has to pay the same respect and attention. However, it is pointed out by Brown and Levinson that there is an obvious limitation regarding the desire for acceptance and appreciation. Apart from the most general symbolic satisfaction of wants, people usually have their individual positive face wants targeted at particular people or groups of people.

The notion of face as an abstract notion that interlocutors orient themselves to, is claimed by Brown and Levinson to be a universal phenomenon underlying communication in all languages. On the other hand, Brown and Levinson stress that in particular societies, it is subject to cultural specification arising from specific understanding of the role of an individual in society, which may, among other things, include different scope for personal territory or limitation on public display, as well as culture-specific preconditions of extra face concerns.

2.8 Politeness Strategies and Face Threatening Acts (FTA's)

The strict recognition or prominence of authority in the courtroom creates an inherent threat to what Brown and Levinson (1987) refer to as "face." They define face as "the public self-image that every member wants to claim for himself" (p. 61), and they break it down into negative face - the basic claim "to freedom of action and freedom from imposition" - and positive face - "the want of every member that his wants be desirable to at least some others" (pp. 61-62). Acts which by their nature contravene face wants are labelled "face-threatening acts" or FTAs (p. 65). Within the courtroom context, face can be threatened, especially in cross-examination should a lawyer challenge or contradict a witness' testimony. Alternatively, face can be threatened by the very act of compelling a witness' attendance at court or, equally, in compelling his or her testimony. With respect to the fact that the evidence-gathering process is largely

question and answer, the failure to appear in court or to answer questions can subject a party to significant penalties, and that, ultimately, the judge must reach decisions which favour one side or the other. The courtroom can therefore rightfully be viewed as a site of substantial threat to both negative and positive face. Brown and Levinson are with the view that in a conversation, it is good for interactants to maintain each other's face. If the communicative act entails an act of imposition on the face of any of the interactants, then there is an intrinsically Face Threatening Act (FTA). A politeness strategy is a redressive action taken to counter-balance the destructive effects of face threatening activities. Acts that seem to hinder the independence of movement and free will of the addressee threaten his or her negative face. Examples of such acts are orders, requests, advice, threats, warnings, offers and many others. Acts that seem to indicate a condemnation of the wants to the addressee threaten the addressee's positive face and such acts include criticism, disagreements, expression of disapproval and mentioning of taboo topics.

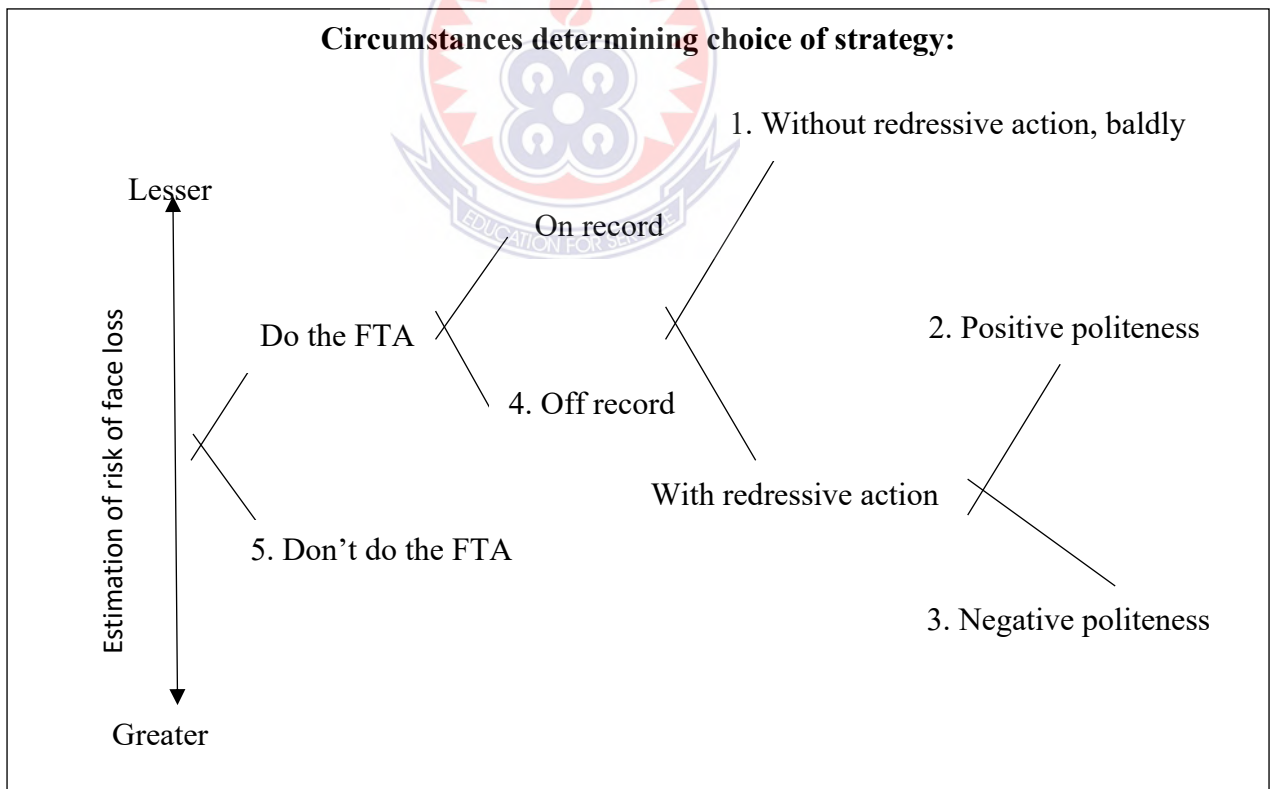
According to Brown and Levinson, individuals are usually driven to avoid conveying FTAs and are motivated to minimize the face-threat of the acts they employ in an interaction. This is done by giving priority to three wants which are: the want to communicate the contents of FTA, the want to be efficient, and the want to maintain the face of the hearer. The three wants above together bring about five alternatives that interlocutors can select from (Brown and Levinson, 1987, p.60). These alternatives include positive, negative, bald-on record, off-record and 'don't do the FTA'. Brown and Levinson claim that three universal variables are determinants of the degree of acts that are face threatening:

- a. D: the social "distance" between the participants;
- b. P: the relative "power" between participants;

- c. R: the absolute “ranking” of imposition in the particular culture.

Out of the five strategies that Brown and Levinson (1987) put forward, politeness is not relevant at two ends, especially the fifth strategy- ‘don’t do the FTA’. This strategy involves cases where there is no need to say anything because there is a high risk of offending the face of the one being addressed even when some form of redressive action is employed.

Table 1: Politeness Strategies



Adopted from Brown and Levinson (1987, p.69)

2.8.1 Bald on-Record Politeness

Bald on-record, which is the first politeness strategy, is employed when priority is given to communicating a face threatening act than preserving the hearer's face. Here, there is no need for redressive action because this strategy is utilized by interlocutors who may have intimate relationship or may have their demands for efficiency overriding face concerns. Brown and Levinson recommend that bald on-record strategy can be looked at in conformity with Grice's Maxims (Grice, 1975). However, there are diverse ways of employing bald on-record in different circumstances because the speaker can have several motives for his desire to do FTA with maximum efficiency. For instance, in a situation when it is understood among the interactants in the communication situation that urgency is essential, the protection of an individual's face is not considered relevant, example, *Wake up!* and *There is an earthquake!* If the acts that threaten one's face is in the interest of the hearer, then face protection may not be relevant here too, example, "Have my sympathy". In addition, the use of bald on-record strategies occur when the speaker wants to alleviate the anxieties of the hearer about impinging on speaker's face and this can be found in situations such as welcoming, "Come in" and offers such as "Take it". To Brown and Levinson (1987), these situations illustrate the manner in which the respect for face has some level of mutual orientation so that each interlocutor makes an effort concerning what the other interlocutor is assuming.

2.8.2 Positive Politeness

A second way of committing an FTA is to do it on record with positive face redress. Like bald-on-record, you do say the FTA (e.g. if you are making a request, you do ask for what you want or if you are giving criticism, you say what is wrong). However, the

way you do the FTA also includes various appeals to positive face wants. Positive face redress uses the language of solidarity to stress the speaker's similarity to and approval of the hearer. This may include claiming common ground. Positive politeness is "redress directed to the addressee's positive face, his perennial desire that his wants (or the actions, acquisitions, value resulting from them) should be thought of as desirable" (Brown and Levinson, 1987, p.101). Fifteen strategies interactants in a communication situation employ to send their approval of the wants of their hearers and to make it clear that their wants are similar, have been identified by Brown and Levinson. These fifteen strategies fall into three general types:

- a. The speaker can claim common ground with the hearer
- b. The speaker can claim the speaker and hearer as co-operators
- c. The speaker can fulfill the hearer's wants for something

The above three general positive redress is conveyed through the fifteen different politeness strategies which are listed below.

1. Notice, attend to the hearer (his interests, wants, needs, goals)
2. Exaggerate (interests, approval, sympathy with H)
3. Intensify interest to hearer
4. Use in-group identity markers
5. Seek agreement
6. Avoid disagreement
7. Presuppose, raise, or assert common ground
8. Joke
9. Assert or presuppose speaker's knowledge of and concern of hearer's wants
10. Offers, promise
11. Be optimistic

12. Include both speaker and hearer in the activity
13. Give or ask for reasons
14. Assume or assert reciprocity
15. Give gifts to H (goods, sympathy, understanding, cooperation)

Positive politeness, unlike negative politeness is not necessarily redressive of a particular FTA. Here, the sphere of address is either extended to an appreciation of the wants of the hearer generally or there is an expression of some sameness of wants between speaker and hearer.

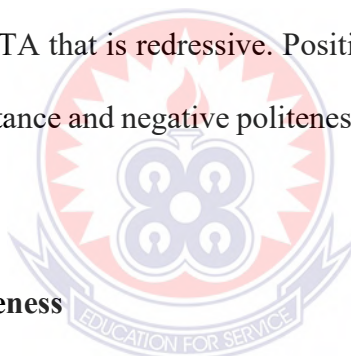
2.8.3 Negative Politeness

Negative politeness is “a redressive action addressed to the addressee’s negative face: his wants to have his freedom of action unhindered and his attention unimpeded” (Brown and Levinson 1987, p.129). Negative politeness is to some extent similar to what people refer to as “being polite” in everyday or daily interaction. Speech acts such as offering an apology “I do not like it when I have to come to you every day for this but...,” being indirect or softening request “I wonder if you could”, are examples of ways of creating a distance between the speaker and the hearer. Brown and Levinson have developed ten different negative politeness strategies which are:

1. Be conventionally indirect
2. Question, use hedges
3. Be pessimistic
4. Minimize the imposition
5. Give deference
6. Apologize
7. Impersonalize S and H: avoid the pronouns I and you

8. State the FTA as a general rule
9. Nominalize
10. Go on record as incurring a debt, or as not indebting hearer

A look at the two strategies makes it clear that whereas negative politeness is specific and focus, positive politeness is free ranging. Negative politeness plays the role of minimizing or reducing a particular FTA, and it is the most conventionalized set of linguistic strategies for redress in doing an FTA. While linguistic realizations of negative politeness are forms that are useful for social distancing, positive politeness is for reducing social distance. Negative politeness takes precedence over all other politeness strategies in western cultures. It is an elaborate and conceptualized set of linguistic strategies for FTA that is redressive. Positive politeness strategies are forms for minimizing social distance and negative politeness are forms that are used for social distancing.

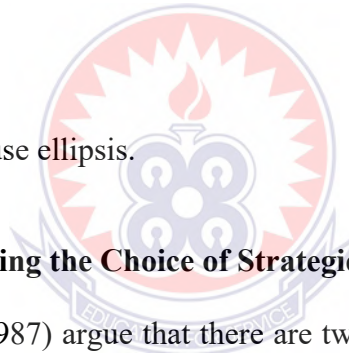


2.8.4 Off-record Politeness

Brown and Levinson (1987, p.211) posit that, “A communicative act is done off record if it is done in such a way that it is not possible to attribute only one clear communicative intention to the act”. In this case, because the off-record strategy is subjected to different interpretations, a speaker can do an FTA, and deny responsibility for doing it. It is up to the hearer to decide how to interpret it. In off-record strategy, the speaker avoids direct face threatening acts but rather uses indirect strategies of either inviting conversational implicatures or being deliberately ambiguous or vague. Fifteen off-record strategies are proposed by Brown and Levinson (1987). These are:

- 1) Give hints/clues
- 2) Give association clues

- 3) Presuppose
- 4) Understate
- 5) Overstate
- 6) Use tautologies
- 7) Use contradictions
- 8) Be Ironic
- 9) Use metaphors
- 10) Use rhetorical questions
- 11) Be ambiguous
- 12) Be vague
- 13) Over generalize
- 14) Displace H and
- 15) Be incomplete, use ellipsis.



2.9 Factors Influencing the Choice of Strategies

Brown and Levinson (1987) argue that there are two major factors that influence the choice of any of the five possible politeness strategies they outline; intrinsic payoffs or advantages and relevant circumstances.

2.9.1 Intrinsic Payoffs

For intrinsic payoffs, the authors provide a number of payoffs, generated on a priori grounds, under each of the politeness strategies.

By choosing an on-record strategy, it is argued that:

The speaker may be able to gain any of the following benefits: he may use public pressure to pressure the addressee or to support himself; he may gain credibility for being honest by showing that he trusts the addressee; he may gain credibility for being out

spoken, avoiding the risk of being perceived as a manipulator; he may avoid the risk of being misunderstood; and he may have the chance to make amends in person for any harm the FTA may have caused (Brown and Levinson, 1987). The theorists also posit that a speaker who decides to go off-record has the following intrinsic payoffs or advantages:

A speaker can gain by being tactful and noncoercive, by reducing the chance that his actions would be up in others' "gossip biographies," and by abdicating responsibility for any potentially negative interpretation. Additionally, he can test H's feelings for him by providing the addressee with a covert opportunity to appear to care for S. In the latter scenario, H has the option to pick up on and respond to the original speaker's possible threatening interpretation of the act by giving him a "gift" if he so chooses. Therefore, if I say, "It's hot in here," and you respond, "Oh, I'll open the window then" "you may be praised for being kind and helpful and I refrain from attempting to indicate to you" (Brown and Levinson, 1987).

By choosing a positive politeness strategy, Brown and Levinson (1987) argue that the speaker gets the following payoffs:

By reassuring the addressee that S thinks himself to be "of the same kind," that he likes him, and that he wants what he wants, the speaker might lessen the face-threatening components of an act. Another benefit is that S may be able to avoid or reduce the debt implications of FTAs such as requests and offers by making (indirect) references to the reciprocity and ongoing relationship between himself and the addressee (such as the reference to a pseudo-prior agreement with then in "How about a cookie, then") or by including the addressee and himself equally as participants in or

as beneficiaries of the request or offer (for example, with an inclusive ‘we’, as in ‘Let’s get on with dinner’ from the husband glued to the TV).

For going on record with negative politeness, it is justified that a speaker benefits in the following ways:

He can maintain social distance and avoid the threat (or the potential face loss) of advancing familiarity toward the addressee. He can give a real 'out' to the addressee (for example, with a request or an offer, by making it clear that he doesn't really expect H to say 'Yes' unless he wants to, thereby minimizing the mutual face-threatening act (Brown and Levinson, 1987).

Finally, the benefit of selecting “Don’t do the FTA” is essential that S avoids offending H at all with this specific FTA. In this instance, S also falls short of getting the communication he wants. Because of this, discussions about politeness frequently pay little regard to the “don’t do the FTA” argument.

2.9.2 Relevant Circumstances

In relation to relevant circumstances, Brown and Levinson (1987, p.74) identify three factors that influence the choice of a particular politeness strategy during interactions.

These are:

- (i) 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 impositions in the particular culture.

The theories explain social distance as the distance between people as in relationship, social class and several social parameters. The strategy that may be used among people with close relationship may be different from the strategy that may be employed by people with distant relationship. Also, the strategy that is used by people who belong to same social group will be different from people who belong to different social group.

The power relation between the speaker and hearer determines the choice of a strategy. Power is control, thus, a superior has more relative power than a subordinate in a particular context. A judge in a courtroom has more power than any other courtroom participants. This power relation can determine the choice of a particular strategy. The absolute ranking is related to the degree of the imposition of a speech act. Some speech acts are weightier and face threatening than others. For example, making a request like, “can I use your car?” is ranked higher and weightier than, “can I use your pen?”

2.10 Criticism of Brown and Levinson’s (1987) Theory

Brown and Levinson’s (1987) politeness theory is widely criticized by modern politeness researchers. Al-Duleimi et al. (2016) questioned the universality of Brown and Levinson’s politeness model. They claim that politeness is not a natural phenomenon and can vary from culture to culture. Thus, what is perceived as polite in one culture might not be seen as polite in another culture to culture. Some critics also argue that Brown and Levinson focused on only western societies, thus their theory appears not to lend on non-western cultures (Matsumoto, 1989; Mao, 1994 & Ide, 1989). Chen (2001) also argues that Brown and Levinson (1987) might not consider the necessity of saving one’s own face since the theory seems to focus on how to save the face of the addressee. Watts (2003) also criticized Brown and Levinson for their static view of politeness phenomena, arguing that politeness is an emergent property from the interactants’ interpretations and evaluations of particular behaviour.

2.11 Relevance of Brown and Levinson’s Theory to the Study

Despite the wide criticism, Mu (2015) argues that the politeness theory proposed by Brown and Levinson (1987) has been the most influential pragmatic theory of politeness up to date. Alabdali (2019) also asserts that the politeness theory proposed

by Brown and Levinson (1987) is one of the most comprehensive and widely tested theories in the field of pragmatic politeness. Alabdali further explains that the theory covers many areas and proves to be highly applicable in most cultures. According to Ardi et al. (2021), a courtroom is a solemn place which requires parties to observe courtroom decorum. As a highly confrontational discourse among courtroom participants, the courtroom is an ideal place to assess the politeness strategies outlined in Brown and Levinson's theory to determine if they resonate with the fundamental assumptions of the theory. Again, the setup of the courtroom provides for courtroom deliberations to be carried out on the basis of two or more opposing parties or participants with a sitting judge. Consequently, the two or more opposing parties or participants give way for the manifestation of legal battle in the courtroom. The situation where courtroom participants are two or more opposing parties and legal representatives (i.e., Plaintiffs (complainants) and Defendants (accused persons) and their respective lawyers and prosecutors), it reflects in the discourse of using positive strategies for the purpose of expressing solidarity and appreciation for group members on one hand and the use of negative politeness strategies in order to minimize face threatening acts of participants on the other side. Thus, Brown and Levinson's (1987) theory of politeness appear to be highly applicable to the study of politeness in courtroom discourse in Ghana.

2.12 Cross-examination

Generally, a cross-examination can be understood as the act of the opposing party questioning the witness during a trial. Cross-examination consists in interrogating the opposing party's witness who has already testified (i.e., direct examination). It may be followed by a re-direct examination. The scope of cross-examination is checking or discrediting the witness's testimony, knowledge, or credibility. It is the formal

questioning of a witness called by the other party in trial to challenge the testimony the witness has already given. Cross-examination questions are usually limited to questioning only on matters raised during direct examination. However, an attorney can raise objections when their opposing counsel goes outside of these bounds. It is in cross-examination that the theory and theme lines become most visible to the jurors. The thrust of the cross-examination is to support the theory of the case. But in cross-examination, the cross-examiners also encounter the best opportunities to ingrain theme lines. It is in cross-examination that the lawyer can cause opposing witnesses to affirm the cross-examiner's theme lines. The Ghanaian law system relies on witnesses, just like other law systems in the western world. The purpose of any aspect of a trial is to persuade. Persuasion of the trier of the facts is the only ultimate goal of cross-examination. If cross-examination is not attaining that goal, it is a waste (Coluccio, 2009). Too often lawyers set a goal of destroying the witness and end up with an ineffectual cross-examination, or a cross-examination that is disastrous. Our culture believes that the truth is best found if trial testimony is subject to a searching inquiry by the opposing counsel. Cross-examination techniques exist to ferret out facts that may have been omitted, confused, or overstated (Coluccio, 2009). The necessity of testing by cross-examining the "truth" of direct examination is an essential portion of the trial. It is beyond any doubt the greatest legal engine ever invented for the discovery of truth.

According to Logogye (2016, p. 24), "the fundamental importance of cross-examination was recognized by the Founding Fathers of the United States of America, when they incorporated it into the confrontation clause of the Sixth Amendment of the United States Constitution." In cross examination, there are facts to be introduced, points to be made, theories to be supported, and opponent theories to be undermined. Cross-examination is a science. It has firmly established rules, guidelines, identifiable

techniques, and definable methods, all acting to increase the cross-examiner's ability to prevail (Logogye, 2016). In direct examination, the trial lawyer is working with a witness rehearsed by the lawyer and who ordinarily agrees with the lawyer's goals. The cross-examiner controls all aspects of questions asked. The cross-examiner controls the number of questions asked and the speed with which the questions are put to the witness (Logogye, 2016). The cross-examiner may compel the witness to move about the courtroom by referring to demonstrative aids. The cross-examiner may compel the witness to remain seated. The prime aim of a good cross-examination is to force the witness to accept propositions or make admissions which assist the cross-examiner's case. The cross-examination achieves this aim through leading questions which, one by one, compel the witness or the cross-examinee towards accepting the facts which the cross-examiner needs to build his argument. The cross-examiner avoids open questions which might allow the witness or cross-examinee an opportunity to place his or her answers in a more favourable context.

2.13 Rules or Codes of Conduct in Court on Politeness

The court forbids offensive courtroom strategies which are intended to insult or annoy any party. In Ghana, Constitutional Instrument 59 which establishes the District Court Rules, 2009, Order 25, rule 6 states that "the magistrate may disallow a question asked in cross-examination of a party or witness which appears to the magistrate to be vexatious and not relevant to any matter which it is proper to enquire into in the cause or matter." From the cited law, the term "vexatious" in context means that any question causing or tending to cause annoyance, frustration, or worry. The law therefore expects whoever is asking questions to be decorous to the one listening during cross-examination.

Again, Act 29 of Criminal and other Offences Act, 1960 (Act 29) section 224, talks about insulting court. It states, “Whoever in the presence of any Court is guilty of contempt of Court by any insulting, opprobrious, or menacing acts or words, is guilty of a misdemeanor.” Section 223 of the same Act also talks about disturbance of court. Additionally, rule 3 (3) of the Code of Conduct for Judges and Magistrates stress that “A judge should be patient and courteous to litigants, jurors, witnesses, lawyers, and others with whom the judge deals in an official capacity, and require similar conduct or court personnel and others”.

Furthermore, the Ghana Bar Association Constitution, Code of Ethics and Regulations rule 48 (b) and (c) states that “A lawyer commits misconduct if in the trial of a cause, he alludes to the personal shortcomings of another counsel; or he addresses offensive remarks to any person in court”. This means that during court proceedings, lawyers are not allowed to make reference to the weakness of any lawyer, or he or she is prohibited by law to use offensive words in court on other courtroom participants. With respect to the cited laws, it is obvious that the court does not take it lightly with anybody who insults or speaks derogatory words about it. Observation of politeness in the courtroom is very paramount and so it is very important for cross-examiners and cross-examinees or witnesses to be familiar with the various politeness strategies in order to ensure that speakers avoid threatening the face of hearers.

2.14 Speech Acts Theory

Speech act is a pragmatic study. Speech acts or communicative acts appear in a communicative event taking the forms of utterances (Yule, 1996). Speech act is the basic unit of language used to express meaning, an utterance that expresses an intention. Searle (1969) defines a speech act as any utterance that serves a function in

communication. When one speaks, one performs an act. For example, speech can be used to make statements, ask questions, apologize, describe, or persuade, among many other uses. In a speech act, words are used to do something, not just to say something. Yule (1985) asserts that the use of the term speech act covers “actions” such as “requesting”, “commanding”, “questioning”, and “informing”. Each speech act usually denotes a certain communicative function. Eventually, this communicative function entails a certain meaning or communication purpose of the speaker. A pragmatic study is relevant to be implemented in understanding what the speaker actually means by his or her utterances while performing his or her speech (Yule, 1996, p.4).

Speech act theory was introduced by Austin (1962) and further developed by Searle (1966, 1976). Speech act theory introduced the groundbreaking idea that utterances can have different levels of meaning at which actions are accomplished. Traditional speech act theory posits three types of action: linguistic encoding (“locutionary” act), intended significance (“illocutionary” act; and effect on the addressee (“perlocutionary” act). According to Grundy (2008), the utterances produced in the speech acts usually consists of three related acts.

Locutionary Act

It is the basic act of utterance of or producing a meaningful linguistic expression. A locutionary act is the physical existence of a speech: the words, phrases and clauses uttered by the speaker. It is by this physical existence of a speech that the speaker is able to convey literal meaning by means of syntax, morphology and phonology.

Illocutionary Act

Yule (1996) says the term “illocutionary acts” is often closely associated with the term “speech act”. Physical existence of a speech itself is definitely not the goal of the very speech. The purpose of every speech is to deliver the intention of the speaker. The act

of expressing the speaker's intention is illocutionary act. It is performed via the communicative force of an utterance. The utterance "I've just made some coffee", for instance, might mean a statement, an offer, an explanation, or for some other communicative purposes.

Perlocutionary Act

The third is the perlocutionary act. A perlocutionary act is the act triggered by or resulting from the speech; it is the consequence, effectiveness or the change brought about by the utterance. The utterance is created with a function of intending it to have an effect. Depending on the circumstances, the same utterances ("I've just made some coffee") is uttered by the speaker on the assumption that the hearer will recognize the effect he or she intended, for example, to account for a wonderful smell, or to get the hearer to drink some coffee (Yule, 1996, p.48-49).

To sum up, locutionary act means saying something; illocutionary act means, when saying something, the speaker conveys his intention; perlocutionary act means the effectiveness triggered by saying something.

2.15 Speech Acts Classification

Scholars have different ways of classifying speech acts. For instance, Austin (1962) classified speech acts into five, namely verdictives, exercitives, commissives, behabitives, and expositives. Yule (1996) also broadly classifies speech acts into direct and indirect speech acts. However, this study will focus on Searle's 1976 illocutionary acts. Searle (1976) proposed that all speech acts fall into five main types: directives, commissives, expressives, representatives, and declarations.

2.15.1 Directives

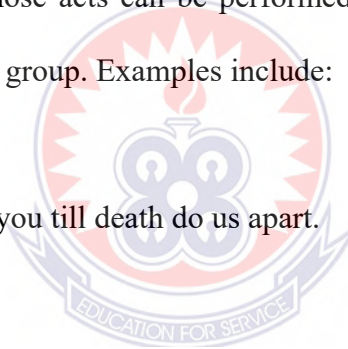
Directives are those kinds of speech acts that the speakers use to get the addressee or someone else to do something. They express what the speaker wants. They are commands, orders, requests, and suggestions. Examples include;

- a. Sit down!
- b. Can you pass the salt?

2.15.2 Commissives

They are those kinds of speech acts that the speakers use to commit themselves to some future action. They express what the speaker intends. They are promises, threats, refusals, and pledges. Those acts can be performed by the speaker alone, or by the speaker as a member of a group. Examples include:

- a. I will be back.
- b. I promise to love you till death do us apart.



2.15.3 Expressives

Those kinds of speech acts that state what the speaker feels. They express psychological states and can be statements of pleasure, pain, likes, dislikes, joy, or sorrow. Such acts can be caused by something the speaker does or the hearer does.

Examples include;

- a. I'm sorry to hear that.
- b. Huge congratulations to you!

2.15.4. Representatives

They are those speech acts that state what the speaker believes to be the case or not. The statements are about the facts, assertions, conclusions and descriptions. Examples include;

- a. The earth is flat.
- b. It was a cold gloomy day.

2.15.5. Declaratives

Declaratives are those kinds of speech acts that change the world via their utterances. The speaker has to have a special institutional role, in a specific context, in order to perform a declaration appropriately. Examples include;

- a. Judge: By Court, the accused person is found guilty.
- b. Referee: You are out!

2.16 Relevant Literature on Speech Acts and Politeness

Aditiya et al. (2021) have conducted a study to find the types of speech acts and politeness strategies that are used by pre-service teachers when teaching on-line classes. The study found that the pre-service teachers used five types of speech acts and they include; representative, directive, commissive, expressive and directive. It was discovered that more directive speech acts were used in teaching online classes. It was also found that pre-service teachers used four types of politeness strategies and these include bald on-record, positive politeness, negative politeness, and off-record politeness. This study is relevant to the current study because the current study seeks to investigate the types of politeness strategies and the speech acts of the identified politeness strategies used just as the previous study also studied the types of politeness and speech acts used.

Sudarmawan, et al. (2022) have also done a study to find the types of politeness strategy and speech acts used by English lecturer of Dwijendra University during online class interactions. Brown and Levinson's theory of politeness and Searle's theory of speech acts guided the study. The study found that the English lecturer used four types of politeness strategies during online learning. These politeness strategies include bald on-record, positive politeness, negative politeness, and off-record politeness. Besides, five types of speech acts were found to be used by the English lecturer during his online learning. These types of speech acts include; representative, directive, commissive, expressive, and directive. It was further discovered that the English lecturer used more directive speech acts during online learning. This study is also relevant to the current study because the current study seeks to investigate the types of politeness strategies and the speech acts of the identified politeness strategies used just as the previous study also studied the types of politeness and speech acts used.

Zulianti and Nurchurifiani (2021) have also worked on speech acts and politeness to know the kinds and classification of speech acts and the politeness implication in teaching and learning activities. The researchers used Politeness Theory by Brown and Levinson and Speech Act Theory by Searle. The result of the study showed that speech acts used by English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners were direct and indirect speech acts. The speech acts were further classified into assertive, commissive, directive, representative, and expressive. The politeness strategy used in EFL learning includes positive and negative politeness strategies. This study is also pertinent to the current research because it aims to examine the politeness strategies and speech acts, similar to how the previous study also focused on analyzing these aspects.

2.17 Chapter Summary

This chapter reviewed relevant literature on politeness strategies both globally and in Ghana, specifically to establish lacuna in literature. From the literature reviewed, it is evident that although politeness strategies are explored widely in various fields, there is a missing focus on the application of politeness strategies in the courtroom discourse in Ghana in the scholarly literature. Additionally, the chapter explored the theories and concepts that underpin the current study.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This chapter explains the methodology used to conduct the study. It covers the research approach, research design, sampling technique and sample size, data collection method and procedure, the data analysis method, ethical consideration, and finally, chapter summary.

3.1 Research Approach

According to Creswell (2014), research approach comprises strategies and methods for research that extend the decisions from general assumptions to thorough methods of data gathering and reasoning. This suggests that research approach involves the collection of procedures and plans that decide the overall process of research. The research approach decides the methods for data collection, analysis, and interpretation. The concept of research approach is followed in the entire research process. According

to Creswell (2019), there are three research approaches in general and these include quantitative, qualitative and mixed methods research approach.

Creswell (2019) explains that quantitative research approach is one in which the inquirer basically uses postpositivist claims for developing knowledge (that is, cause and effective thinking, reduction to specific variables and hypothesis and questions, use of measurement and observation, and test theories), employs strategies of inquiry such as experiments and surveys, and collects data on predetermined instruments that yield statistical data. Creswell (ibid) emphasize that the circumstance under which the quantitative approach may be preferred is if the problem in question is identifying factors that influence an outcome. Again, quantitative research is also best approach to use to test a theory or explanation.

Alternatively, Creswell (2019) asserts that qualitative approach is one in which the investigator usually makes knowledge claims based primarily on constructivist perspectives, (that is, the multiple meanings of individual experiences, meanings and socially constructed, with an intent of developing a theory or pattern) or advocacy/participatory perspectives (that is, political, issue oriented, collaborative, or change oriented) or both. It also uses strategies of inquiry such as narratives, phenomenologies, ethnographies, grounded theory studies, or case studies. The researcher collects open-ended, emerging data with the primary intent of developing themselves from the data. The researcher may use the qualitative approach if a concept or phenomenon under study needs to be understood because little research has been done on it (Creswell, 2019). The qualitative approach is exploratory and is useful when the researcher does not know the important variable to examine. Creswell (2019) as cited in (Morse, 1991) asserts that “this type of approach may be needed because the

topic is new, the topic has never been addressed with a certain sample or group of people, existing theories do not apply with the particular sample or group under study”.

Mixed methods on the other hand, Creswell (2019) asserts that it is the approach in which the researcher tends to base knowledge claims on pragmatic grounds (example, consequence-oriented, problem-centred, and pluralistic). It employs strategies of inquiry that involve data either simultaneously or sequentially to best understand research problems. The data collection also involves gathering both numeric information (that is, on instruments) as well as text information (example, on interviews) so that the final database represents both qualitative and quantitative information, Creswell (2019). The circumstance which requires the use of the mixed methods approach is when the researcher wants to capture the best of both quantitative and qualitative approach. For example, when a researcher desires to generalize the findings to a population and develop a detailed view of the meaning of a phenomenon or concept for individuals, it is imperative that the he or she uses the mixed methods approach. The research approach chosen for this current study is qualitative approach. The reason for choosing this approach is that the current study seeks to identify the expression of politeness strategies by cross-examiners and cross-examinees, and this is highly in line with the fact that qualitative research is concerned with exploring human phenomenon or elements of a given topic (Creswell, 2014).

The researcher adopts a qualitative research approach for this study. According to Creswell (2019), qualitative research is an approach for exploring and understanding the meaning individuals or groups ascribe to a social or human phenomenon. Qualitative research process involves emerging questions and procedures, collecting data naturally in the participant’s setting, analyzing data inductively by building from

specific to general themes, and the researcher making interpretations of individual meaning of the data, thus, making the structure of the final written report flexible (Creswell, 2014; Kvale, 1996). This qualitative study is under the social constructivism paradigm. Social constructivists, according to Creswell (2019), are with the view that the individual seeks to comprehend the world in which he or she lives and works. It is believed that the individual develops subjective meanings of his or her experience. Since constructivists believe that there are diverse and multiple meanings, it is expected that the researcher looks for complexity of ideas rather than limiting meanings into a few categories or views (Creswell, 2019).

Also, qualitative research has been recognized for its ability to provide an in-depth understanding of research subjects. For instance, according to Creswell (2014), "Qualitative research is designed to explore the human elements of a given topic, while quantitative research is concerned with quantifying the data collected to test hypotheses and generalize results" (p. 3). This suggests that qualitative research allows researchers to explore complex and nuanced aspects of the research subject that cannot be captured through quantitative research methods. In light of the above arguments, the qualitative approach was adopted for this current study to analyse the expression of politeness strategies by cross-examiners and cross-examinees in cross-examinations at the Winneba District Court. Instead of subjecting data to mathematical transformations, as is the case with a quantitative study, this method of doing research enables the researcher to make pertinent linked interpretations with respect to social actions (Braun & Clarke, 2013).

The current study therefore adopts a qualitative approach as a guide for making decisions on the research design, the sampling technique and sample size, data

collection method and procedures, and data analysis plan. These features of qualitative research resonate well with studying politeness in the context of courtroom as an institution. This is so because politeness is context and culture based, that is, what is perceived as polite in one context or culture might not be so in another context or culture.

3.2 Research Design

The research design adopted for this study is qualitative content analysis. A research approach's type of inquiry that gives clear guidelines for the tactics and techniques to be used in conducting a study is known as a research design (Creswell 2014). In essence, the research design affects all data gathering methods and sample strategies. Creswell (2014) further states that the nature of the research topic, the issues to be addressed, the study's participants and audience, as well as the researcher's personal experiences, all influence the choice of research design. Given (2008) also refers to a research design as how a research idea undergoes transformation to become a research project of plan to be practically conducted. Given (2008) explains further that research design includes all decisions from the conceptualization of the research through to the actual conduct of a particular research. He however clarifies that research design is not just about selecting methods or techniques to be used in data collection but focuses more on the mutual relationship of three independent components: the theoretical, methodological, and ethical considerations relevant to the specific project. Although there are many method types with qualitative research, five common types have been identified across a wide range of qualitative research; narrative, phenomenology, ethnography, case study and grounded theory (Creswell, 2009, p. 187).

Qualitative content analysis is also one of the numerous research methods used to analyze text data. Other methods include ethnography, grounded theory,

phenomenology, and historical or narrative research (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005). Research using qualitative content analysis focuses on the characteristics of language as communication with attention to the content or contextual meaning of the text. According to Given (2008), text is anything which is in written form which constitutes the basic medium for carrying out most qualitative research analysis. He however clarifies that research design is not just about selecting methods or techniques to be used in data collection but focuses more on the mutual relationship of three independent components: the theoretical, methodological, and ethical considerations relevant to the specific project.

The research design therefore adopted for this study is qualitative content analysis. According to Given (2008, p.120), “content analysis is the intellectual process of categorizing qualitative textual data into clusters of similar entities, or conceptual categories, to identify consistent patterns and relationships between variables or themes.” Hsieh and Shannon (2005) also defined qualitative content analysis as “a research method for the subjective interpretation of the content of text data through the systematic classification process of coding and identifying themes or patterns.” Given (2008) asserts that in qualitative research, content analysis is interpretative, involving close reading of text. Given further advanced that it can be a useful way of analyzing longitudinal data to demonstrate change over time and is nonintrusive because it is applied to data already collected or existing.

Qualitative content analysis goes beyond merely counting words to examine language intensely for the purpose of classifying large amounts of texts into an efficient number of categories that represent similar meanings (Weber, 1990). These categories can represent either explicit communication or inferred communication. The goal of content

analysis is “to provide knowledge and understanding of the phenomenon under study” (Downe-Wamboldt, 1992, p. 314).

Content analysis is used to identify, enumerate, and analyze occurrences of specific messages and message characteristics embedded in texts. In Qualitative Content Analysis, researchers are more interested in the meanings associated with messages with the number of times message variables occur. Qualitative Content Analysis is the systematic, step-by-step procedure used to answer research questions and test hypothesis. It is considered an unobtrusive technique because researchers study texts that already exist rather than asking people to produce texts (Given, 2008).

This study employed a qualitative content analysis method based on the context of the cross-examinations conveyed. The ‘context’ in this study refers to the message context which means the indirectness and implicitness of the message itself. Message context is cues that convey implied and inferred meaning accompanying the utterance. Triandis (1972) mentioned that indirect and implicit messages contain information hidden in the socio-cultural system or, in internal context-information contained within the individual (Hall, 1976). Politeness is the study of how language is used to strategize the illocutionary functions during the conversation or social interaction. Hence, the type of data used in this study is utilized from authentic written data which are written records of court cross-examinations of some selected civil and criminal cases at the Winneba District Court.

According to Hsieh and Shannon (2005), there are three distinct approaches to Qualitative Content Analysis: conventional, directed, or summative. The two scholars further state that “all the three approaches are used to interpret meaning from the content of the text data and, hence, adhere to the naturalistic paradigm (p.1277)” The major

differences among the approaches are schemes, origins of codes, and threats to trustworthiness. In conventional content analysis, coding categories are derived directly from the text data. With a directed approach, analysis starts with a theory or relevant research findings as guidance for initial codes. A summative content analysis involves counting and comparisons, usually of keywords or content, followed by the interpretation of the underlying context (Hsieh and Shannon, 2005).

The type of qualitative content analysis approach employed by the researcher is the directed approach. The goal of a directed approach to content analysis is to validate or extend conceptually a theoretical framework or theory. An existing theory or research can help focus on the research questions in directed content analysis. The rationale for choosing the directed content analysis is due to the fact that the researcher seeks to use an existing theory, that is, Brown and Levinson's (1987) Politeness Theory, to identify politeness strategies used in cross-examinations at the Winneba District Court.

Zhang and Widemuth (2009) assert that qualitative content analysis can be generally be done considering the following steps: (1) prepare the data, (2) define the unit of analysis, (3) develop categories and a coding scheme, (4) test your coding scheme on a sample of text, (5) code all the text, (6) assess your coding consistency, (7) draw conclusions from the coded data, (8) report your methods and findings. The researcher typed the data obtained from the court civil and criminal record books and prepared it for the analysis. The second step is that the researcher defined the unit of analysis. The unit of analysis for this study is question-response utterances from the interlocutors. Third step is that the researcher developed categories and a coding scheme. The categories and coding scheme were developed from Brown and Levinson's 1987 Politeness Theory. The researcher developed the coding scheme through deductive

method. The fourth step is that the researcher tested the coding scheme on a sample of the text to ensure that there was consistency in the coding. In step five, the researcher coded all the text after consistency had been achieved for the coding scheme of the sample. Sixth, the coding consistency was assessed in order to ensure consistency. This was done to ensure that as much as possible, there is avoidance of inconsistency in the coding. In the seventh step, conclusions were drawn from the coded data. At this stage, the researcher discussed the various themes or categories identified in order to make sense of the data. Lastly, the researcher reported the methods and findings of the study. The researcher provided sufficient description and interpretation of the available data.

3.3 Sampling Technique and Sample Size

Sampling is the process of choosing actual data sources from a larger set of possibilities (Given, 2008). There are several sampling techniques that a researcher can use and these include: random, sampling, stratified sampling, convenience sampling, snowball sampling, purposive sampling, and quota sampling technique. The sampling technique chosen for this study is purposive sampling technique. Purposive sampling is described by Campbell et al. (2020) as the sampling where the selected individuals, as research participants, are knowingly chosen because of their suitability for advancing the purpose of the research. This means that purposive sampling is used when the researcher wants to select participants who have specific characteristics or experiences that are relevant to the research question. Purposive sampling generally can be understood as a non-probability sampling technique in which the researcher selects the sample (specific group of individuals or units for analysis) based on a specific purpose or criterion.

The logic of purposeful sampling lies in the selection of rich information or cases, from which the researcher can learn a great deal about matters of central importance to the purpose of the research (Patton, 1990). This suggests that it is often used in qualitative research studies where the goal is to gain an in-depth understanding of a particular phenomenon or cause. This method is appropriate when the researcher has a clear idea of the characteristics or attributes, he or she is interested in studying and wants to select a sample representative of those characteristics. Yin (2011) establishes that “the goal or purpose for selecting the specific study units is to have those that will yield the most relevant and plentiful data, given topic of study.” Purposive technique is also known as judgment, selective or subjective sampling because the researcher relies on his or her own judgment when choosing members of population to participate in the study. There are several types of purposive sampling and these include expert sampling, maximum variation sampling, homogeneous sampling, critical case sampling and typical case sampling. Each has its own unique characteristics and uses:

First is expert sampling. This type of purposive sampling involves selecting participants who are considered experts in a particular field or subject matter. This method is commonly used in research studies that require specialized knowledge, such as medical research or engineering.

Second is maximum variation sampling. This type of purposive sampling involves selecting participants who vary widely in terms of demographics, experiences, or other characteristics. This method is used to ensure that the sample is representative of the population being studied and can provide a more comprehensive understanding of the research topic.

Third is homogeneous sampling. This type of purposive sampling involves selecting participants who share similar characteristics or experiences. This method is used to explore specific issues or phenomenon within a particular group or population.

Fourth is critical case sampling. This type of purposive sampling involves selecting participants who are critical to understanding a particular phenomenon or issue. This method is used when the researcher wants to focus on extreme or unusual cases that can provide insights into broader patterns or trends. Fifth is typical case sampling. Typical case explains cases that are average and normal.

The type of purposive sampling chosen for this study is maximum or heterogeneous variation sampling. Heterogeneous sampling relies on researcher's judgment to select participants with diverse characteristics. This is done to ensure the presence of maximum variability within the primary data. Given (2008) asserts that researchers use this technique when they are looking to examine a diverse range of cases that are all relevant to a particular phenomenon or event. This allows researchers to gain as much insight from as many angles as possible during their survey (Given, 2008). In line with Given's assertion, a wide range of civil cases such as matrimonial, land, commercial, family tribunal, and defamation cases were all selected for the study. Again, a diverse range of criminal cases such as stealing, unlawful harm, conspiracy, unlawful damage, assault, and defrauding by false pretense were all selected for the study.

The chosen period for the study ranges from 2020 to 2022. It is justified that in choosing a three-year period, the researcher will be able to capture a broader range of cases and cross-examination practices, allowing for a more comprehensive analysis. It is also justified that the chosen period of study is comparatively current and so this can provide

a more accurate representation of the cross-examination procedures and trends in the court.

The targeted period of study will therefore enable the researcher to analyze a number of criminal and civil cases that have undergone cross-examination and also to analyze how accused persons, complainants, judges, lawyers, prosecutors, plaintiffs, defendants and witnesses employed politeness in their discourse at the Winneba District Court.

Considering the great chunk of court written records on cross-examinations from 2020 to 2022, a purposive sampling technique is employed to select twelve (12) cases that have undergone cross-examination, out of which six (6) are criminal cases and the other six (6) are civil cases. Braun and Clarke (2013) argue that purposive sampling approach is typical in qualitative research as it aims at generating knowledge and understanding of the topic of interest. Braun and Clark further explain that purposive sampling helps to select data cases, participants or texts that will provide rich information for data analysis. Justifying from the assertion of Braun and Clark, the cases were carefully selected from the volumes three (3), four (4) and five (5) of the criminal record books and volumes eight (8), nine (9) and ten (10) of the civil record books at the Winneba District Court to serve the purpose of the research because those cases will provide rich information for data analysis.

The sample size is the number of data sources that are actually selected from the total population. According to Given (2008), the goals of most qualitative studies emphasize an in-depth and highly contextualized understanding of specific phenomena, and such goals are well-suited to small sample sizes. Going by Given's indication that the goals of qualitative research are well-suited to small sample size, twelve (12) cases that have undergone cross-examination were selected. The twelve (12) cases consist of six (6)

criminal cases and six (6) civil cases from which excerpts of twenty (20) cross-examination sessions were selected. It is justified that the sample size (12 cases) will allow for a sizeable rich data that can properly be analyzed for this study and this is in line with Given (2008) that the goals of qualitative research are well-suited to small sample sizes. Also, the balanced selection of twenty cross-examinations out of six (6) criminal and six (6) civil cases is to allow the researcher to capture a range of perspectives and experiences within the legal system. Civil cases typically involve disputes between individuals or organizations, while criminal cases involve offenses against the state. By studying both types of cases, the researcher can gain insights into different aspects of the legal process and how it affects various stakeholders. The choice for the particular cases out of the many cases is that some of the cross-examinations are very long whereas others are very short.

3.4 Data Collection Method and Procedure

Flick (2018) declares that “qualitative data collection is the selection and production of linguistic (or visual) material for analyzing and understanding phenomenon, social fields, subjective and collective experience and the related meaning-making processes.”

Qualitative data collection is vital in qualitative research. It helps researchers understand individuals’ attitudes, beliefs, and behaviours in a specific context. Several methods are used to collect qualitative data, however, Hancock et al. (2007) have identified observation, interview, focus groups, collection of documented materials, collection of narrative, and open-ended questions in questionnaire as data collection methods.

The type of data collected for this research is that of document. Creswell (2014) classifies documents into two broad ways that is public and private documents. The

option of document chosen for this study is that of public document and the type of public document used for this study is record of court proceedings. Using document as the data collection method will help the researcher understand the problem and the research under study. First, the data was selected by extracting cross-examination sessions from the court record books. With respect to the sample size, a total of twelve (12) cases that have undergone cross-examinations were selected. Out of the twelve (12) cases, six (6) were civil cases and the other six (6) were criminal cases. The reason for choosing data from the court criminal and civil record books is based on the fact that it is the serious verbatim record of court proceedings of the main activities of the court and so it is recognized as the accurate official document of the court.

In conducting a study, Creswell (2005) advises researchers to seek and obtain permission from authorities in charge of the site of the study because it involves prolonged and extensive data collection. In line with this, permission was sought from the head of registry at the Winneba District Court on 30th January, 2023 in order to obtain permission to select the data after explaining to her on the need to gather such information from the court. The researcher after being granted the permission, perused through all the criminal and civil record books and purposively selected the recorded proceedings in 2020, 2021 and 2022 that are relevant to the study. The researcher took pictures of the selected data with his phone, Samsung Galaxy J6, and later typed the collected data. The main focus is to find out how politeness is expressed during court proceedings, especially during cross-examination sessions in both criminal and civil cases by cross-examiners and cross-examinees.

3.5 Data Analysis Plan

Data analysis in qualitative research involves the process of managing and reducing data into themes through a coding system (Creswell, 2019).

In this study, thematic analysis was employed as the data analysis method in order to answer the research question one and the other two research questions. Thematic analysis is a form of pattern recognition within which the data, with emerging themes become the categories for analysis (Fereday & Muir-Cochrane, 2006). The process involves a careful, more focused re-reading and review of the data. The reviewer takes a closer look at the selected data and performs coding and category construction, based on the data's characteristics, to uncover themes pertinent to a phenomenon.

Braun and Clark (2006) outline six phases of thematic analysis and these include: (1) familiarizing yourself with your data, (2) generating initial codes, (3) searching for themes, (4) reviewing themes, (5) defining and naming themes, and (6) producing the report. The researcher adopted Braun and Clark's 2006 phases of doing thematic analysis.

The first phase is familiarizing yourself with your data. Since the researcher collected the data from the court record book himself, the data was read severally to the extent that he became familiar with the depth and breadth of the content. There was no transcription of verbal data because the source of data for this study is an already existing written record of court proceedings, it was ensured that the typed data was consistently checked up with the original.

The second phase according to Braun and Clark (2006) is generating initial codes. After the researcher had familiarized himself with the data, initial codes were produced from the data through the use of "TAGUETTE" software and manually checked to ensure

consistency. In the same vein, the available data were carefully analyzed and were put into codes. In preparing and getting ready the data, the data was put into codes. Rossman and Rallis (1998, p.171) defines coding as “the process of organizing the material into chunks or segments of text before bringing meaning to information” as cited in (Creswell, 2009, p.173). Creswell (2009, p.173) advances that coding involves taking text data or pictures gathered during data collection, segmenting sentences (or paragraphs) or images into categories, labeling those categories with a term, often based in the actual language of the participant (called an in vivo term).

The third phase of thematic analysis as stipulated by the two scholars is searching for themes. After all data have been initially coded and collated to get a list of the different codes the researcher has identified across the data, the various codes were sort into potential themes and all the relevant coded extracts within the identified themes. Data from the court record books were the main documents used in the analysis. The analysis of the record of court proceedings on cross-examinations was organized on specific categories or themes. Themes for analyzing politeness in record of courtroom proceedings are theory driven.

Brown and Levinson’s (1987) politeness theory is the main theory guiding the analysis of data for this study. The court record books are documents that contain verbatim record of serious court proceedings and these are written by the magistrate or judge. After selecting the relevant court proceedings, each record of proceeding for polite utterances was analyzed through the aid of the software called “TAGUETTE” and this was further rechecked manually to ensure consistency. The researcher then categorized the politeness utterances into four in line with the “TAGUETTE” software. These are the bald on-record politeness, positive politeness, negative politeness and off-record

politeness strategies and these strategies are considered as the major themes for analyzing politeness in this study. Brown and Levinson propose certain speech acts and utterances to fall under the politeness strategies. Those speech acts and utterances are adopted for coding polite utterances under each of the politeness strategies.

Reviewing themes is the fourth phase according to Braun and Clark. The researcher at this phase, revisited all the themes to ensure that they are the exact themes expected.

Defining and naming themes is the next phase talked about by Braun and Clark (ibid).

At this point, the researcher defined and further redefined the themes that were used for the analysis and analyzed the data within them. The researcher went ahead to collate data extracts for each theme and organized them into coherently internally consistent account. The last phase identified by Braun and Clark for thematic analysis is producing the report. Phase six begins when the themes had fully been couched and involved in the final write-up of the report. The research described the data argued in relation to the research questions of the study.

In order to achieve the objective two, the researcher fed the software to check the expressed politeness that were possibly guided by the rules or codes of conduct of court. The question three of the study was answered by taking some selected extracts from the data to indicate the type of speech acts and function of the identified politeness strategies by the cross-examiners and cross-examinees.

In analyzing the data, the researcher analyzed the data using the question-response utterances of the cross-examiners and cross-examinees as unit of analyses.

3.6 Ethical Consideration

The importance of adhering to ethics in research cannot be overstated (Creswell, 2013).

The University of Education, Winneba has established standard ethical research codes

for its faculty and students. One of the most relevant of these ethical codes states that before being studied, participants must be properly informed by the researcher and willingly make themselves available to participate in the study (Kankam et al., 2018). Thus, the researcher attempted to meet this stipulated principle in this study. Before beginning the study, the Registrar who is the administrative head of the court was duly informed about the researcher's intention to collect data from the court record books.

Creswell (2013), as well as others such as Croucher and Cronn-Mills (2014), have identified some critical ethical needs, which this study has confirmed. According to Croucher and Cronn-Mills (2014), when conducting ethical research, relevant principles such as informed consent, participant privacy, and debriefing must be considered. One of the most important ethical issues in research is informed consent. According to Davis (2013), informed consent must include an introduction to the study and its purpose, as well as an explanation of the research subjects' selection and the procedures that will be followed. However, Hesse-Biber (2016) suggests that informed consent does not necessarily imply handing a form to the participant to give approval, but rather that the participant has been well educated by the researcher regarding what the study entails and the potential consequences of the findings.

As a result of the foregoing arguments, the nature of the study was thoroughly explained to the Registrar and also, she was assured that the data (cases) collected from the court record books will be kept confidential and anonymous, and this has been strictly adhered to.

3.7 Chapter Summary

This chapter mainly focused on the techniques and approaches that were adopted to gather the data for the study. It expanded the selection of qualitative approach and

Brown and Levinson's (1987) Politeness Theory as a framework used in the analysis of the data. Again, the various qualitative research designs were highlighted and the chosen design for this study was elaborated. This chapter has also catered for the sampling technique chosen for this study by giving the necessary justification for choosing it. Furthermore, it talked about the data collection method and procedure used for the study. A detailed process used in gathering the data and how the data was used has also been discussed in this chapter. Additionally, it further talked about the systematic ways of analyzing the data. Lastly, ethical considerations for this study have also been dealt with.



CHAPTER FOUR

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

4.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the findings of the study. The findings cover the types of politeness strategies used, the rules or codes of conduct that guide the choice of politeness in the courtroom, and finally, the speech act class and functions of the politeness strategies used.

4.1 Research question 1: What are the politeness strategies used during cross-examinations sessions at the Winneba District Court?

Brown and Levinson (1987) outline four politeness strategies for mitigating FTAs during interaction. They are the bald on-record, positive politeness, negative politeness and off-record strategies. Data of this study show that Brown and Levinson's politeness strategies are used in varied forms during cross-examination sessions.

Table 2: Politeness Strategies Used in Cross-Examinations

Politeness strategy	Frequency	Percentage
Bald on-record Politeness	7	10.6%
Positive Politeness	30	45.5%
Negative Politeness	28	42.4%
Off-record Politeness	1	1.5%
Total	66	100%

4.1.1 Bald on Record Strategy

According to Brown and Levinson (1987, p.69), to do an act baldly on record means, doing the act in the “most direct, clear, unambiguous and concise way as much as possible. Example of a bald on record for a request, may be “Do X!”. Bald on record

strategies are realized by using direct imperatives for great urgency or desperation, giving sympathetic advice or warnings, welcoming's, farewells, and offers as in, for example: 'come in' 'come again' and 'sit down here' (Brown & Levinson, 1987). From the data analysed, bald on politeness was used seven times in most direct and clear ways. First, the bald on-record politeness was used as a command/order five times, and it also occurred twice as a request.

4.1.1.1 Command/ Order

The first extract was obtained from the 2021 criminal case 2 data. In the extract, the judge who obviously carries power seems to baldly threaten the face of the accused person by speaking directly to his face. The circumstances surrounding this interaction is, the fact that the judge is about sentencing the accused person and so she tells the accused person to give his plea in mitigation if any. The accused person was asked to "remain silent" and also "report your plea to the court". These imperative utterances in the form of command from the judge did not take into consideration the face want of the addressee because of great urgency with which the judge spoke. These utterances therefore corroborate with Brown and Levinson's (1987) argument that bald on-record strategy is done whenever an addresser wants to do the FTA with maximum efficiency more than he wants to satisfy addressee's face, even to any degree, he will choose the bald on-record strategy.

The second extract was taken from 2022 criminal case 1 data. This brings to the fore that the prosecutor uses the imperative to baldly threaten the face of the accused person by asking him to "Tell the court the items that were stolen". The vast superior power between the prosecutor and the accused person makes it possible for the prosecutor to unambiguously speak without redressive measures.

The third abstract was obtained from the 2020 criminal case 1 data. In the third extract, the judge uses bald on-record politeness in the form of the imperative “Avoid this question because it seeks a speculative answer” to prevent the prosecutor from asking her question which seeks to illicit a speculative answer. The bald on-record strategy was employed by the judge to urgently deal with the question from the prosecutor which the judge thinks is a question that seeks a speculative answer.

Extract

Judge: *“Remain silent. Does the accused person want to plea for mitigation?”*

Accused person: *“Yes, My Lord.”*

Judge: *“Report your plea to the court.”*

The idea of on-record politeness, according to Brown and Levinson (1987), is frequently applied in circumstances where the speaker puts efficiency and clarity ahead of keeping a straight face for the listener. For instance, it could be crucial to be precise and unambiguous when providing instructions or in emergency situations to guarantee efficiency or safety. The current study also discovered that the judge used bald on-record to command and order during cross-examination, in line with the findings of the Lodhi (2019) study, which demonstrated how doctors utilized bald on methods on patients to demonstrate their power and dominance. Due to their absolute power in the courtroom, judges were the ones who employed the bald on-record strategy the most.

Extract

Prosecutor: *“Tell the court the items that were stolen.”*

Accused person: *“Three plasma TVs.”*

The idea of blatant on-record politeness, according to Brown and Levinson (1987), is frequently applied in circumstances where the speaker puts efficiency and clarity ahead of keeping a straight face for the listener. For instance, it could be crucial to be precise and unambiguous when providing instructions or in emergency situations to guarantee efficiency or safety. Similar to how Lodhi's (2019) study showed that physicians employed bald on techniques on their patients to demonstrate their authority and control, the current study discovered that the prosecutor employed bald on-record to give commands and provide commands during cross-examinations.

Extract

Prosecutor: *“Do you think that the accused person could have been at the scene of the crime?”*

Judge: *“Avoid this question because it seeks a speculative answer.”*

According to Brown and Levinson (1987), the concept of bald on-record politeness is often used in situations where the speaker prioritizes clarity and efficiency over maintaining positive face for the listener. For example, in emergency situations or when giving instruction, it may be important to be direct and clear in order to ensure safety or efficiency. Just as the study by Lodhi (2019) revealed that doctors used bald on strategies on patients to exhibit their power and dominance, similarly, the current study also found that, bald on-record was used the judge and the prosecutor to command/order during cross-examinations. Bald on-record strategy was mainly used by the judge because he or she has absolute power in the courtroom.

Brown and Levinson (1987) introduced the concept of on-record politeness, which prioritizes clarity and efficiency over maintaining positive face for the listener. This approach is often employed in emergency situations or when giving instructions to ensure safety or efficiency. Lodhi's study (2019) revealed that doctors use bald on

strategies to display power and dominance over patients. Similarly, the current study found that both judges and prosecutors utilize bald on-record strategies, particularly during cross-examinations, to command or order, with judges primarily employing this approach due to their absolute power in the courtroom.

4.1.1.2 Request

The first extract was obtained from 2022 criminal case 1 data. The extract below reveals an interaction between a prosecutor and an accused person. The accused person who is charged with stealing offence informs the court that he was introduced as an informer to the police. The prosecutor then uses the imperative “Show it to the court” to request from the accused person to prove his claim that he really introduced an informer to the police. This bald on act by the prosecutor is done without retribution from the accused person.

The second extract was taken from 2021 criminal case 2 data. Similarly, the second extract is an interaction between a prosecutor and an accused person. The accused person in this case who is charged with the offence of stealing is told by the prosecutor to “Have a look at the statement...” in order to ascertain whether or not it is his own statement. This bald on act by the prosecutor is done without retribution from the accused person and this is in conjunction with Brown and Levinson’s 1987 assertion that bald on-record is done by the speaker without retribution from hearer.

Extract

Prosecutor: "Can you support...with the police?"

Accused Person: "Yes, I can."

Prosecutor: "Show it to the court."

According to Brown and Levinson (1987), the idea of bald on-record politeness is frequently applied when the speaker places more importance on quickness and clarity than keeping a straight face for the audience. For instance, it could be crucial to be precise and unambiguous when providing instructions or in emergency situations to guarantee efficiency or safety. According to this study, the prosecutor uses bald on record to make requests as they have a fair amount of influence in the court. This supports the claim made by Brown and Levinson in 1987 that bald on-record can be utilized to make requests.

Extract

Prosecutor: "Have a look at the statement you gave."

Accused Person: "Yes, that is the statement I wrote."

Brown and Levinson (1987) state that the concept of bald on-record politeness is often used in situations where the speaker prioritizes clarity and efficiency over maintaining positive face for the listener. For example, in emergency situations or when giving instruction, it may be important to be direct and clear in order to ensure safety or efficiency. In this study, because the prosecutor relatively wields power in the court, he or she uses bald on record to make request and this corroborates with Brown and Levinson's 1987 assertion that bald on-record can be used to make request.

According to Brown and Levinson (1987), the concept of bald on-record politeness is often used in situations where the speaker prioritizes clarity and efficiency over maintaining positive face for the listener. For example, in emergency situations or when

giving instruction, it may be important to be direct and clear in order to ensure safety or efficiency. According to this study, the prosecutor uses bald on record to make requests as they have a fair amount of influence in the court. This supports the claim made by Brown and Levinson in 1987 that bald on-record can be utilized to make requests.

4.1.2 Positive Politeness Strategies

Brown and Levinson (1987) divide positive politeness into three mechanisms: claiming common ground, conveying that the addresser and the addressee are co-operators, and fulfilling addressee's want (for some x). The analysis of the data show that various forms of Brown and Levinson's (1987) positive politeness strategies have been used in varying proportions by cross-examiners and cross-examinees. The data collected appeared to show that the cross-examiners and the cross-examinees used positive politeness strategies to seek for solidarity as in-group members, seek agreement, include both S (Speaker) and H (Hearer) in the activity, give (or ask for) reasons, avoid disagreement, give gifts to H (goods, sympathy, understanding, cooperation), presuppose / raise / assert a common ground and finally, notice, attend to H (his interests, wants, needs, goods). The following extracts exemplify the positive politeness strategies by the cross-examiners and the cross-examinees.

4.1.2.1 The use of in-group identity markers (through Contraction and ellipsis)

The extract below makes use of positive politeness of in-group identity markers, specifically the use of ellipsis. This extract was taken from 2022 criminal case 1 data. The prosecutor tries to find out from the accused person the number of days they used to plan the stealing act. However, a critical observation of the prosecutor's question reveals that there is ellipsis because she does not mention explicitly the particular act.

The use of ellipsis "...that" in this situation reduces the face threatening act thereby making the accused person to answer the question without feeling being forced. This confirms Brown and Levinson's 1987 assertion that one way to demonstrate positive politeness is through the use of in-group identity markers specifically contraction and ellipsis.

Extract

Prosecutor: "Can you tell the court the number of days you took to do that?"

Accused Person: "Only one day, with the police"

The data revealed that positive politeness of the use of in-group identity markers (through Contraction and ellipsis) occurred. In the extract, the positive politeness was used to demonstrate a common ground between the prosecutor and the accused person. This is line with Brown and Levinson's 1987 Politeness Theory that positive politeness can be used to claim a common ground between the speaker and the hearer.

4.1.2.2 Seek agreement

This extract was obtained from 2022 criminal case 1 data. From the extract below, accused person uses the positive politeness strategy of seeking agreement from the prosecutor. The accused person used repetition such as "...know the person..." to seek for agreement from the prosecutor. This is in line with Brown and Levinson's 1987 argument that "agreement may also be stressed by repeating part or all of what the preceding speaker has said, in a conversation". This strategy is used to demonstrate that one has heard correctly what was said and that there is emphasis of emotional agreement with the utterance.

Extract

Prosecutor: *“Do you know the person who called you”?*

Accused Person: *“Yes, I do know the person.”*

In the data, there is the manifestation of positive politeness of seeking agreement. In the extract, the positive politeness was used to make agreement on the part of the accused person to the prosecutor. This resonates well with Brown and Levinson’s 1987 argument that “agreement may also be stressed by repeating part or all of what the preceding speaker has said, in a conversation”.

4.1.2.3 Include both S (Speaker) and H (Hearer) in the activity

This extract was obtained from 2020 criminal case 1 data. In the extract below, the judge tries to find out from the prosecutor the purpose for meeting in court that day. The prosecutor reminds the judge that the purpose of meeting for the day is to continue the cross-examination they have already started. The judge used the inclusive “we” form to indicate that they (Speaker and Hearer) are all involved in the activity of the court, and this demonstrates the use of positive politeness as argued by Brown and Levinson (1987).

Extract

Judge: *“What is ... for today?”*

Prosecutor: *“For ...of the cross-examination.”*

Judge: *“That is fine. We must finish as much as possible today so continue with your questions now.”*

In the data, there is the manifestation of positive politeness of include both S (speaker) and H (hearer) in the activity. In the extract, the positive politeness in the form of the inclusive “we” was used to make reference that both interlocutors are involved in the same activity. This resonates well with Brown and Levinson’s 1987 Politeness Theory

that the use of the inclusive “we” can highlight that both the speaker and the hearer are seen to be all involved in the same activity.

4.1.2.4 Give (or ask for) reasons

The positive politeness strategy used in this conversation is “give (or ask for) reasons”. The extract was obtained from 2020 civil case 2 data. The witness explains the reason for the mistake and apologizes for forgetting to make the correction. The witness’ strategic response is an attempt to fulfil the plaintiff’s solicitation for explanation from the witness.

Extract

Plaintiff: “So why was the correction not effected on the copy presented by the Defendant as Exhibit 1?”

Witness: “I ...photocopies of the document before I ... correction on the original in your presence. Later, I gave one ...the Defendant but I forgot ...the correction of your name on it.”

The data revealed that positive politeness of give (or ask for) reasons occurred. In the extract, the positive politeness was used to give reason by the witness for the mistake committed. This reasons well with Brown and Levinson’s 1987 Politeness Theory that positive politeness can be used to give reasons.

4.1.2.5 Avoid disagreement

The extract was obtained from 2020 criminal case 2 data. There is the use of positive politeness, and this is seen in the strategy of avoiding disagreement. From the extract, the lawyer’s first question is answered as expected. The lawyer’s follow-up question begins with the word “Then” to call for the avoidance of disagreement considering the fact that the complainant has already answered the previous question in the affirmative.

This is in line with the assertion made by Brown and Levinson (1987) that the use of “then” or “so” as a conclusory marker, is an indication that the speaker is drawing a conclusion to a line of reasoning carried out cooperatively with the addressee.

Extract

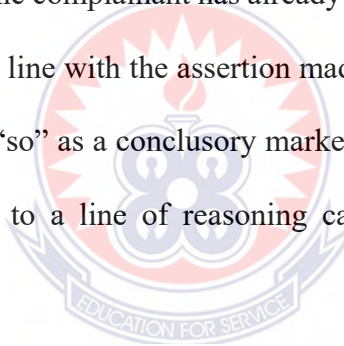
Lawyer: “As part of the records, ... took a medical form.

Complainant: “That is so.”

Lawyer: “Then, you went to the hospital and ... treated and discharged that day.”

Complainant: “That is so.”

In the data, positive politeness of avoid disagreement was found. The lawyer’s follow-up question begins with the word “Then” to call for the avoidance of disagreement considering the fact that the complainant has already answered the previous question in the affirmative. This is in line with the assertion made by Brown and Levinson (1987) that the use of “then” or “so” as a conclusory marker, is an indication that the speaker is drawing a conclusion to a line of reasoning carried out cooperatively with the addressee.



4.1.2.6 Give gifts to Hearer (goods, sympathy, understanding, cooperation)

The extract was obtained from 2020 criminal case 1 data. With respect to the extract that follows, the prosecutor carefully uses the expression “...allegedly sold...” in order to invoke the positive face of the accused person. Once the accused person is comfortable with the question of the prosecutor, he freely cooperates by answering it such that the positive face need of the prosecutor is also satisfied.

Extract

Prosecutor: *“You employed the person who allegedly sold the cylinder to you.”*

Accused Person: *“Yes, My Lord”*

In the data, it was discovered that positive politeness of give gifts to Hearer (goods, sympathy, understanding, cooperation). In the extract, the positive politeness was used to give gift to the hearer in the form of understanding. This resonates well with Brown and Levinson’s 1987 Politeness Theory that positive politeness can be used to give gift.

4.1.2.7 Presuppose/ raise/assert a common ground

The extract was obtained from 2021 criminal case 2. A careful look at the extract of cross-examination suggests that both the Speaker (prosecutor) and the Hearer (accused person) have established a common ground. This is seen in the prosecutor’s use of the pronoun “him” in the question and the answer of the accused person, and this indicates that the accused person is aware of the person the prosecutor is referring to. This resonates well with Brown and Levinson’s 1987 assertion that the use of pronouns is one of the ways to establish a common ground between the speaker and the listener.

Extract

Prosecutor: *“Did you have any issue with him?”*

Accused Person: *“No, My Lord”*

In the data, it was discovered that positive politeness of presuppose/raise/assert a common ground. In the extract, the positive politeness was used to establish a common ground and this manifests in the prosecutor’s use of the pronoun “him”. This resonates well with Brown and Levinson’s 1987 assertion that the use of pronouns is one of the ways to establish a common ground between the speaker and the listener.

4.1.2.8 Notice, attend to H (his interests, wants, needs, goods)

This extract was obtained from 2020 criminal case 1. In the extract below, the judge employs positive politeness of attending to the hearer's want. This is seen in the judge's question in finding out if the accused person has any plea in mitigation. The judge in this situation attends to the want of the accused person who obviously wants to be pardoned. After the accused person's plea in mitigation, the judge attends to the needs of the accused person by then cautioning and discharging him without meting out any punishment. This obviously confirms the argument made by Brown and Levinson (1987) that attending to the needs, wants or goods of the hearer is one of the ways a speaker can demonstrate positive politeness.

Extract

Judge: *"Any plea in mitigation?"*

Accused Person: *"Yes, My Lord. Since ... a first-time offender, I plead with the court to forgive me."*

Judge: *"B/C the accused person is cautioned and discharged."*

In the data, positive politeness of attending to the hearer's want was found. In the extract, the positive politeness was used by the judge to attend the want of the hearer. This obviously confirms the argument made by Brown and Levinson (1987) that attending to the needs, wants or goods of the hearer is one of the ways a speaker can demonstrate positive politeness.

In totality, the data revealed that positive politeness was the most frequently used politeness strategy and this confirms similar studies conducted by Marilina (2018); Ileri (2021) and Ammaida (2020). In the extracts, positive politeness was used to show solidarity to stress the speaker's similarity to and approval of the hearer, including claiming a common ground, and this is line with Brown and Levinson's 1987 Politeness

Theory that positive politeness is used to show solidarity to stress the speaker's similarity to and approval of the hearer.

4.1.3 Negative Politeness Strategies

Negative politeness, according to Brown and Levinson (1987, p. 129), is “a remedial action directed at the negative face of the addressee, who needs unimpeded freedom of action and consideration from the addresser”. Findings of this study show that negative politeness strategies used in the data include: giving deference, impersonalizing S (Speaker) and H (Hearer), being conventionally indirect, question (hedge), minimize the imposition, Rx and apology.

4.1.3.1 Give deference

The first extract was obtained from the 2021 criminal case 2. The type of negative politeness used by the accused person in the cross-examination is deference. By addressing the judge as “My Lord” and using a polite tone, the accused person is showing deference and respect to the judge's authority. The use of deference in this context is a way to avoid offending or challenging the judge's power, while the accused person is still making his plea in mitigation. This type of politeness is essential in legal proceedings as it helps to maintain a respectful and professional atmosphere, even in situations where there may be tension or disagreement.

Extract

Judge: “*Remain silent. Does the accused person ... plea in mitigation?*”

Accused Person: “*Yes, My Lord.*”

In the data, negative politeness of giving deference was found. In the extract, the negative politeness “...My Lord” was used by the accused person to give deference to the judge. This obviously confirms the argument made by Brown and Levinson (1987)

that the use of titles by the speaker is one of the ways a speaker can demonstrate negative politeness of deference.

4.1.3.2 Impersonalize S (Speaker) and H (Hearer)

This extract was obtained from 2022 criminal case 1. The extract gives a clear picture on how the prosecutor impersonalizes her utterance by reducing the face threatening act to the accused person. Brown and Levinson (1987) assert that the avoidance of the use of the subject “You” is one way to directly avoid threatening the face of the hearer, and that is exactly what the prosecutor did in asking her question.

Extract

Prosecutor: “Tell the court the instrument used in doing this.”

Accused Person: “Hacksaw blade”

In the data, negative politeness of impersonalizing the speaker and the hearer was found. Brown and Levinson (1987) assert that the avoidance of the use of the subject “You” is one way to directly avoid threatening the face of the hearer, and that is exactly what the speaker (prosecutor) did in her questioning.

4.1.3.3 Be conventionally indirect

This extract was taken from 2020 Criminal case 2 data. From the extract that follows, the accused person employs negative politeness strategy of being conventionally indirect. Even though the accused person seeks for an answer from the complainant, he decides to be indirect by using the word “can” to soften the face threatening of complainant.

Extract

Accused Person: “Can you show this court the said agreement?”

Complainant: “I ... a copy but ... not with me now.”

In the data, negative politeness of being conventionally indirect was discovered. In the extract, though the accused person seeks for an answer from the complainant, he decides to be indirect by using the word “can” to soften the face threatening of complainant. The use of negative politeness of being conventionally indirect obviously confirms the argument made by Brown and Levinson (1987) that being conventionally indirect is one of the ways to demonstrate the use of negative politeness.

4.1.3.4 Question, hedge

The politeness strategy used by the accused person in this exchange is negative politeness of hedging. This extract was taken from the 2022 criminal case data. The accused person uses the word “No” to directly answer the question, but then hedges by adding “I was on remand.” This strategy is used to soften the response and avoid sounding confrontational or defensive. By using a more indirect approach, the accused person is able to show respect for the prosecutor’s authority while still defending himself. This type of politeness strategy is often used in legal settings to maintain a professional and respectful tone in the conversation.

Extract

Prosecutor: *“Were... Nsawam serving a jail sentence?”*

Accused Person: *“No, I was on remand.”*

In the data, negative politeness of hedging was found. In the extract, the accused person uses the word “No” to directly answer the question, but then hedges by adding “I was on remand.” This negative politeness strategy is used to soften the response and avoid sounding confrontational or defensive. This obviously confirms the argument made by Brown and Levinson (1987) that the use of hedging is one of the ways a speaker can demonstrate negative politeness of hedging.

4.1.3.5 Minimize the imposition, Rx

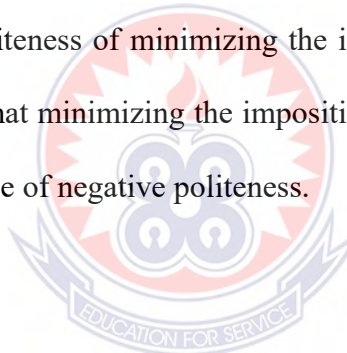
This extract was obtained from 2020 civil case 2. The politeness strategy used here is negative politeness of minimizing the imposition, as the witness is trying to avoid imposing on the plaintiff by explaining that he did not intentionally omit William's name and that he has not personally met him.

Extract

Plaintiff: *“You have omitted the name of Willian Salifu ... transaction you are making allegation... want Defendant to sell my land to you.”*

Witness: *“You brought a signed receipt to me without me seeing Willian Salifu. Till today, I do not know Willian Salifu.”*

In the data, negative politeness of minimizing the imposition was found. Brown and Levinson (1987) assert that minimizing the imposition on the hearer by the speaker is one way to portray the use of negative politeness.



4.1.3.6 Apology

This extract was obtained from 2022 criminal case 2 data. The politeness strategy used in the extract below is negative politeness of apology. The lawyer employs negative politeness to apologize when the judge told him that his question is not acceptable.

Extract

Lawyer: *Are you aware that the Plaintiff and the Defendant are in a sexual relationship?*

Judge: *I will not accept this question.*

Lawyer: *I am sorry, My Lord.*

In the data, negative politeness of apology was found. Brown and Levinson (1987) assert that apologizing is one way to demonstrate the use of negative politeness.

In all, the above extracts that reveal the use of negative politeness, it is seen that negative politeness was used to avoid the feeling of imposition on the listener, and also to show deference. The use of negative politeness in the extracts, corroborates with the position taken by Brown and Levinson (1987) that negative politeness plays the role of minimizing or reducing a particular FTA, and it is the most conventionalized set of linguistic strategies for redress in doing an FTA.

Just as Brown and Levinson (1987) posit that negative politeness strategy is used to avoid the offence to the addressee's face so that the addressee can choose whether to agree or disagree with what the speaker asks or says, the data revealed that negative politeness was used to minimize imposition, to show deference, and to give apology from the speakers to the hearers.

4.1.4 Off-Record Politeness

Brown and Levinson (1987) assert that off-record uses indirect language and removes the speaker from the potential to be imposed. The data reveal the use of off-record of ambiguity.

4.1.4.1 Ambiguity

The extract was obtained from the 2022 criminal case 1 data. The type of off-record politeness used by the accused person in the cross-examination is that of ambiguity. The use of "bank" by the accused person raises the issue of lexical ambiguity of whether it is a river bank or bank as a financial institution. This type of politeness allows the accused person to avoid giving potentially incriminating information while still maintaining a polite and respectful demeanor.

Extract

Prosecutor: "Can you tell the court where you saw the complainant?"

Accused: “I saw the complainant at the bank.”

Brown and Levinson (1987, p.211) posit that, “A communicative act is done off-record if it is done in such a way that it is not possible to attribute only one clear communicative intention to the act”. In this case, because the off-record strategy is subjected to different interpretations, a speaker can do an FTA, and deny responsibility for doing it (Brown and Levinson, 1987). Using Brown and Levinson’s assertion as the basis of reference, the off-record strategy in the above extract was employed by the accused person so as to sound ambiguous to avoid being held responsible of what is said. In this study, the off-record politeness strategy was the least used among all the types of politeness strategies, and this may be attributed to the argument put forth by Brown and Levinson (1987) that since off-record strategy involve indirect or ambiguous communication, it may not be suitable or effective in formal and structured environment like court proceedings. Again, in this study, it was found that the off-record politeness is the least, and this is also similar to studies by Hammond (2021) and Akuka et al. (2021), whose findings revealed that off-record politeness was the least used politeness strategy.

4.2 Research Question 2: How do rules or codes of conduct of court guide the expression of politeness between cross-examiners and cross-examinees?

The findings of the study reveal that there are a number of rules or codes of conduct of court that guide the use of politeness in the courtroom. Table three (3) provides a highlight of the rules or codes of conduct of court and the politeness strategies that they seem to elicit.

Table 3: Rules or Codes of Conduct of Court

Rules / Codes of Conduct of Court	Likely Politeness Strategies
Courteous conduct in court (Rule 3 (3) of the Code of Conduct for Judges and Magistrates)	Positive politeness

Guilty of contempt by negative behaviour (Act 29 of Criminal and Other Offences Act, 1960 (Act 29) section 224)	Negative politeness Positive politeness Off-record
Magistrate may disallow a question (C. I. 59, Order 25, rule 6)	Positive politeness Negative politeness
Offensive remarks (Ghana Bar Association Constitution, Code of Ethics and Regulations rule 48 (b) and (c))	Positive politeness

4.2.1 Courteous Conduct in Court

The law that states “A judge should be courteous...” guides the use of positive politeness in the extracts below. For example, in the first extract, the judge uses positive politeness to attend to the need or want of the accused person. The judge begins by asking the accused person if he has been granted bail, and this is a way of showing concern for the accused person’s situation. The judge finally attends to the needs of the accused person by granting him bail. This extract was taken from the 2021 criminal case 2 data. In the second extract, there is positive politeness of including S (Speaker) and H (Hearer) in the activity between the prosecutor and the judge through the use of the inclusive marker “we”. This extract was obtained from 2020 criminal case 1 data. The judge uses the inclusive marker “we” to let the prosecutor know that she has to finish her cross-examination. The third extract was obtained from 2020 criminal case 1 data. In the third extract, the judge uses positive politeness to attend to the need or want of the accused person. The judge begins by asking if the accused person would like to plead in mitigation, and this is a way of showing concern for the accused person’s situation. The judge finally attends to the needs of the accused person by cautioning and discharging him.

Extract

Judge: *“Have you been granted bail?”*

Accused person: *“No, My Lord”*

Judge: *“B/C the accused person is granted bail in the sum of GH 10,000 with one surety.”*

During the court cross-examination, the judge in the aforementioned extract demonstrated positive politeness. The judges' use of positive politeness may have been influenced by Rule 3(3) of the standards of behavior for judges and magistrates, which requires all judges to treat others with patience and civility. This is because the accused person received courteous treatment from the judge, who expressed concern about the accused person's bail and ultimately granted bail when it was discovered that the accused person had not yet received it.

Extract

Prosecutor: *“Today is for the continuation of the cross-examination.”*

Judge: *“That is fine. We have to finish as much as possible today so you continue with your questions now.”*

Also, in this extract, the judge employed positive politeness during the court cross-examination session. Rule 3 (3) of the codes of conduct for judges and magistrates which mandates every judge to be patient and courteous in dealing with others, possibly guided the use of the positive politeness employed by the judge. The judge expresses positive politeness through the use of the inclusive marker “we” to let the prosecutor know that she has to finish her cross-examination. The judge’s use of the inclusive marker “we” which is one way to express positive politeness as established by Brown and Levinson (1987) is likely guided by rule 3 (3) of the codes of conduct which expressly obliges every judge or magistrate to be polite and courteous.

Extract

Judge: “Any plea in mitigation?”

Accused person: “Yes, My Lord. Since I am a first-time offender, I plead with the court to forgive me.”

Judge: “B/C the accused person is cautioned and discharged.”

Again, the judge uses positive politeness to attend to the hearer’s want. This is manifested in how the judge shows concern for the accused person by asking the accused person if he wishes to plead for mitigation. When the accused person utilized the opportunity given to him, the judge cautioned and discharged the accused person. This obviously confirms the argument made by Brown and Levinson (1987) that attending to the needs, wants or goods of the hearer is one of the ways a speaker can demonstrate positive politeness. Rule 3 (3) of the codes of conduct for judges and magistrates requires judges to be patient and polite when interacting with others, and this might have influenced the judge’s use of positive politeness.

Holistically, in the above extracts, the judges employed positive politeness during the court cross-examination session. Rule 3 (3) of the codes of conduct for judges and magistrates which mandates every judge to be patient and courteous in dealing with others, possibly guided the use of the positive politeness employed by the judges.

4.2.2 Guilty of Contempt by Negative Behaviour

The data revealed that the above code of conduct guided the use of negative politeness strategy. For example, in the first extract, the accused person capitalizes on the use of negative politeness to apologize when he realized he had offended the court. This extract was taken from the 2020 criminal case 1 data. Similarly, the accused person also uses negative politeness of apologizing when the judge warned him not to disrespect the court, else she would have him put in prison. This extract was taken from the 2020 criminal case 1 data. Lastly, the accused person employs negative politeness of

apologizing to apologize to the judge when he was confronted about his failure to appear before court when he was granted bail. This extract was taken from the 2020 criminal case 1 data. Act 29 of Criminal and Other Offences Act, 1960 (Act 29) section 224 forbids contempt against court, it is highly possible that the accused persons in the extracts below have all been guided by this code of conduct, hence the use of negative politeness to seek for redress after their face-threatening acts.

Extract

Judge: *“You resisted arrest when a bench warrant was issued for your arrest.”*

Accused Person: *“I am very sorry, My Lord.”*

The use of negative politeness used by the accused person in the extract, corroborates with the position taken by Brown and Levinson (1987). According to Brown and Levinson (1987), negative politeness plays the role of minimizing or reducing a particular FTA, and it is the most conventionalized set of linguistic strategies for redress in doing an FTA. In the same way, the accused person in the above extract uses negative politeness to minimize or reduce his FTA when he realized that the judge was not happy with him for resisting arrest. Act 29 of Criminal and Other Offences Act, 1960 (Act 29) section 224 forbids contempt against court, and so it is highly possible that the accused person in the extract has been guided by this code of conduct, hence the use of negative politeness to seek for redress after his face-threatening acts.

Extract

Judge: *“The next time you disrespect the court, I will throw you in prison.”*

Accused Person: *“My apologies, Your Worship.”*

Also, the use of negative politeness used by the accused person in the extract above, confirms the stance of Brown and Levinson (1987). Brown and Levinson (1987) stipulate that negative politeness plays the role of minimizing or reducing a particular

FTA, and it is the most conventionalized set of linguistic strategies for redress in doing an FTA. In a similar fashion, the accused person in the aforementioned extract uses negative politeness to minimize or reduce his FTA when he realized that the judge was not happy with him. Act 29 of Criminal and Other Offences Act, 1960 (Act 29) section 224 forbids contempt against court, and so it is highly possible that the accused person in the extract above has been guided by this code of conduct, hence the use of negative politeness to seek for redress after the face-threatening acts.

Extract

Judge: *“You refused to come to court after being granted bail.”*

Accused Person: *“My Lord, please I was ill. Please forgive me.”*

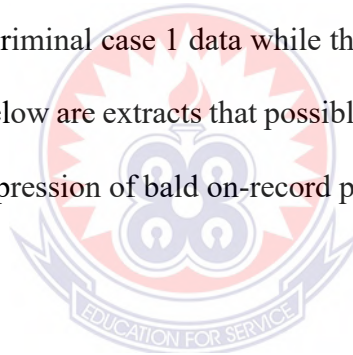
Lastly, the use of negative politeness used by the accused person in the extract, supports the position taken by Brown and Levinson (1987). According to Brown and Levinson (1987), negative politeness plays the role of minimizing or reducing a particular FTA, and it is the most conventionalized set of linguistic strategies for redress in doing an FTA. In the same way, the accused person in the above extract uses negative politeness to minimize or reduce their FTA when they realized that the judge was not happy with him. Act 29 of Criminal and Other Offences Act, 1960 (Act 29) section 224 forbids contempt against court, and so it is highly likely that the accused person in the extract above has been guided by this code of conduct, hence the use of negative politeness to seek for redress after their face-threatening acts.

In whole, the use of negative politeness used by the accused persons in the extracts, reinforce the stance taken by Brown and Levinson (1987). According to Brown and Levinson (1987), negative politeness plays the role of minimizing or reducing a particular FTA, and it is the most conventionalized set of linguistic strategies for redress in doing an FTA. In the same way, the accused persons in the above extracts use

negative politeness to minimize or reduce their FTA when they realized that the judge was not happy with them. Act 29 of Criminal and Other Offences Act, 1960 (Act 29) section 224 forbids contempt against court, and so it is highly possible that the accused persons in the extracts have all been guided by this code of conduct, hence the use of negative politeness to seek for redress after their face-threatening acts.

4.2.3 Magistrate May Disallow a Question

The data also reveal that perhaps order 25, rule 6 of C.I. 59 guided the use of bald on politeness. In the extracts, due to the urgency of the judge's response, the judge uses bald on-record by using direct and straightforward language to address the prosecutors and the lawyer without considering their face needs. The first two extracts were obtained from the 2020 criminal case 1 data while the third extract was taken from the 2022 civil case 2 data. Below are extracts that possibly demonstrate that the above code of conduct guided the expression of bald on-record politeness by the judge.



Extract

Prosecutor: *“Do you think that the accused person could have been at the scene of the crime?”*

Judge: *“Avoid this question because it seeks a speculative answer.”*

The expression of bald on-record politeness in the extract above resonates well with the argument put forth by Brown and Levinson (1987) concerning the use of bald on-record politeness. Brown and Levinson (1987) argue that one purpose for employing bald on-record politeness lies in a situation where urgency is essential than face needs. The judge quickly dismisses the question that the prosecutor asked because the question is vexatious in the sense that it seeks a speculative answer. This question can easily trigger provocation, and therefore, urgent to be dealt with immediately in the courtroom because the state at which it is urgent overrides face needs. The judge’s use of the strategy of bald on-record of urgency to refuse the prosecutor’s question is perhaps guided by order 25, rule 6 of C.I. 59, which empowers magistrates to dismiss any question that appears vexatious and irrelevant.

Extract

Prosecutor: *“Have you ever been convicted of a crime before?”*

Judge: *“Ask another question because this question can be seen as an attempt to discredit the witness based on his past actions rather than the current case.”*

Again, the expression of bald on-record politeness in the extract above is in line with the assertion by Brown and Levinson (1987) concerning the use of bald on-record politeness. Brown and Levinson (1987) assert that one purpose for employing bald on-record politeness lies in a situation where urgency is essential than face needs. The judge immediately dismisses the question that the prosecutor asked because it is irrelevant in the sense that it is seen as an attempt to discredit the witness based on his

past actions. It is therefore, an urgent issue to be dealt with immediately in the courtroom because its urgency overrides face needs. The judge's use of the strategy of bald on-record of urgency to refuse the prosecutor's question is likely guided by order 25, rule 6 of C.I. 59, which allows magistrates to dismiss any question that is vexatious and irrelevant.

Extract

Lawyer: *"I suppose you are NPP staunch member?"*

Judge: *"Have your question withdrawn immediately because it is not relevant to the case."*

Additionally, the expression of bald on-record politeness in the extracts above is in consonance with Brown and Levinson's assertion concerning the use of bald on-record politeness. Brown and Levinson (1987) assert that one reason for employing bald on-record politeness lies in a situation where urgency is essential than face needs. The judge quickly dismisses the question that the prosecutor asked because it is irrelevant. It is therefore an urgent issue to be dealt with immediately in the courtroom because its urgency overrides face needs. The judge's use of the strategy of bald on-record of urgency to refuse the prosecutor's question is possibly guided by order 25, rule 6 of C.I. 59, which empowers magistrates to dismiss any question that appears vexatious and irrelevant.

In all, the expression of bald on-record politeness in the extracts above resonate well with the position taken by Brown and Levinson (1987) concerning the use of bald on-record politeness. Brown and Levinson (1987) argue that one purpose for employing bald on-record politeness lies in a situation where urgency is essential than face needs. The judge quickly dismisses the questions that both the prosecutor and the lawyer asked because they are vexatious and irrelevant, and are therefore urgent issues to be dealt

with immediately in the courtroom because the state at which they are urgent override face needs. This is exemplified in the extracts above because in all the extracts, the speaker employed the strategy of bald on-record of urgency, and this is in line with Brown and Levinson's 1987 assertion. The judge's consistent and direct refusal of the prosecutor and the lawyer's questions using bald-on record strategy may have been influenced by the authority granted to magistrates under order 25, rule 6 of C.I. 59, which allows them to dismiss questions that are deemed vexatious and irrelevant.

4.2.4 Offensive Remarks

The data reveal that the code of conduct above guided the use of negative politeness of apology. The extracts were obtained from the 2022 civil case 2 data. In all the extracts below, the lawyers conceded to the judges' refusal to admit their questions. Being perhaps guided by rule 48 (b) and (c) of the Ghana Bar Association, Code of Ethics and Regulations, the lawyers employed negative politeness of apology for redress after the face-threatening act (question). This is illustrated in the extracts below.

Extract

Lawyer: *“Are you aware that the Plaintiff and the Defendant are in a sexual relationship?”*

Judge: *“I will not accept this question.”*

Lawyer: *“I am sorry, My Lord.”*

The negative politeness strategy employed in the above extracts corroborates with Brown and Levinson's 1987 Politeness Theory argument that begging for forgiveness is one way of doing negative politeness of apology. The use of negative politeness by the lawyer to seek for forgiveness after his attention was drawn by the judge to his face-threatening questions tend to confirm Brown and Levinson's 1987 argument. Being perhaps guided by rule 48 (b) and (c) of the Ghana Bar Association, Code of Ethics and

Regulations, the lawyer employed the negative politeness of apology for redress after his face-threatening act (question).

Extract

Lawyer: *“Have you ever lied under oath before?”*

Judge: *“The question is disallowed.”*

Lawyer: *“My apologies, My Lord”.*

Also, the lawyer’s use of negative politeness by seeking forgiveness after the judge pointed out his inappropriate question aligns with Brown and Levinson’s Politeness Theory, which suggests that apologizing can be a way to mitigate face-threatening behaviour. Additionally, referencing the Ghana Bar Association’s Code of Ethics and Regulations, particularly rule 48 (b) and (c), indicates that the lawyer may have been guided by professional standards in employing the strategy of apologizing for redress. This demonstrates a conscious effort to maintain politeness and professionalism in the courtroom setting.

Extract

Lawyer: *“I suppose you are NPP staunch member?”*

Judge: *“The question is disallowed because it is not relevant to the case.”*

Lawyer: *“I am sorry. I withdraw the question.”*

Besides, the negative politeness strategy employed in the above extract aligns with Brown and Levinson’s 1987 Politeness Theory argument that begging for forgiveness is one way of doing negative politeness of apology. The use of negative politeness by the lawyer to ask for forgiveness after the judge has pointed out to him his face-threatening question helps to confirm Brown and Levinson’s 1987 argument. Possibly influenced by rule 48 (b) and (c) of the Ghana Bar Association’s Code of Ethics and

Regulations, the lawyer utilized the strategy of offering an apology for correction following his behaviour that posed a threat to others.

Extract

Lawyer: *“You are saying that because you are a woman.”*

Judge: *“Counsel, your question is over-ruled because of its sexist remark.”*

Lawyer: *“My apologies, My Lord.”*

Moreover, the negative politeness strategy employed in the above extracts corroborates with Brown and Levinson’s 1987 Politeness Theory argument that begging for forgiveness is one way of doing negative politeness of apology. The use of negative politeness by the lawyer to seek for forgiveness after his attention was drawn by the judge to his face-threatening question tends to confirm Brown and Levinson’s 1987 argument. Being perhaps guided by rule 48 (b) and (c) of the Ghana Bar Association, Code of Ethics and Regulations, the lawyer employed the negative politeness of apology for redress after his face-threatening act (question).

Extract

Lawyer: *“Did you know the plaintiff was abused as a child?”*

Judge: *“This cannot be allowed because the witness is not in the position to know that.”*

Lawyer: *“With all due respect, I am sorry for this question.”*

Furthermore, the negative politeness strategy used in the above extract confirms Brown and Levinson’s 1987 Politeness Theory argument that begging for forgiveness is one way of doing negative politeness of apology. The use of negative politeness by the lawyer to seek for forgiveness after his attention was drawn by the judge to his face-threatening questions tend to confirm Brown and Levinson’s 1987 argument. Possibly influenced by rule 48 (b) and (c) of the Ghana Bar Association’s Code of Ethics and

Regulations, the lawyer utilized the strategy of offering an apology for correction following his behaviour that posed a threat to others.

Consequently, the negative politeness strategy employed in the above extracts resonates well with Brown and Levinson's 1987 Politeness Theory argument that begging for forgiveness is one way of doing negative politeness of apology. The use of negative politeness by the lawyer to seek for forgiveness after the judge made him aware of his face-threatening questions help to confirm Brown and Levinson's 1987 argument. Being perhaps guided by rule 48 (b) and (c) of the Ghana Bar Association, Code of Ethics and Regulations, the lawyer employed the negative politeness of apology for redress after his face-threatening act (question).

4.3 Research Question 3: What is the speech act class and function of the identified politeness strategies?

Table 4: Speech Act Class and Function of Identified Politeness Strategies

Politeness Strategy	Speech Act Class	Function	Frequency	Percentage
Bald-on Politeness	Directive	Command=1 Order=4 Request=2	7	10.6%
Positive Politeness	Directive	Question= 18 Order= 1	30	45.5%
	Representative	Description= 1 Statement= 1 Believe= 4 Assertion= 2		
	Declarative	Question= 1 Institutional pronouncement =2		

Negative Politeness	Directive Representative	Question= 8 Assertion= 9 Believe= 3 Apology= 8	28	42.4%
Off-record Politeness	Representative	Answer= 1	1	1.5%
Total			66	100%

The table above, highlights on the identified politeness strategies such as bald on-record, positive, negative and off-record politeness and their respective speech act classes and functions.

4.3.1 Speech Act and Function of Bald on-record Politeness

The first extract was taken from the 2021 criminal case 2. The speech act class of the bald on politeness strategy used in the first extract is that of directive speech. The speech act function of this strategy as expressed by the judge is to command the accused person to do something, that is, “Remain silent” and “Report your plea to the court.” This confirms Searle’s 1976 speech classification that directives are used to get the addressee to do something.

The second data was obtained from the 2022 criminal case 1. In the second extract, the speech act class of the bald on strategy “Tell the court the items that were stolen” is directive. The function of this bald on strategy is used by the prosecutor to request the accused person to do something that is to tell the court the things that were stolen.

The third extract was obtained from the 2022 criminal case 1 data. In the third extract the speech act class of this bald on strategy as used by the prosecutor is directive and the function of this is to request accused person to “show” the relevant evidence to his claims. Since the intention of the prosecutor is to cause the accused person to do

something, it is therefore in line with Searle's 1976 Speech Act class that directives can be used to make requests.

Furthermore, the extract used was obtained from the 2021 criminal case 2. In the fourth extract, directive speech act is the speech act class used in this bald-on-record politeness strategy, "Have a look at the statement you gave". The speech act function of this bald on politeness strategy is employed by the prosecutor to request accused person to have a look at the statement he gave to the police.

Extract

Judge: *"Remain silent. Does the accused person want to plea for mitigation?"*

Accused person: *"Yes, My Lord."*

Judge: *"Report your plea to the court."*

Searle (1976) asserts that directives are those kinds of speech acts that the speaker uses to get the addressee or someone else to do something. They express what the speaker wants. They are commands, orders, requests, and suggestions. Similarly, in the above extract, a critical look at the bald on-record politeness used by the judge is a directive speech act and it functions as a command, and this is used to get the addressee (accused person) to do something.

Extract

Prosecutor: *"Tell the court the items that were stolen."*

Accused Person: *"Three plasma TVs. A2 also took a box but I didn't look into it until we were arrested by the police and when they opened it, it contained jewelry"*

Searle (1976) asserts that directives are those kinds of speech acts that the speakers use to get the addressee or someone else to do something. They express what the speaker wants. They are commands, orders, requests, and suggestions. In a similar fashion, in the above extract, a critical observation of the bald on-record politeness reveals that the

directive speech act used by the prosecutor functions as a request, and this is used to get the addressee (accused person) to do something. This confirms Searle's 1976 assertion about the directive speech act and its function.

Extract

Prosecutor: "Can you support your claim of bringing an informant with the police?"

Accused person: "Yes, I can."

Prosecutor: "Show it to the court."

Searle (1976) asserts that directives are those kinds of speech acts that the speakers use to get the addressee or someone else to do something. Directives express what the speaker wants. They are commands, orders, requests, and suggestions. In the same way, in the above extract, a critical look at the bald on-record politeness demonstrates that the directive speech act functions as a command, and this is used to get the addressee (accused person) to do something.

Extract

Prosecutor: "Have a look at the statement you gave."

Accused person: "Yes, that is the statement I wrote."

Searle (1976) asserts that directives are those kinds of speech acts that the speakers use to get the addressee or someone else to do something. They express what the speaker wants. They are commands, orders, requests, and suggestions. Similarly, in the above extract, a critical look at the bald on-record politeness indicates that the directive speech act functions as a request, and this is used to get the addressee to do something.

Consequently, Searle (1976) asserts that directives are those kinds of speech acts that the speakers use to get the addressee or someone else to do something. They express what the speaker wants. They are commands, orders, requests, and suggestions. Similarly, in the above extracts, a critical look at the bald on-record politeness indicates

that the directive speech act functions as a command and request, and these are used to get the addressee to do something. This confirms Searle's 1976 assertion about the directive speech act and its function.

4.3.2 Speech Act and Function of Positive Politeness

The positive politeness in the first extract makes use of declarative speech act. The judge uses the declarative "B/C the Accused Person is cautioned and discharged" as a declarative speech act to make institutional pronouncement to caution and discharge the accused person. This extract used was obtained from the 2020 criminal case 1 data. In the second extract, the speech act used in the positive politeness strategy "Yes, but not much" is representative speech act, and this is used by the accused person to assert his claim. This extract was obtained from the 2020 criminal case 1.

The type of positive politeness strategy "...act" used in the third extract is used as a directive speech act and that, it is used to ask for information by accused person from the complainant. This extract was obtained from the 2021 criminal case 2.

The type of speech act that is used in the positive politeness strategy "...incident" in the fourth extract is directive speech act, and it is used by the prosecutor to solicit information from accused person. This extract was obtained from the 2021 criminal case 2.

The speech act of the positive politeness strategy used in the fifth extract is representative speech act, and this tells what the accused person believes to be true. This extract was obtained from the 2020 criminal case 1.

Extract

Accused person: "Yes, My Lord. Since ... first-time offender, I plead ...forgive me."

Judge: "B/C the Accused Person is cautioned and discharged."

In the extract above, it was discovered that the speech act class of the positive politeness strategy employed by the judge is a declarative speech act. The declarative speech act in the above extract acts as institutional pronouncement and this is in line with Searle's 1976 assertion that declaratives are used for institutional pronouncement.

Extract

Prosecutor: "So, this suggests that you know each other very well."

Accused person: "Yes, but not much."

Again, in the extract above, it was discovered that the speech act class of the positive politeness strategy is the directive speech act. It was also found that the directive speech act was used to obtain information from the addressee, and this confirms Searle's 1976 assertion that directives are used to get someone to do something.

Extract

Accused person: "Did you catch me stealing?"

Complainant: "No, I did not catch you but I saw you in the act.."

Additionally, in the extract above, it was discovered that the speech act class of the positive politeness strategy is a representative speech act. Again, it was also discovered that the representative speech act was used for assertion and to express what one believes, and this is in affirmation with Searle's 1976 view that representative speech acts are used to state what the speaker believes to be the case or not.

Extract

Prosecutor: "Did you enter the complainant's premises prior to the incident?"

Accused person: "Yes, I did."

Furthermore, in the extract above, the speech act class of the positive politeness strategy identified is a directive speech act. It was also revealed that the directive speech act was

used to obtain information from the accused person, and this confirms Searle's 1976 assertion that directives are used to get someone to do something.

Extract

Prosecutor: "Have you been communicating with Asare on phone?"

Accused person: "That is so, before I met him at Roman School, I called him."

In furtherance, in the extract above, it was discovered that the speech act class of the positive politeness strategy used is a representative speech act. It was also discovered that the representative speech act was used to for assertion and to express what one believes, and this is in affirmation with Searle's 1976 position that representative speech acts are used to state what the speaker believes to be the case or not.

In whole, it was discovered from the extracts above that the speech act class of the positive politeness strategy include declarative, representative, and directive speech acts. The declarative speech act as institutional pronouncement and this is in line with Searle's 1976 assertion that declaratives are used for institutional pronouncement. Again, it was also discovered that the representative speech act was used to for assertion and to express what one believes, and this is in affirmation with Searle's 1976 view that representative speech acts are used to state what the speaker believes to be the case or not. Lastly, it was also found that the directive speech act was used to obtain information from the addressee, and this confirms Searle's 1976 assertion that directives are used to get someone to do something.

4.3.3 Speech Act and Function of Negative Politeness

In the first extract, the negative politeness "Yes, My Lord", is representative speech act, and this is used to assert what the accused person says. This extract was obtained from the 2020 criminal case 1.

In the extract two, the witness uses negative politeness of avoiding imposing on the plaintiff in his explanation, and this is expressed in the form of representative speech act and this functions as assertion. This extract was obtained from the 2020 civil case 2.

In the third extract, the plaintiff's use of negative politeness of hedging in the expression "No, I was on remand" is a representative speech act and this is used to tell what is believed to be the fact. This extract was obtained from the 2022 criminal case 1.

In the fourth extract, the negative politeness by the prosecutor through the use of "can" in the expression "Can you mention the alleged police officer?" represents the use of directive speech act and this directive act is used to ask for answer. This extract was obtained from the 2022 criminal case 1.

In the last extract, the negative politeness by the prosecutor through the use of "can" in the expression "*Can you tell the court the number of days you took to do that?*" represent the use of directive speech act and this directive act is used to ask for answer. This extract was obtained from the 2022 criminal case 1.

Extract

Prosecutor: "*You employed the person who allegedly sold the cylinder to you.*"

Accused person: "*Yes, My Lord.*"

In the preceding extract, the speech act class of the positive politeness strategy is the representative speech act. According to Searle (1976), representative speech acts are those speech acts that state what the speaker believes to be the case or not. In the same way, in the extract, the representative speech act functions as assertion and what one believes. This corroborates with Searle's assertion that representative speech acts state what someone believes to be the case or not.

Extract

Plaintiff: “You have omitted ...Willian Salifu from ... allegation about because you want Defendant to sell my land to you.”

Witness: “You brought a signed receipt to me without me seeing Willian Salifu. Till today, I do not know Willian Salifu.”

In the above extract, the speech act class of the positive politeness strategy is the representative speech act. According to Searle (1976), representative speech acts are those speech acts that state what the speaker believes to be the case or not. In the same way, in the extract, the representative speech act functions as assertion and what one believes.

Extract

Prosecutor: “Were you in Nsawam serving a jail sentence?”

Accused person: “No, I was on remand.”

In the preceding extract, the speech act class of the positive politeness strategy is the representative speech act and. According to Searle (1976), representative speech acts are those speech acts that state what the speaker believes to be the case or not. In the same way, in the extract, the representative speech act functions as assertion and what one believes.

Extract

Prosecutor: “Can you mention the alleged police officer?”

Accused Person: “I did ... and he used an informer ...Kasoa Police.”

In the above extract, the speech act class of the positive politeness strategy is the directive speech act. The directive speech act also functions as question that seeks the addressee to provide information, and this is in line with Searle’s 1976 assertion that directive speech acts are used to get someone to do something.

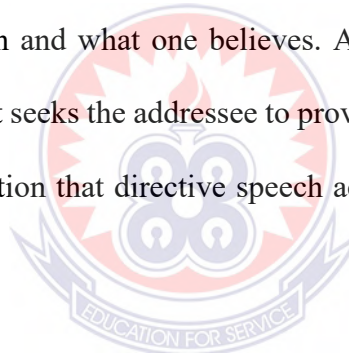
Extract

Prosecutor: “Can you tell the court the number of days you took to do that?”

Accused Person: “Only one day, with the police.”

In the above extract, the speech act class of the positive politeness strategy is the representative directive speech act. The directive speech act also functions as question that seeks the addressee to provide information, and this is in line with Searle’s 1976 assertion that directive speech acts are used to get someone to do something.

In totality, in the preceding extracts, the speech act classes of the positive politeness strategies are the representative speech act and directive speech act. According to Searle (1976), representative speech acts are those speech acts that state what the speaker believes to be the case or not. In the same way, in the extract, the representative speech act functions as assertion and what one believes. Also, the directive speech act also functions as question that seeks the addressee to provide information, and this is in line with Searle’s 1976 assertion that directive speech acts are used to get someone to do something.



4.3.4 Speech Act and Function of Off-record Politeness

The speech act class used in this off-record politeness strategy of ambiguity “It is quite a distance” is a representative act and this is used by the accused person to sound ambiguous without committing himself. The extract was obtained from the 2022 criminal case 1 data.

Extract

Prosecutor: “Can you tell the court where you saw the complainant?”

Accused: “I saw the complainant at the bank.”

In the above extract, the speech act of the off-record politeness is representative speech act, and this is used to by the speaker to express what he believes, and this corroborates

with Searle's 1976 statement that representative speech acts are used to express what he believes is true or not.

4.4 Chapter Summary

The chapter has extensively dealt with the analysis and discussion of the data. The first question which sought to find out the types of politeness strategies used in the data by the cross-examiners and cross-examinees, have been duly answered. The data revealed that four types of politeness strategies were used and these include bald on, positive, negative, and off-record politeness strategies. The second question which sought to find out the rules or codes of conduct that guide the expression of politeness in the data is also answered. The data revealed the rules or codes of conduct that guide the expression of politeness in the courtroom. The last question which aimed at finding the speech act class and function of the identified politeness strategies, has also been answered. In the data, it was found that the directive, representative and declarative speech acts were employed in the politeness strategies. It was further discovered that the directive speech act was mostly used for ordering or commanding, requesting, answering and questioning whereas the representative speech act was used for assertion, statement, description, and telling what the speaker believed was true or not. Finally, the declarative speech act was also identified to be used for institutional pronouncements.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

5.0 Introduction

This chapter caters for the summary of findings, the conclusion, and the recommendations of the study. The various parts that this chapter covers include: summary of major findings, conclusion, recommendations, suggestions for future research, and chapter summary.

5.1 Summary of Major Findings

First, the major findings of the study reveal that cross-examiners and cross-examinees make use of politeness strategies during cross-examinations and these include bald-on, positive, negative, and off-record politeness strategies. The findings of the current study further reveal that positive politeness is the most widely used politeness strategy in the courtroom by cross-examiners and cross-examinees. The negative politeness strategy is the second widely used strategy. Additionally, the bald-on politeness strategy is the third in terms of its frequent usage. Lastly, the off-record politeness strategy is the least used politeness strategy in the data.

Second, the findings of the study also reveal that there are a number of rules or codes of conduct that guide the use of politeness in the courtroom. It was further revealed that rules or codes of conduct such as “Magistrate may disallow a question” guided the choice of politeness strategies such as negative and positive politeness strategies. Again, “Guilty of contempt by negative behaviour” governed the use of politeness strategies such as negative, positive, and off-record. Moreso, “Courteous conduct in

court” as a rule or code of conduct guided the use of negative and positive politeness. Finally, “Offensive remarks” as a rule or code of conduct guided the use of positive politeness.

Third, the study also found out that there were a number of speech act classes, and their respective functions that emerged from the expression of the various politeness strategies. In the data, it was found that the positive politeness strategy was used as directive, representative and declarative speech act classes. The directive speech act functioned as questions and order. Also, the representative speech act played the function of description, statement, believe, and assertion. The declarative speech act functioned as question and institutional pronouncement.

Again, the data revealed that the negative politeness was used as directive and representative speech act classes. The directive speech act class functioned as question and the representative speech act functioned as assertion, believe, and apology.

Furthermore, it was also found from the data that the bald on-record politeness was used as directive speech act class. The functions of the directive speech act class include command, order and request.

Lastly, it was also found out that the off-record politeness was used as representative speech act and it functioned as an answer.

Comparing the current study with other studies on politeness, the findings of this study confirm the studies conducted by Yibifu (2020); Isabella et al (2022); Marilina (2018); Njuki and Ireri (2021); Anuar and Ngadiran (2021); Adel et al. (2016); Luthfi (2022); Sarfo-Adu and Osei (2021); Ammaida (2020); and Yulandari (2022) who found out that positive politeness was the dominant politeness strategies used as against the other strategies.

Again, the current study also confirms the study conducted by Liao (2019) whose study centred-on politeness in the courtroom language in both criminal and civil trials in China. The findings of Liao (2019) revealed that there were various strategies and forms of politeness employed by the participants in the courtroom trial, and this appears to confirm the current study because the current study has also identified various politeness strategies and forms used among cross-examiners and cross-examinees.

5.2 Conclusion

This study on the politeness strategies used in court during cross-examinations revealed that the four politeness strategies were used and that these strategies were used for various reasons. It is believed that this research has contributed to an understanding of the types of politeness strategies courtroom cross-examiners and cross-examinees use, the rules or codes that guide the use of such politeness strategies, and the speech act class and functions that they tend to project.

It is concluded that the expression of politeness is paramount in courtroom discourse and so courtroom cross-examiners and cross-examinees such as judges/magistrates, lawyers, defendants, plaintiffs, accused persons, among others, must endeavour to observe politeness in their utterances so as to avoid threatening the face of others.

5.3 Recommendations

The following are recommendations that this study makes:

- a) It is recommended that researchers should liaise with the Judicial Service of Ghana to organize training for professionals such as judges, magistrates and lawyers on the different types of politeness strategies and how they are used in order for them to improve communication in their professional roles.

- b) It is recommended that policymakers should consider enacting or incorporating guidelines for the use of politeness strategies in their policies and procedures so as to promote respectful and effective communication among staff, stakeholders, and other court-users.
- c) Finally, it is recommended that researchers create awareness to professionals such as judges, magistrates and lawyers to be aware of the different speech act classes and functions of politeness strategies and how they are used in communication so that they can choose the appropriate strategies for different situations and achieve their communicative goals effectively.

5.4 Implications of the Study

- a) Policymakers and legal institutions can benefit from an understanding of politeness strategies in shaping policies and practices that promote respectful and effective communication in the legal system.
- b) Educators can incorporate insights from the study of politeness in legal discourse into legal education curricula to help students develop effective communication skills.
- c) Understanding politeness strategies can help legal professionals communicate more effectively with clients, colleagues, judges, and other stakeholders

5.5 Suggestions for Future Research

- a) It is suggested that future researchers delve more into the politeness strategies used among cross-examiners and cross-examinees by recording sections of courtroom trial proceedings and using them as data instead of relying solely on

the court records written by the judge or magistrate as was done in this current study.

- b) It is also suggested that future research on politeness strategy is conducted in different courts across Ghana on the same topic since the current study was only limited to Winneba District Court.
- c) Finally, it is suggested that future research is conducted to compare and contrast the politeness strategies used by cross-examiners and cross-examinees to determine any patterns or differences in their usage.



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