

## **CHAPTER 2**

### **THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK**

#### **2.1 Pragmatics**

Humans are social beings, it is impossible to live alone without interacting with other people to fulfill their needs. In interacting, language plays an important role in human life because language is a means of human communication in everyday life. With language, a person can convey ideas, thoughts, feelings to others, both orally and in writing

Pragmatics is a branch of linguistics that studies the meaning of language as well as semantics. The difference is that semantics studies the meaning of context-free language while pragmatics studies the meaning of context-bound language (Wijana, 1996:2). Leech (1983:6) formulates the difference between semantics and pragmatics with two statements, namely:

- (1) What does X mean ? and
- (2) What do you mean by X?

semantics is the first sentence while pragmatics is the second sentence. This explains that pragmatics is related to speakers and meaning, while semantics is only a property of speech in language, regardless of the situation of the speaker or listener.

Furthermore, Leech (1993:8) states pragmatics is the study of how speech has meaning in situations. This means that pragmatics is related to the meaning of the utterance, where the meaning depends on the situation in which the utterance occurs. which includes the elements of the greeter and who is addressed, context, purpose, illocutionary acts, speech, time, and place. Parker (1986:11) defines pragmatics as follows: Pragmatic is the study of how language is used to communicate. Pragmatic is distinct from grammar, which is the study of the internal structure of language.

Yule (2006:3) suggests that pragmatics is the study of speech intent. That is, the study of meaning conveyed by speakers and interpreted by listeners. In addition, Yule (1993:3) describes pragmatics with four definitions, (1) namely

pragmatics is the study of the speaker's intent; (2) namely pragmatics examines meaning according to the context; (3) namely pragmatics about how what is conveyed is more than what is said; (4) namely pragmatics is a field that examines the form of expression according to the distance of the relationship.

While Levinson (1983:7) provides a pragmatic definition as the study of language from a functional perspective, which tries to explain aspects of linguistic structure by referring to non-linguistic stresses and causes, namely its relationship to the context of its use. Based on some of the definitions above, it can be concluded that pragmatics is a study that discusses the speaker's intentions and is interpreted by the interlocutor.

## **2.2 Context**

Language cannot be separated from its context. The role of the context that surrounds the occurrence of a conversation or utterance is important in order to understand the meaning of the utterance. If we ignore the context, the conversation or utterance will not be able to give birth to meaning and difficult to interpret. The importance of context in language can be seen from the opinion of Malinowsky (in Halliday and Hasan, 1985:6) which states that there are two meanings of context, namely the context of the situation and the cultural context. The context of the situation is the situation in which the text is spoken. While the cultural context is the cultural or historical background behind the perpetrators.

According to Leech (1999:13) context is a relevant aspect of the physical or social setting of an utterance. Context is the background knowledge shared by speakers and listeners in understanding their speech. Meanwhile, Levinson (1985:24) shows the importance of context which is included in the definition of pragmatics, as a study of the ability of language users to pair sentences with appropriate contexts. That is, the role of context in language is studied in pragmatics. It is necessary to pay attention to the context that surrounds the conversation.

From the statement above, it can be concluded that the context of speech linguistic studies is a study that discusses all elements outside of language that surround an utterance, both physical aspects or social settings. So utterance has

meaning if it is accompanied by context that is understood together between speakers and listeners.

Context can be used to interpret an utterance and can also be determined by the speech partner. This means that context can help understand the meaning of the speaker's message. Hymes in Nurhaidah (2014:44) provides convenience in communication patterns by using a lattice classification known as SPEAKING. Each letter is an abbreviation for a communication component which describes the eight classifications of the analysis of communicative patterns: S (= Setting and Scene), P (= Participant), E (= End), A (= Act sequence), K (= Key), I (= Instrument), N (= Norm), and G (= Genre).

- a) Setting and Scene, in this case the setting relates to the time and place where the speech takes place, while the scene refers to the situation of place and time, or the psychological situation of the conversation. Different times, places, and speech situations can lead to the use of different language variations.
- b) Participants are parties involved in speech activities, can be speakers and listeners, greeters and addressees, or senders and recipients (messages). Two people having a conversation can switch roles as speaker or listener.
- c) Ends, refers to the intent and purpose of the speech. For example, a speech event that occurs in a court room intends to resolve a case, but the participants in the speech event have different goals. The prosecutor wants to prove the defendant's guilt while the lawyer tries to defend that the defendant is innocent, and the judge tries to give a fair decision.
- d) Act sequence refers to the form of speech and the content of the speech. This form of speech is related to the words used, how they are used, and the relationship between what is said and the topic of conversation.
- e) Key refers to the tone, manner, and spirit in which a message is conveyed, for example happily, seriously, arrogantly, mockingly, and so on. This can also be shown by gestures and gestures. Instrumentalities, refers to the language used, such as spoken, written, by telegraph or telephone.
- f) Instrumentalities also refer to the speech code used, such as language, dialect, fragment, or register.

- g) Norm, refers to the norms or rules in the interaction. For example, relating to the way of interrupting, asking questions, and so on. In addition, it also refers to the norms of interpretation of the speech of the interlocutor
- h) Genre, refers to the type of delivery form, such as narration, poetry, proverbs, prayers, and so on

### **2.3 Politeness Strategies**

Before discussing politeness strategies, first understand what is meant by politeness. According to Leech (1983:16) as interpersonal rhetoric, pragmatics still requires other principles besides the cooperative principle, namely the principle of politeness. Yule (1966:60) argues that politeness in an interaction can be defined as a tool used to show awareness of other people's faces. The face here is a person's personal form in society. In this case, politeness can be enhanced by social distancing situations.

Holmes (1996:5) defines politeness as behavior that actively expresses positive concern for others, as well as behavior that does not impose a distance, because inappropriate linguistic choices can be considered rude. Meanwhile, Brown and Levinson (1987: 61) explain that politeness is related to a psychological state, something that is emotionally implanted and can be lost, maintained, or enhanced and must always be considered in interactions.

When people interact and communicate with others, speakers and listeners want to maintain their positive and negative faces. Brown and Levinson (1987:61) define face as the public self-image that a person wants for himself, divided into two senses, namely, a negative face, or the desire for autonomy and a positive face, or the desire for connection with others.

#### **a) Negative Face**

Brown and Levinson (1987:62) state that each member's desire to be independent and not hindered by others is known as a negative face. That is, every individual has a desire to be free from coercion and obstacles to his actions. In other words, negative face refers to a person's freedom to perform some actions. Brown and Levinson (1987:61) also explain that negative politeness is a basic claim to territory, personal protection, and the right not to interfere. This involves

areas such as wanting others to like the same things, agreeing with others, and expressing solidarity.

b) Positive Face

Positive face is a term used to denote an individual's desire or desire which refers to a state of being appreciated and approved. Brown and Levinson (1987:61) state that positive face is a state when an individual wants his or her wishes to be approved and appreciated by others. This means that individuals want to be recognized, appreciated, and liked by others. This involves areas such as avoiding imposing on others, wanting to complete actions without interference from others, expressing respect for others, and expecting respect from others. In other words, a positive face is a behavior that expresses warmth towards the other person.

Furthermore, Brown and Levinson (1987:65) define a politeness strategy as a strategy that is concerned with saving hearer's face by formulating an expression that is less threatening to hearer's face. Politeness strategy is a strategy adopted by speakers and listeners to avoid and minimize Face Threatening Acts (FTA) that occur in communication. Face Threatening Acts (FTA) are threats that generally require a mitigating statement or some verbal/polite redress (Brown & Levinson, 1987:66). Politeness is a form of strategic behavior that the speaker performs, by considering the potential threat to hearer.

Politeness strategy is a communication strategy that emphasizes polite speech and actions. Brown and Levinson (1987:92) categorize into four main politeness strategies, namely bald on record, negative politeness, positive politeness, and off record. Bald on record is applied when the speaker does not minimize the threat to hearer's face. Positive politeness is a strategy that pays attention to how to meet hearer's positive face. Negative politeness is a strategy that pays attention to how to meet hearer's negative face. Off record is a strategy that allows the speaker's speech to be ambiguous and therefore leaves the speaker not responsible for his or her actions.

Furthermore, Brown and Levinson (1987:65) also state that the most impolite politeness strategies were bald on record strategies and following the ways were positive politeness strategies, negative politeness strategies, and off



record strategies. Bald on record is a strategy where the FTA is stated explicitly without any corrective action. On the other hand, Off record is a strategy where the FTA is implicitly stated. Positive politeness is oriented to hearer's positive face, the positive self-image that hearer claims for himself. Negative politeness is oriented mainly to partial satisfaction of hearer's negative face or wanting to maintain territorial claims and self-determination. The following sections will discuss a more in-depth explanation of positive and negative strategies

### **2.3.1. Positive Politeness Strategy**

Positive politeness strategy is an attempt to minimize damage to the face of the other person. Holtgraves (2002:47) defines that positive politeness is a strategy-based approach. This strategy demonstrates awareness of hearer's needs which includes things like praise and friendly greetings. Brown and Levinson (1987:70) state that positive politeness is a compensation that is addressed to a positive face, the desire to be approved, accepted, and wanted. This type is usually found to reduce the distance between the speaker and hearer.

Brown and Levinson (1987:101-129) have classified the substrates of positive politeness strategies into three major substrate mechanisms. This mechanism demands equality, conveys that speaker and listener are cooperators, and fulfills the wishes of hearer.

a) Noticing hearer's interests, wants, needs, and good.

This strategy suggests that speakers pay attention to or pay attention to aspects of hearer's condition. It can be in the form of sympathy, attention or even praise (Brown and Levinson, 1987:103).

For example: "We ate too many beans tonight, didn't we?"

The example above shows that the speaker is paid attention to the hearer. It indicates that the speaker notices the hearer is condition.

b) Exaggerating interest, approval, and sympathy with the hearer.

This strategy can be done by saying something in a way that is higher than the actual status by using an exaggerating adjective (Brown and Levinson, 1987:104).

For example: "What a fantastic house you have!"

The example above shows that the speaker exaggerated her or his compliment about the hearer's house. The word "fantastic" implied that the hearer has a great house.

- c) Intensifying interest to hearer, making good story, draw hearer as a participant into the conversation.

This strategy is used for the speaker to the hearer that she or he wants intensify the interest of speaker is by making a good story (Brown and Levinson, 1987:106).

For example: "I come down the stairs, and what do you think I see? A huge mess all over the place, the phone is off the hook and clothes are scattered all over."

- d) Using in-group identity markers.

This strategy is done by using in-group identity markers are address form, language dialect, jargon, and slang to indicate that speaker and hearer belong to some of persons who share specific wants (Brown and Levinson, 1987:107).

For example: "Come here, guys!"

The example above shows that the speaker used in-group identity markers by saying "guys" intended to the hearer.

- e) Seeking agreement.

This strategy is to seek for hearer's agreement by raising "safe topic" that the hearer will agree with (Brown and Levinson, 1987:112).

For example: "Is not your new car has a beautiful color?"

The example above showed that the speaker says a comment to a neighbor's new car. The speaker raises the topic which is safer instead of stating the unsafe topic.

- f) Avoiding disagreement.

This strategy showed that avoiding disagreement by stating false agreement, indirect agreement, white lies, and hedging (Brown and Levinson, 1987:113).

For example:

A : That is where you live, California?

B : That is where I was born.

The speaker asked for information to the hearer whether she lived there or not. Instead of claiming what the speaker says as a mistake, the speaker states that she was born there. The hearer answered by avoiding disagreement.

- g) Presupposing to raise and assert common ground.

This strategy explains that presupposing is the act of believing something is true before it is proven (Brown and Levinson, 1987:117).

For example: “I had a really hard time learning to drive, didn’t I?”

- h) Joking.

This strategy is a basic positive politeness technique used to minimize the face threatening acts (FTA). Therefore, it is the form of claiming common ground (Brown and Levinson, 1987:124).

For example: “How about lending me this heap of junk?”

- i) Presupposing speaker’s knowledge of and concern for the hearer’s want.

This strategy aims to presuppose what the hearer's desire according to the speaker's knowledge toward what hearer's want (Brown and Levinson, 1987:125).

For example: “I know you love roses but the florist didn't have anymore, so I brought you geranium instead.”

- j) Promise.

This strategy means that when the speaker makes a promise to the hearer, the speaker has the intention to fulfill the hearer's want (Brown and Levinson, 1987:125).

For example: “I will treat you next week.”

The speaker promises to the hearer that she or he would treat next week.

- k) Being optimistic.

In this strategy, the speaker becomes optimistic regarding the willingness of the hearer to fulfill or wants to do something for the speaker (Brown and Levinson, 1987:126).

For example: “You will lend me your car, right?”



The example above shows that the speaker was optimistic that hearer would lend her or him a car.

l) Including both speaker and hearer in an activity

This strategy aims to make the speaker and hearer involve both of them in the activity and eventually become cooperators. This strategy uses an inclusive “we” form, when the speaker really means “you” or “me” (Brown and Levinson, 1987:127).

For example: “Let us have a coffee, then.”

The example above shows that actually the speaker wants the hearer to have a coffee. The speaker's request used inclusive “we” form “let's”. The request will be more polite because it indicates the cooperation between the speaker and the hearer.

m) Giving and asking for reason

This strategy shows that the speaker and hearer are cooperators through the act of asking and giving reason (Brown and Levinson, 1987:128).

For example: “Why do not we go to the market?”

n) Assuming or asserting reciprocity

This strategy can be done by creating mutual advantages among the speaker and the hearer (Brown and Levinson, 1987:129).

For example: “I will lend you dictionary if you lend me your book.”

A reciprocity is a behavior in which two people give each other help or advantages. In the example above, the speaker wants to lend the hearer her or his dictionary if the hearer lends the speaker a book.

o) Giving gifts to hearer can be in the form of goods, sympathy, understanding and cooperation.

This strategy shows that the speaker can satisfy hearer's positive face by actually satisfying some of the hearer's wants (Brown and Levinson, 1987:129).

For example: “I just know that your dog died yesterday. I am sorry to hear that.”

The speaker gave a gift to the hearer by giving sympathy and understanding.

### 2.3.2. Negative Politeness Strategy

Brown and Levinson (1987) define negative politeness as corrective action directed at the recipient's negative face: his desire for freedom of action is not hindered and his attention is not hindered. That is, compensation concerns the freedom of action and the autonomy of hearer. Negative politeness focuses on minimizing certain impositions imposed by an FTA. This strategy presupposes that the speaker will impose on hearer. The negative face is the desire to have freedom of action. (Brown and Levinson, 1987:130-211) have classified ten sub-strategies of negative politeness strategies, namely:

a) Be direct.

This strategy includes indirect speech acts that contain indirect requests. When the speaker produces speech that is in accordance with negative politeness, it means that the speaker wants to achieve what he wants through FTA but also wants to improve it (Brown and Levinson, 1987:130).

For example, "Can you please pass the salt?"

b) Do not assume/assume hearer.

This strategy is carried out by not assuming and assuming that the FTA is desired or accepted by listeners. This strategy is question and hedge. Hedges can serve to soften orders and turn them into polite suggestions (Brown and Levinson, 1987:144).

For example, "Will not you open the door?"

c) Be pessimistic.

Do not force hearer means the speaker does not persuade hearer to do something by force. This can be done by stating an option for hearer not to take the action. This can also be done assuming that hearer does not want to perform the action (Brown and Levinson, 1987:173).

For example, "Could you jump over that five-foot fence?"

d) Minimizing the imposition.

This strategy is used to minimize coercion or threats to hearer's negative

face. Minimization can be done by choosing a few words that indicate the minimum state of a thing (Brown and Levinson, 1987:176).

For example, "Could I borrow your pen just for a minute".

e) Giving difference.

This strategy explains that making a difference is an act of humbling oneself and fulfilling hearer's desire to be appreciated. This can be done by using a special form of addressing someone who is superior (Brown and Levinson, 1987:178).

For example, "Excuse me sir, would you mind if I close the window?"

f) Apologizing.

By apologizing, speakers can show reluctance to threaten the other person's face or hit the other person (Brown and Levinson, 1987:187).

For example, "I am sorry to bother you, but please tell him to call me tonight."

g) Impersonalize the speaker and listener in the conversation.

This strategy has to do with avoiding the pronouns 'I' and 'U' (Brown and Levinson, 1987:190).

For example, "Do this for me."

h) State the FTA as an example of a general rule.

This strategy shows that the speaker does not want to override hearer. The speaker removes the fact that afflicts hearer by emphasizing the idea that the action is a general rule (Brown and Levinson, 1987:206).

For example, "I am sorry, but late-comers cannot be seated till next interval.."

i) Nominalizing.

Nominalizing is the act of changing a verb into a noun in a sentence. By doing this strategy, the speaker can add distance and formality. The more formal the utterance, the more visible that the speaker does not want to override hearer (Brown and Levinson, 1987:207).

For example, "It is our regret that we cannot."

j) Recorded as hearer who owe or hearer who do not owe.

This strategy is carried out by demanding speaker's debt to the speech partner or by releasing all the debt of the speech partner. Therefore, the speaker can fix the FTA (Brown and Levinson, 1987:210).

For example, " I would be eternally grateful if you would "

## **2.4 Previous Related Studies**

There have been previous relevant researchers researching politeness, their research support in this research paper is as follows:

Hasmi with a thesis research entitled "A Pragmatic Analysis Of Politeness Strategies Reflected In Nanny McPhee Movie." The purpose of study is to the types of politeness strategies used by the main character in the Nanny McPhee film and to describe the ways in which strategies are manifested in the speech used by the main character in the Nanny McPhee film. This study uses Brown and Levinson's (1987) politeness strategy theory and uses a qualitative descriptive method. The results of his research show that the positive politeness strategy has the highest frequency among other strategies because of the dialogue between family members who have close relationships and know each other very well. Second, in realizing the politeness strategy, the main characters use their own sub-strategy (Hasmi, 2013).

Aryani with a thesis research entitled "The Politeness Strategies Used by the Main Characters of Twilight Movie." The purpose of study to determine the politeness strategy used by the main character in the film Twilight and the factors that influence the main character in choosing the type of politeness strategy. This study uses the theory of politeness strategy by Brown and Levinson (1987) and uses qualitative research methods analysis. The results of his research show that the main characters in the Twilight film apply the types of politeness strategies, namely Bald on record, Positive politeness, Negative politeness, and Off record. The factors that influence the main characters in determining the type of language politeness are advantages for speakers and social variables consisting of social distance, power, and level of coercion (Aryani, 2017).

Abitza with a thesis research entitled "Analysis of Politeness Strategies Used By The Main Character In Home Alone 1." The purpose of study is to the

types of politeness strategies used by the main character in the film Home Alone 1, and to find out how the main character uses these politeness strategies. This study uses a pragmatic approach from Eva Alcon Soler and Aricia Martinez Flor (2008), and politeness theory from Brown and Levinson (1978). The method used is qualitative research and descriptive method. The results of his research show that the main character (Kevin) uses politeness strategies to protect his house from thieves and communicates with other characters. Kevin's way of using politeness strategies includes direct communication and indirect communication (Abitza, 2021).

The similarity of my research with the three previous studies above is to analysing the main character in the movie script using Brown and Levinson's (1987) politeness strategy theory, and the method used is qualitative research. While the difference lies in the object and focus of research. Overall, the object of previous research was to investigate all kinds of politeness strategies from the main character in the movie. In contrast to previous research, my research focuses on a broader description of positive politeness strategies and negative politeness strategies the main character's utterances in the movie script and their influence on the main character's utterances.