CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED TO LINGUISTICS

In this chapter, the researcher presents review of related theories and definition of some theories that would be analyze. The theories will be applied in this analysis includes theory of discourse analysis and pragmatics. Moreover, the researcher uses theory of contextual features. Then, she adds theory of speech acts which related to utterances between Mr. Han and Dre. Next, she uses theory of communication in different cultures which has tendency of using politeness strategies. The last, she also uses the politeness strategies theory to describe kinds and causes of using politeness strategies in conversation.

2.1 Theory of Discourse Analysis

Discourse is any written form or spoken language, such as a newspaper article and a conversation. Discourse analysis is analyzing the language usage, aims, and function. It means that the interpretation of the relationship between these regularities meaning and purpose is expressed. Paltridge (2006:2) states that discourse analysis means the relationships between speaker and hearer which influence to how the use of language as well as the effects of the language that is used has social identities and relations. Discourse analysis means the study of releationship between language and the context in which it used all kinds of written text and spoken data from conversation to highly institutionalized form of talk (McCharthy, 1991:5). So, discourse analysis is the written or spoken text

which focused on the language that is used between participants or speaker and hearer.

From those statements above, it can be concluded that discourse analysis is a study what the speaker means or "speaker meaning". It means that the discourse analysis focuses on the language that is used between speaker and hearer. It is clear that discourse analysis is not only a study about the way of organizing sentences and utterances but also a study and analysis about units of linguistic such as conversational in spoken or written form that are usually used in society.

2.2 Contextual feature

In a good communication, there are some parts that have to be considered. Those parts are called "contextual features". Contextual feature is some factors or parts that are involved in communication. According to Hymes in Brown and Yule (1983: 38), there are nine parts of contextual feature which are used in communication. Those parts are participants, topic, setting, channel, code, message form, event, key, and purpose. For this analysis, the researcher only uses three parts of contextual features in explaining the data. Those features are participants, topic, and setting.

2.2.1 Participants

The first part of contextual feature is participant. Participants are all of the parts who appear in a communication. Hymes in Brown and Yule (1983: 38) divides participants into three parts. They are:

2.2.1.1 Addressor, it means that the speaker or writer who produces the utterance.

2.2.1.2 Addressee, it can be called as the hearer or reader who is the recipient of

the utterance.

2.2.1.3 Audience, it is the over hearers who may contribute to the specification of

the speech event.

2.2.2 Topic

Topic is what is being talked about (Hymes in Brown and Yule, 1983:39).

From that statement, it can be concluded that topic is the theme of what people

say. When the people choose another topic in conversation based on what they

want, the conversation will change. The topic always depends on what the

participants want in a communication. For an example, the conversation between

Mr. Han and Dre in The Karate Kid movie is shown as below,

> Mr. Han : "Kung fu is for knowledge defense. Not to make war, but to
> create peace".
> Dre   : "That's not definitely what they are taught".
> Mr. Han : "No such thing as bad student, only bad teacher".

From that example above, the participants in conversation are Mr. Han and

Dre. The topic that they choose is about Kung fu. Mr. Han tells about the real

Kung fu to Dre.

2.2.3 Setting

The last part of contextual feature which is used by the researcher is setting.

Hymes in Brown and Yule (1983: 38) states that setting is where the event is

happened either in the matter of place and time or in terms of the physical

relations of the interactans with respect to posture, gesture and facial expression.

On the other meaning, setting is not only related to the place and time, but also related to the state of someone's emotion, whether the speaker shows good or bad attitude with others in communication. For an example, one of dialogues in The Karate Kid movie is shown below,

Dre   : "Mr. Han, why do you have a car in your living room?"
Mr. Han : "No street parking".

From an example above, it can be described that the participants in that conversation happens between Dre and Mr. Han. The topic is about a car which is parked in the living room. This conversation happens when Dre comes to Mr. Han home to try and learn about Kung fu. So, the place in that conversation is in Mr. Han's home.

2.3 Pragmatics

Talking about language in use, it is certainly talking about pragmatic. Pragmatics refers to the speakers meaning in communication. According to Cutting (2002:3), pragmatics is the unwritten maxims of conversation that means the speaker follows in order to cooperate and be socially acceptable to each other. In this case, pragmatics takes a socio-cultural perspective on language usage, examines the way that the principles of social behaviour which are expressed is determined by the social distance between the speakers. On the other hand, pragmatics is about the meaning of what people say rather than what words in their most literal sense might mean by themselves (Paltridge, 2006:3).

Yule (1996:3) states that pragmatics is the study of how to get communicated more than is said. This approach also necessarily explores how

listeners can make inferences about what is said in order to arrive at an interpretation of the speaker's intendeed meaning. This type of the study explores how a great deal of what is unsaid is recognized as part of what is communicated. From the definition above, it can be concluded that pragmatic is the study of speaker meaning that related to language and context. It describes that studying language via pragmatics can give the advantage, it can talk and know about people's (speaker) intended meaning in their assumptions, their purpose, and goals of their action.

2.4 Speech Act

One of the subjects of discourse analysis that studies about uttering words or sentence by performing action is speech act. Speech act is the thing people do with the language. As the speaker, they want to do thing with their language or utterances. Speech acts are the actions which are performed by people in saying something (Austin in Cutting, 2002:16). It means that the hearer must understand what the utterance means, those statements can be used to ask question, ask to do something, invite someone, promise, given suggestion, and complaint. So, the speech act refers to the purpose of the utterance when the speaker says. According to Cutting (2002:16), there are three levels or parts of speech acts, those are:

2.4.1 Locutionary Act

In daily life, especially in communicative activity, any meaningful performative utterance are produced by the speaker to the hearer to get what he or she wants. It can be called as locutionary act. According to Paltridge (2006:55),

locutionary act is stated as the literal meaning of the actual words. From Paltridge's statement, it can be concluded that locutionary act is the meaningful act that appears with what the speaker says to get response or something from the hearer meaning.

2.4.2 Illocutionary act

Illocutionary act is the intention of the speaker in uttering the words (Paltridge, 2006:55). Illocutionary acts are concerned in referring back to the acts of locutionary in the meaning of the hearer. For example, "would you give me a cup of tea?" the illocutionary of that utterance is requesting someone to do something for him. So, the illocutionary act is the hearer's meaning from the speaker's utterance.

Searle classifies the illocutionary to five types (1976:10), they are performed by representatives, directives, commissives, expressives, and declaratives.

2.4.2.1 Representative

Representative is that the speaker believes to be case or not. The speaker can express their belief into statements. Statements in here, can be fact, assertion, conclution, and description. For example: "they are busy", in this sample it can be seen that the speaker believes that his friend is busy.

2.4.2.2 Directives / Request

Directives is one of kinds of illocutionary act that the speaker uses to get something from what someone does. He says and expresses what he wants, such

as commands, order, request, and suggestion. Those expressions can be positive or negative statement. For example: 1. "don't be noisy!" , 2. "let's go!"

From those sample, it can be seen that the speaker wants someone to keep silent and go.

2.4.2.3 Commissives

Commissives is kinds of the illocutionary act that the speaker uses to commit himself to some future action. He expresses what he intends to do. They are promises, threats, refusals, and pledge. They can be performed by the speaker or hearer as a member of conversation.

For example: "I will love you more and more"

2.4.2.4 Expressives

Expressive is kinds of the illocutionary act that states what the speaker feels. He expresses psychological states and can be statements of pleasure, pain, like, dislike, joy, or sorrow. Those expressions can be the speaker's experience.

For example: "I'm happy to hear that"

2.4.2.5 Declaratives

Declarative is kinds of illocutionary act of the speaker that changes the world via his utterance. The speaker who says it must have the power to do so.

For example: A priest says, "I pronounce you man and wife" it means that the status of the people that is pronounced will change unmaried to couple married.

2.4.3 Perlocutionary Act

Paltridge (2006:55) states that the perlocutionary act is the effect of the

utterance. Illocutionary acts can be called as the result or an effect from the locution and illocution. This act will be shown by the hearer or partner's speech. The purpose of the locution and illocution will be raised if the hearer understands and does what the speaker says or wants. For example, "would you give me a cup of tea?" if the hearer understands, without saying "yes, I would", the tea has been given by the hearer.

2.5 Politeness

In human life, politeness can not be avoided. People can choose between polite or not in their life, it can be in verbal and non verbal ways. According to Huang (2008: 97), politeness is a regardness as a restraint apart from being a means to an end, some kinds of social norms are imposed by the conventions of the community of which as members. He also adds that politeness is universal, it can be observed as a phenomenon in all cultures. It is resorted by speakers of different language means to an end and it is recognized as a norm in all societies. On the other hand, different people hold different views about politeness. Politeness can be infuenced by cultures, it means that every culture holds different views about politeness.

2.5.1 Politeness and Cross Culture Communication

One of the things which influences politeness is the way in communication, it can be spoken or written. Every person is possibe to not have similar views about politeness because of differences culture. Gibson in Gamsriegler (2005:2) said that culture can be described as a shared system of attitudes, beliefs, values, and behavior.

According to Paltridge (2006:53), the ways in which people do are influnced by varies across culture. He also adds that the study of the use of language across culture is called cross- cultural pragmatics. Cross- cultural pragmatics study investigates the use of cross- cultural of speech acts. In cross-cultural pragmatics, Paltridge (2006:66) states that the ways in which people's speech acts, and what they mean by what they say when they perform them, often varies across cultures. According to Hall in Gamsriegler (2005: 3), there are communication differences in culture. They are divided into two kinds, high and low-context communication.

2.5.1.1 High-Context Communication

Based on Hall in Gamsriegler (2005:4), a high-context communication is a large part of the meaning which lies in the physical context, which includes facial expressions, tone, and gestures. As a result, Hall also states in Gamsriegler that in high communication, the message itself carries a less information. It means that people do not want to say explicitly what they want to convey (2005:4). The statement above can be concluded that a communication in high-context is implicit. It means that the people implicitly say what they want to convey by beating around a bush in their communication.

According to Hall's statement in Gamsriegler (2005:4), some models of examples which are related to high-context cultures in Asia are Japan and China. Furthermore, Hall states in Gamsriegler that a culture which is considered as high-context also uses a high-context communication. Gu in Huang (2008:96) believed that there are four aspects of Chinese politeness conception which is called as

limao, they are: respectfullnes, modesty, attitudinal warmth, and refinement.

2.5.1.2 Low-context communication

According to Hall in Gamsriegler (2005:3), a low-context communication is a large part of the meaning into explicit code. As a result, Hall also adds in Gamsriegler that the spoken word in low-context communication carries most of the meaning, it means that people do not want to say implicitly what they want to convey (2005:3). The statement above can be concluded that a communication in low-context is explicit, it means that the people explicitly say what they want to convey without beating around a bush in their communication.

According to Hall's statement in Gamsriegler (2005:4), some models of examples related to low-contect cultures in America is United States. Furthermore, Hall states in Gamsriegler that a culture which is considered as low-context also uses a low-context communication (2005:4).

2.5.2 Cultural Communication differences in America and Asia.

Different views of values is caused of different culture, which affect the criteria of politeness and leads to differences in various aspects (Huang, 2008:98). The different cultures make the world separates into various section of communication. The differences can be seen from the habit of each nation, it is employed in theses following aspects,

2.5.2.1 Ways to praise others

Huang (2008: 99) gives an example of ways to praise others, it can be seen from the dialogue below. It is about a Chinese who wants to praise the room settings when seeing a beautiful curtain in an American's house.

Chinese: "How beautiful the curtain is!"
Hostess: "I made it on my own".
Chinese: "Really? I can not believe it!".

In the dialogue above, the Chinese shown his surprising that he liked the curtain. This strategy works well in China, but can insult the American because he thought that the Chinese did not believe in his ability of doing it. Americans are mostly very confident about themselves. In general, the westeners, include American, prefer to be praised of their house, garden, car, wife, decoration, room arrangements, and the other, especially something which is created by their their own hands, except their children's beauty or intelligence that is considered as leading the kids to be vanity.

2.5.2.2 Ways to express thanks

The way of expressing thanks between China and America, which is one of western contries, is different. Based on Huang's statement (2008:99), American people prefer to convey their thanks directly while Chinese people prefer to minimize themselves to say "thanks" with indirect words. For example,

(a) There is an utterance that shows of praising "How beautiful your dress is!". American will give an answer, "thanks a lot!", while Chinese will say "really? It is just an ordinary dress".

(b) When appreciating a help. American will say, "you are really a great help to me", "I can not imagine how I can manage it without you!", "I really appreciate your help", but Chinese will show his appreciation by saying "sorry to have wasted your time", "sorry for having taken up your precious time".

From both of the dialogues above, it can be concluded that American explicitly say "Thanks" to appreciate a help, while Chinese implicitly say "thanks" with choosing indirect words.

2.5.2.3 Ways to express apologizes

According to Paltridge (2006:59), an apologizing for something in English, that as a english speaking like America, means that they are responsible for what has been done and actually said "I'm sorry" are sincere in what they say and will do something to rectify the situation. However, it is more helpful rather than yes or no.

2.5.2.4 Gift-giving

Brown and Levinson (1987:103) classified gift-giving as politeness strategy. Gift-giving in English that also includes high-context culture, like America that means to show a closeness and rapport with someone else. It is possible to spend a lot of time deciding what to buy for the gift (Paltridge, 2006:75). While, for Japanese, as an Asian people that include high-context culture like Chinese, there are times when gift-giving may mean something quite different from this and be more of a social ritual.

2.5.3 Politeness and Culture values

Different culture also creates the different way of politeness than in giving culture values. Culture values in America is certainly different with China, both of them will hold views of culture values in politeness context. The point of differences is arranged as in this following below,

2.5.3.1 Considerations of privacy

According to Huang statement (2008:99), privacy is regarded as more important value in english speaking culture or America culture than in China. It is usual that a conversation in China may include age, marriage, family, occupation, and even incomes to show warmth and concern for others, but those elements are considered as privacy to Westeners and may be taken as an insult.

2.5.3.2 Considerations of taboos

In daily conversation, there are many mentioned items which may be looked as taboos. Based on Huang (2008:100), there are many taboos in Western, such as questions about religions, salary, children, marriages, sex, and the other taboos. Meanwhile, taboos in China are when in the Spring Festival as example, people forbid to say "broken" and "death".

2.6 Politeness Strategies

In discussing politeness strategies, face is the most important thing to be considered since it is needed into consideration for being polite to other people. Brown and Levinson (1987:61) states that face is the public self image that every member wants to claim for himself. There are two kinds of "face", they are negative face that every person wants to show about a freedom of action and freedom from imposition. Positive face means that every person wants to be appreciated and approved.

Politeness strategies are strategies that are used to minimize or avoid the Face Threatening Acts (FTAs) that a speaker makes (Brown and Levinson, 1987:91). According to Brown and Levinson (1987:74), the assesment of the seriousness of an FTA (that is, the calculations that members actually seem to

make) involves the following factors in many and perhaps all cultures. Those factors are divided to three, they are: The "social distance" (distance of speaker and hearer), The relative "power" (power of speaker and hearer), and The absolute ranking (ranking of impositions in the particular culture).

Brown and Levinson (1987:50) propose five politeness strategies, they are bald on record with two strategies, positive politeness with fifteen strategies, negative politeness with ten strategies, off record with fifteen strategies, and do not do FTA.

2.6.1 Bald on Record

Brown and Levison (1987:68) states that bald on record strategy is used by the speaker when the speaker wants to state something clearly to the hearer what intention of communication led the speaker to do. There are two kinds in bald on record strategy, but the researcher just writes one of bald on record, it is used in chapter IV.

2.6.1.1 Cases of non-minimization of the face threat

This strategy is used by the speaker to the hearer without minimizing the Face Threatning Act. Based on Brown and Levinson (1987:95), this kind of bald on record strategy is used where maximum efficiency is very important, and this is mutually known between speaker and hearer which no face are redress in necessary. By using this strategy, the great urgency or desperation is usually applied, whereas redress would actually decrease the communicated urgency.

For the example: " get up, get up! (There's a) big snake!".

2.6.2 Positive Politeness

Positive politeness is used to save and satisfy the hearer's positive face with redressive. It is usually used by the speaker to get closer to the hearer and shows that "we are same". According to Brown and Levinson (1987:103), positive politeness is not only for FTA redress, but in general it is used as a kind of social accelerator, where speaker uses them, it means that he wants to be closer to hearer. Brown and Levinson (1987: 103-129) state that the positive politeness is divided to fifteen strategies. The researcher just writes seven kinds of positive politeness strategies that are used in the data analysis. They are:

2.6.2.1 Notice, attend to the hearer (his interest, wants, needs, goods)

Brown and Levinson (1987: 103) said that this strategy suggests the speaker to take notice of aspects of hearer's condition (noticeable changes, remarkable possessions, anything which looks as though hearer would want speaker to notice and approve of it). For example:

(a) "Godness, you cut your hair! By the way, I came to borrow some flour"

2.6.2.2 Strategy 2: Exaggerate (interest, approval, sympathy with hearer)

This strategy is often done with exaggerated intonation, stress, and other aspects of prosodics, as well as with intensifying modifiers (Brown and Levinson, 1987:104). The example of exaggerate is

(b) "What a fantastic garden you have!"

2.6.2.3 Strategy 5: Seek Agreement

Speaker chooses ways to agree with hearer. Brown and Levinson (1987:112) state that seek agreement can be used with safe topics and repetition.

In the safe topics, the speaker stresses his agreement with hearer and therefore to satisfy hearer's desire to be "right", or to be corroborated in his opinions. While in repetition, the agreement may also be stressed by repeating part or all of what the preceding speaker has said in a conversation. For the example:

(c) A: "John went to London this weekend!"

   B: "To London!"

2.6.2.4 Strategy 6: Avoid disagreement

This strategy is used to minimize the disagreements or different opinion to the hearer. According to Brown and Levinson (1987: 113), avoid disagreement is divided to four ways, they are token agreement, pseudo- agreements, white lies, and hedging opinions. For this research, the researcher just presents one of the ways of avoid disagreement.

a. White lies

The speaker uses this strategy when confroting with the necessity to state an opinion, wanting to lie rather than damaging hearer's positive face. For example in response to a request to borrow a laptop:

   (d) Oh I can't, the batteries are dead

The speaker and hearer may have known that it is not true, but hearer's face is saved by not having his request refused.

2.6.2.5 Strategy 10: Offer, promise

In order to redress the potential threat of some FTAs, the speaker may choose to stress his coorporation with hearer in another way, that is by giving

offer and promise to him (Brown and Levinson, 1987:125). So, the speaker chooses this strategy to give offer or promise to satisfy hearer's positive face wants.

2.6.2.6 Strategy 11: Be optimistic

The speaker uses this strategy because he or she assumes that the hearer wants what the thing that is needed for speaker (or for speaker and hearer), and will help him to obtain them (Brown and Levinson, 1987:126). So, this strategy is used by the speaker because the speaker assumes that the hearer will do and help what the speaker wants. For example, there is a wife who talks to her husband:

(e) " Wait a minute, you haven't brushed your hair! (as husband goes out of the door)

From this example, it can be seen that the wife wants her husband to brush his hair before going out of the door, by showing what she wants and assumes that her husband wants it too (even though he may well not care), the wife puts pressure on him to cooperate with what the wife wants.

2.6.2.7 Strategy 12: Include both speaker and hearer in the activity

The speaker chooses this strategy to includes himself and the hearer in the activity by using word "we (you and me)" or "let's" (Brown and Levinson, 1987: 127). As an example, there is a man who invites a female visitor to eat in the following way, although decorum forbids that he should actually eat with her:

(f) "Shall we (inclusive) eat?.

2.6.3 Negative Politeness

Negative politeness is usually used by the speaker to show that he cares and respects the negative face of the hearer. Based on Brown and Levinson (1987:129) statement, negative politeness is redressive action that is addressed to the adressee's negative face. It is used to indicate that the speaker is aware and respect the social distance between the speaker and the hearer. Brown and Levinson (1987: 132) divided negative politeness into ten strategies, but the researcher just presents one strategy that is used in data analysis. It is:

2.6.3.1 Strategy 6: Apologize

The speaker indicates his reluctance to impinge on hearer's negative face by apologizing for doing FTA (Brown and Levinson, 1987: 187). According to Brown and Levinson (1987: 187), there are four ways to communicate regret or reluctance to do an FTA. The researcher just presents one of ways that is needed in data analysis.

a. Admit the impingement

The speaker can simply admit that he is impinging on hearer's face, with expression like:

(g) "I know this is a bore, but ...."

2.6.4 Off record

This strategy is used by speaker who wants to do an FTA, but wants to avoid the responbility for doing it, he can do it off record and leave it up to the hearer to decide how to interpret it (Brown and Levinson, 1987: 211). Brown and Levinson (1987: 213-227) also divide off record strategy into fifteen sub-

strategies. For this research, the researcher just presents two strategies which are used in data analysis. Those are:

2.6.4.1 Strategy 3: Presuppose

This strategy is choosen by speaker to presuppose that he has done it before and therefore may imply a criticism. An example:

(h) "I washed the car again today"