CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This chapter consists of many important aspects concerning the theoretical framework and the related studies.

2.1 Pragmatics

Pragmatics is communication clearly depends on not only recognizing the meaning of words in an utterance, but recognizing what speakers mean by their utterances. In many ways, pragmatics is the study of ‘invisible’ meaning, or how we recognize what is meant even when it isn’t actually said or written. Therefore, speakers (or writers) must be able to depend on a lot of shared assumptions and expectations when they try to communicate. Yule (2006:112)

Charles Morris’s in Jacob L. Mey (1993:4) states definition of pragmatics as the study of the relation of signs to interpreters (1938:6). It means that we necessary to pay attention to the context that are surrounding the happening of the conversation in order that know of the meaning in the context. Therefore Mey (1993:6) states that pragmatics is studies the use of language in human communication as determined by the conditions of society. Thus, pragmatics includes the relevant context, situation and condition, Instead of the meaning of usage. So, in communication we have to know the context of communication in order that easier in communication.

Pragmatics is one of the discussions in discourse field which concern with the language as a system, but with how to use language. Leech (1993:8) proposes the
pragmatics deals with meaning of utterance in the speaker’s point of view. It means that pragmatics is the study of meaning involving the context.

Meanwhile, Yule (1996:3) states that pragmatics is the study of contextual meaning. According to him, pragmatics is concerned with the study of meaning as communicated by a speaker (or a writer). And interpreted by a listener (or a reader) so, it involves the interpretation what people mean in the particular context and how the context influences what is said.

Based on the definition above, it can be said that pragmatics is the study of meaning contained the utterance in context. Therefore, in pragmatic view, to appreciate and to interpret the meaning of a statement or an utterance, one must consider the relation between language and context in which the situation is uttered.

Context is an important aspect in interpreting the meaning of an utterance. According to Yule, context is for interpreting words or sentences. The relevant context is our mental representation of those aspects of what is physically out there that we use arriving at an interpretation (2006:114)

From the statement above, it can be concluded that speech context of linguistics research is a context in all physical aspect or social background related with the speech, time, place, social 1ent, political condition, etc. Thus, context is a set of propositions describing the beliefs, knowledge, and commitments and so forth of the participants in a discourse to in order to understand the meaning of an utterance.

2.2 FTA (Face Threatening Acts)

Brown and Levinson (1987) stated that FTA or Face Threatening Acts means an act that threatens the positive and negative face of the hearer. For instance, when someone using insult terms such as ‘bastard’, ‘stupid’, and ‘jerk’ to another person is an impingement on his self-image, which causes a threat to the hearer’s positive face, which wants to be appreciated by everyone. When we disagree with someone’s opinion it causes a threat to his positive face, as it means that we indicate that he is wrong about something. Meanwhile, when we request someone to refrains from doing something, it threatens the negative face of the hearer, who expects to have freedom of action. Also, when we ask someone to lend us money, it causes a threat on that person’s negative face as you have imposed yourself on him, that his want to be free from being imposed has been encroached. Therefore, if we do about threaten someone’s positive or negative face, but we do not mean it, then we need to minimize it by applying politeness strategies as suggested by Brown and Levinson, 1987.

2.3 Politeness Strategies

Politeness strategies are strategies used to minimize or avoid the face threatening acts that a speaker makes. According to Brown and Levinson (1987), Politeness strategies consist of Bald on Record, Positive Politeness, Negative Politeness, and Off Record. Bald on record consists of two strategies, positive politeness consists of fifteen strategies, negative politeness consists of ten strategies, and off record consists of fifteen strategies.

a. Bald on Record
According to Brown and Levinson (1987), the prime reason for using Bald on Record is when the speaker wants to do the face threatening acts with maximum efficiency more than to satisfy hearer’s face, even to any degree. Bald on record has two classes: those where face threatening is not minimized, where face is ignored or irrelevant, and those where in doing the FTA, speaker minimizes face threats by implication. This Bald on Record consists of two strategies (Brown and Levinson 1987) as shown below:

**Strategy 1.** Cases of non-minimization of the face threat If speaker and hearer both know that maximum efficiency is important, no face redress is necessary. In cases of great urgency or desperation, redress would decrease the communicated urgency. Speaker provides metaphorical urgency for emphasis.

For example: *okay, listen, I’ve an idea

*Look, the problem is that…*

Speaker is powerful and doesn’t fear retaliation or non-cooperation from hearer, (S’s want to satisfy hearer’s face is small) For example: *bring me the food, Bri*

Speaker does care about hearer, so that no redress is required. For example: *Careful She’s a bad girl*(warning against someone who could threaten him)

**Strategy 2.** Cases of FTA-oriented Bald-on-record usage

This strategy is oriented to face. Usually, it is used in 1) welcoming (or post-greetings), where speaker insists that hearer may impose on his negative face. For example: *come in, it’s okay, I’m not busy.* In 2) farewells, where speaker insists that hearer may transgress on his positive face by taking his leave, For example: *Okay,*
I’m stay here, you go. In 3) offers, where speaker insists that hearer may impose on speaker’s face. For example: leave it to me (I’ll do it)

b. Positive Politeness

a. Positive politeness strategies

Positive politeness is used to satisfy the positive face of the hearers, desire of being liked and accepted, by regarding them as people who have close relationship with the speaker. Holmes states that positive strategy expresses solidarity and minimize status difference (1992: 297). According to Brown and Levinson positive politeness consist of fifteen strategies, they are:

Strategy 1 : Notice, attend to hearer (his interest, wants, needs and goods).

In this strategy the speaker should take notice or pay attention to the hearer’s condition, the speaker should give a response to the hearer’s condition. By doing it, the hearer will know and realize that the speaker notices to him. This kind of strategy is used by the speaker to show solidarity and make close relationship with the hearer. Therefore, the speaker can redress the FTA on the hearer.

It means to make relation come closer between speaker and hearer than the speaker must followed response the hearer in order to the hearer satisfied with something that instruction with the speaker.

Example: what a beautiful case this is! Where did it come from?

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

This strategy is often conducted with exaggerate intonation, stress, and other aspect of prosodic, as well as with intensifying modifiers.
Brown and Levinson (1987) argued that for showing his interest, approval and sympathy, the speaker can use exaggerative intonation, stress, or other aspect of prosodic, such as really, for sure, exactly, and absolutely.

Example: *what a fantastic garden you have!, how absolutely incredible!*.

**Strategy 3: Intensify interest to the hearer**

In this strategy, there is another way for the speaker to communicate to the listener that he shares some of his wants to intensify the interest of his own (the speaker) contribution to the conversation, by making a good story. This may be done by using ‘vivid explanation or description, tag question or expression that draw listener as a participant into the conversation. Such as ‘as you know?’, ‘see what I mean?’, ‘isn’t it?’

Example: *you always do the dishes! I’ll do them this time.*

A related technique is to exaggerate facts

**Strategy 4: Use in groups identity mar**

This strategy by using any of the inn ways to convey in-group membership, the speaker can implicitly claim the common ground with the listener that is carried by that definition of the group.

This strategy includes in-group usages of address forms, use of in-group language or dialect, and use of jargon or slang.

Example: *- come here, buddy (buddy mind that best friend)*

In this strategy the solidarity of the people can be seen because they are approved as the same member’s of group.
Strategy 5 : Seek agreement

Another characteristic of claiming common ground with the listener is to seek ways in which it is possible to agree with him, there are two ways: safe topics and repetition (Brown and Levinson, 1987)

Agreement may also be stressed by speaker repeating part or all of what the preceding speaker has said in a conversation and by using particles that function to indicate emphatic

In communication processes, the speaker seeks ways to agree with the hearer, when the speaker shows his agreement to the hearer means that the speaker tries to satisfy the hearer’s positive face. (Brown and Levinson, 1987) said that showing the agreement, the speaker can repeat part of all of the preceding hearer has said in conversation.

Example : Let’s go to Bali.
            : what, Bali!!

It means the speaker can repeat part of the preceding hearer has said.

Strategy 6 : Avoid disagreement

There are four ways to avoid disagreement namely by means of token agreement, pseudo agreement, white lies, and hedging opinion...

a) For instance of ‘token’ agreement are the desires to agree or appear to agree with the listener leads also to mechanism for pretending to agree (Brown and Levinson, 1987). The remarkable degree to which speakers may go in twisting their utterance so as to appear to agree or to hide disagreement to respond to a preceding utterance with ‘Yes, but…’ in effect. Rather than ‘No’.
For example:

A: *What is she, small?*

B: *Yes, yes, she’s small, smallish, um, not really small but certainly not very big.*

b) Pseudo agreement is found in English in the use of than as a conclusion marker, an indication that the speaker is drawing a conclusion to a line of reasoning carried out cooperatively with the addressee (Brown and Levinson, 1987).

For example: *we’ll be taking together then.*

c) White Lies ways happen when a speaker confronted with the necessity to state an opinion. Wants to lie rather than to damage the listener’s positive face. It is also used to avoid confrontation when refusing a request by lying, pretending there are reasons why one cannot comply (Brown and Levinson, 1987).

For example: *yes I do like your new hat! (Even speaker does not like)*

d) Hedging Opinion occurs when the speaker may choose to be vague about his own opinions, so as not to be seen to disagree (Brown and Levinson, 1987). Normally hedges are a feature of positive politeness function as well. This may be done by hedging it with several phrases such as, sort of, like, in a way.

For example: *it’s really beautiful, in a way.*

**Strategy 7 : Presuppose / rise / assert common ground**

This strategy includes three ways among them are gossip or small talk, point of view operations and presupposition manipulation.

a. Gossip or small talk the value of speaker’s spending time and effort on being with the hearer, as a mark of friendship or interest him. It gives rise to the strategy of redressing FTA by talking for a while about unrelated topic before
leads to the real topic. For example: actually the speaker wants to request with the listener and indicates that he has not come to see the listener simply to do it even though his intent might be obvious by his having brought gift to the listener.

b. Point of view operations. It is used for reducing the distance between the speaker and the listener’s point of view.

1) Personal-center switch: the speaker to the listener. This is where the speaker speaks as if the listener was the speaker, or the listener’s knowledge was equal to the speaker’s knowledge (Brown and Levinson, 1987)

For example: when the speaker gives directions to a stranger, unfamiliar with the town ‘it’s at the fare end of the street, the last house on the left, isn’t it’

2) Time switch, the use of ‘vivid present’, a tense shift from past to present tense (Brown and Levinson, 1987). The vivid present function to increase the immediacy and therefore the interest of the story.

For example: John says he really loves your roses.

3) Place switch, the use proximal rather than distal demonstrative (here, this, rather than that, there). Either proximal or distance would be acceptable, seems to convey increased involvement or empathy (Brown and Levinson, 1987)

For example: (on saying good bye) : this was a lovely party

c. Presupposition manipulation means that the speaker presupposes something that is it mutually taken for granted (Brown and Levinson, 1987)

1) Presuppose knowledge of the listener’s wants and attitudes. Negative question, which presume ‘yes’ as an answer, are widely used as a way to
indicate that the speaker knows the listener’s wants, tastes, habits, etc. and thus partially to redress the imposition of FTA.

For example: ‘Wouldn’t you like a drink?’

2) Presuppose the listener’s values being the same as the speaker’s values. For example: the use of scalar prediction such as ‘tall’ assumes that the speaker and the listener share the criteria for placing people (or things) on this scale.

3) Presuppose familiarity in speaker-listener relationship. The use of familiar address forms like honey or darling presupposes that the addressee is ‘familiar’.

4) Presuppose the hearer’s knowledge. The use of any term presupposes that the referents are known to the addressee. For example: ‘well I was watching High Life last night’. The speaker assumes that the listener does know the program even though the listener indeed does not know about the TV program. However, it may operate as an expression of good intentions, indicating that the speaker assumes that the speaker and the listener share common grounds.

**Strategy 8 : Joke**

Jokes may be used as an exploitation of politeness strategies as well, in attempts to reduce the size of the FTA. For instance the speaker may joke in order to minimize an FTA or requesting. Jokes are also used as a basic positive politeness technique for putting the listener ‘at ease’.
Joke is also useful in maintaining friendship. It is a way to share experience or knowledge through fun situations. And it is also can minimize the face threatening act of requesting.

Example: so, it is okay if I throw away your book.

**Strategy 9 : Assert or presuppose speaker’s knowledge of and concern for hearer’s intention**

This strategy is done by asserting or implying knowledge of listener’s wants and willingness to fit one’s own with them.

Example: I know you can’t bear parties, but this one will really be good, do come!

The speaker knows before asking for request and offering something to the hearer in order to make the hearer accept that request.

**Strategy 10 : Offer, promise**

In this strategy, the speaker may choose to stress his cooperation with the listener in another way. The speaker may claim that whatever the listener wants, the speaker will help to obtain the hearer’s wants. Offers and promises are natural outcomes of choosing this strategy even if they are false. They just demonstrate the speaker’s good intentions in satisfying the listener’s wants.

Example: I’ll come to your house sometime.

**Strategy 11 : Be optimistic**

In this strategy the speaker assumes that the listener wants to do something for the speaker (or for the speaker and the listener) and will help the speaker to obtain the goals because it will be in their mutual shared interest.

Example: I’m borrowing your pen for second, ok?
It means that the speaker and the hearer can share mutual interest.

**Strategy 12: Include both speaker and hearer in the Activity**

This strategy uses an inclusive ‘we’ form, when speaker really means ‘you’ or ‘me’, he can call upon the cooperative assumption and thereby redress FTAs. An inclusive ‘we’ often use with the word let’s.

Example: *Let’s go to the wedding party!*

**Strategy 13: Give or Ask for reason**

This strategy can be used for complaining or criticizing by demanding reason ‘why not’, and assuming that if there are not good reasons why the listener should not or cannot cooperate he will cooperate, for example, complaining past action. Thus, the indirect suggestion which demands rather than gives reason is a conventionalized positive politeness form.

Example: *why we don’t go to the beach?*

**Strategy 14: Assume or assert reciprocity in this strategy**

The speaker may say, in effect, ‘I’ll do X for you if you do Y for me’, or ‘I did X for you last week, so you do Y for me this week’ (or vise versa). By this strategy, the speaker may soften his FTA by negating the debt aspect and/or the face threatening aspect of speech act such as criticism or complaints.

Example: *i’ll give you bonus if you can sell these clothes.*

It means that the speaker promises to do something as long as the hearer does something for the speaker too for cooperation.
Strategy 15: Give gifts to the hearer (goods, sympathy, understanding, cooperation)

The last strategy, the speaker may satisfy the listener’s positive face want (that the speaker wants to the listener’s wants, to some degree) by actually satisfying some of the listener’s wants. Hence we have the classics positive politeness action of gift giving, not only tangible gifts but also human relation wants such as admired, listened, understood, etc.

Example: *Hey, look at me, if there is a will there is a way, so don’t give up.*

This strategy is used to increase solidarity and human relations among the speaker and hearer.

c. Negative Politeness

A person makes negative politeness in order to show that he cares and respects the negative face of his addressee that is the wants to have freedom of action and freedom of imposition. (Brown and Levinson 1987) Someone assures that he doesn’t mean to hinder on their freedom of action and imposition by humbling, being formal, and restraining himself. Negative politeness is used to indicate that the speaker is aware and respects the social distance between him or her and the hearer. Negative politeness contains 10 strategies (Brown and Levinson 1987) as seen below:

**Strategy 1. Be conventionally indirect**

-Politeness and the universality of indirect speech acts, The speaker tries to be indirect, but at the same time wants to go on record so that there can be no misinterpretation of what he means. So, speaker uses an understandable indirect speech acts. For example: *Why (the hell) are you painting your car yellow? (A critical challenge or an innocent question provoked by curiosity)*
Strategy 2. Question, hedge

It is used to modify the force of a speech act. For example: *I guess that Henny is coming*

- Hedges encoded in particles, the use of tag questions and expression like ‘I wonder’,
  
  For example: *I wonder if (you know whether) Jane went out.*

- Adverbial-clause hedges, Heringer (1972) has noted that felicity conditions might be suspended by putting them in ‘if’ clauses,
  
  For example: *close the door, if you can.*

  - Hedges addressed to Grice’s maxims, quality hedges may suggest that the speaker is not talking full responsible for the truth of his utterance,
  
  For example: *I (think) you should do it.*

  We also get expressions with clear politeness function, For example: *I mean, ya know, it’s a boring day*

Strategy 3. Be pessimistic

It gives redress to hearer’s negative face by explicitly expressing doubt that the conditions for the appropriateness of speaker’s speech act obtained. The use of the subjunctive also to be related to the satisfaction of the want.

For example: *will there bea cigarette on you?*

  *I don’t suppose there’d be any chance of you to get the job*

Strategy 4. Minimize the imposition
Speaker redresses the seriousness of the FTA to pay hearer deference. ‘Just’ conveys both its literal meaning of ‘exactly’ and ‘only’ For example: *I just want to ask you if I can borrow a tiny bit of paper Just a second (a few minute)*

**Strategy 5. Give deference**

Speaker humbles himself, his capacities, and possessions.

For example: *I know I must be absolutely stupid but I simply can’t understand this book. (In asking for help)*

A show of hesitation may accompany I TA, also seems to be self-humbling.

For example: *I think you better, uh, go to the party.*

**Strategy 6. Apologize**

-Admit the impingement, speaker simply admits that he is impinging on hearer’s face.

For example: I know you must be very busy, but…

-Indicate reluctance, speaker can attempt to show that he is reluctant to interrupt on hearer by using hedges,

For example: I don’t want to bother you, but…

**Strategy 7. Impersonalize S and H**

- Point-of-view distancing, is to use to distance speaker from hearer or from the FTA. Speaker moves as if into the future, so he distances himself from the here and now, For example: *I (hoped) I might ask you... (more polite) (Rather than) I (was wondering) if you want to go.*

‘There’ may also convey emotional distance and comforting,

For example: *there, that’s exactly the right one.*
Strategy 8. State the FTA as a general rule

Speaker indicates that he doesn’t intend to impinge (but is merely forced by circumstances) by stating the FTA as an instance of some general social rule, regulation, or obligation. So we get pronoun avoidance. For example:

*Passengers will please refrain from flushing toilets on the train* (not ‘you will please refrain from flushing toilets on the train’)

Strategy 9. Nominalize

It shows formality which is associated with the noun end of the continuum, which begin from verb through adjective to noun. For example: your good performance on the examination impressed us favorably (better than ‘you performed well on the examination and we were favorably impressed’, also better than ‘your performing well on the examination impressed us favorably’).

Strategy 10. Go on record as meaning a debt, or as not indebting H Speaker redresses an FTA by explicitly claiming his indebtedness to hearer, or disclaiming any indebtedness of hearer.

For example: *I’d be eternally grateful if you would…*(request)

*It wouldn’t be any trouble; I have to go right by there anyway* (offers)

d. Off Record

Brown and Levinson (1987) explain that off record utterances are indirect languages. It means that someone says something differently from what he or she
means and that the hearer should make some conclusions to find the meaning. If speaker wants to do an FTA indirectly, but wants to avoid the responsibility for doing it, he or she must give hints to hearer and hopes that hearer will interpret the real meaning. Off record consists of 15 strategies (Brown and Levinson 1987) as seen below:

Strategy 1. Give hints

Speaker says something that is not explicitly relevant and invites hearer to search for an interpretation of the possible relevance.

For example: it's cold in here (c.i shut the window)

What a hot day (c.i how about a drink?)

Strategy 2. Give association clues

Speaker gives a related kind of implicature by mentioning something related with the act required of hearer, either by example in their experience or by both knowledge irrespective of their interactional experience.

For example: Are you going to the market tomorrow? (Give me a ride there)

Have you bought the black shoes in the Cathay shop? (Lend it to me)

Strategy 3. Presuppose

Speaker uses the word again which may implicate criticism because he has done something before and that both speaker and hearer have agreed to share the job. Thus, the word againforces hearer to search for the relevance of the presupposed previous event.
For example: *I washed the car again today (he presupposes that he had done it before e.g last week)*

**Strategy 4. Understate**

Speaker understates what A: *what do you think of Jim?*

B: *nothing wrong with him (c.i I don’t think he’s very good)*

(The Under statement of criticism)

he actually wants to say. In the case of a criticism, speaker avoids the lower points of the scalar predicate, such as: tall, nice, good, and in the case of a compliment, or admission, speaker avoids the upper points.

**Strategy 5. Overstate**

Speaker exaggerates or chooses a point on a scale, which is higher than the real situation. For example: *There were a million of people in the Co-op tonight! (It could convey an excuse for being late)* You never do washing up (convey a criticism)

**Strategy 6. Use tautologies**

By uttering a tautology, speaker encourages hearer to look for an informative understanding of the non-informative utterance. For example: Your clothes belong where your clothes belong. My clothes belong where my clothes belong. *Look upstairs!* (Criticism)

**Strategy 7. Use contradictions**
By stating two things that contradict each other, speaker shows that he cannot be telling the truth and encourages hearer to look for an interpretation that reconciles the two contradictory things. For example: A: *are you upset about that?*

   *B: well, yes and no*

**Strategy 8. Be ironic**

By saying the opposite of what he means, speaker can indirectly express his intended meaning. For example:

*Jim’s real genius (after Jim has done twenty stupid things in a row) Lovely neighbor, eh? (In a slum)*

**Strategy 9. Use metaphors**

There is a possibility for the use of metaphor by off record, which marked with hedging particles such as: real, regular, sort of, as it were that make their status explicit. For example: *Jim’s a real fish (c.i he drinks/ swims/ is slimy/ is cold-blooded like a fish) The main things is that (he) ‘eats kicks’ (let him suffer)*

**Strategy 10. Use rhetorical questions**

Speaker asks a question with no intention of obtaining an answer; it may be used to do FTAs. For example: *how was I to know... (an excuse, c.i I wasn’t)*

   *What can I say? (Nothing, it’s so bad) (A criticism)*

**Strategy 11. Be ambiguous**

Speaker achieves a purposeful ambiguity through metaphor, For example:

Jim’s a pretty sharp cookie(it could be either a compliment or insult)

**Strategy 12. Be vague**
Speaker goes off record with an FTA by being vague about who the object of the FTA is, or what the offence is. For example:

_Looks like someone may have had too much to drink (vague understatement)_

_I’m going...you know...where..._

**Strategy 13. Over generalize**

Speaker utters a rule instantiation which may leave the object of the FTA vaguely off record. Hearer then has the choice of deciding whether the general rule applies to him. For example: _mature people sometimes help do the dishes A penny saved is a penny earned_

**Strategy 14. Displace Hearer**

“Speaker goes off record as to whom the target for his FTA is, or he may pretend to address the FTA to someone whom it wouldn’t threaten and hope the real target will see that the FTA is meant at him”. For example: _a secretary in an office asks another- but with negative politeness – to pass the stapler, in circumstances where a professor is much nearer to the stapler then the other secretary. His face isn’t threatened, and he can choose to do it himself as a bonus ‘free gift’._

**Strategy 15. Be incomplete, use ellipsis**

Speaker purposely doesn’t finish his utterance and leaves an FTA half undone, thus leaves the implicature ‘hanging in the air’, just as with rhetorical questions.

For example: _Well, I didn’t see you..._

_Well, if one leaves one’s tea on the woobly table..._
2. 4 Factors influence use of politeness strategy

The employment of politeness strategy is influenced by several factors. According to Brown and Levinson (1987 : 71) there are two factors that influence the speaker to employ politeness strategy. The factors are payoff and circumstances.

1. Payoff
The speaker employs the politeness strategy because they can get advantages. The speaker can minimize the FTA by assuring the listener that he likes the listener and wants to fulfill the listener’s wants. Thus, the listener positive face is not threatened by the speaker because it can be seen for their mutual shares. For example: let’s get on for dinner
The example above shows that the speaker can minimize the FTA (request) to the listener by including the speaker himself equally as the participant

2. Relevant circumstances
The seriousness of an FTA is also influenced by the circumstance. Sociological variables And thus to a determination of the level of politeness. According to Brown and Levinson in Rahardi (2005:68) there are three dimension to determine the level of politeness. Among them are relative power (p), social distance (D) and size of imposition (R)

a. Relative power
Power (P) in the general point is that we tend to use a greater degree of politeness with people who have power or authority over us than to
those who do not. It is based on the asymmetric relation between the speaker and the listener. These types of power are most found in obviously hierarchical settings, such as courts, the military, workplace.

For example: you would probably be more polite about conveying to your employer because she or he always arrives late, than in conveying to your brother. This is because your employer can influence your career in a positive way (reward power) or negative way (coercive way).

b. Social distance

Social distance (D) can be seen as the composite of psychologically real factors (status, age, sex, degree of intimacy etc) which together determine the overall degree of respectfulness within a given speech situation. It is based on the symmetric relation between the speaker and the listener.

For example: you feel close to someone or you know him well because he is similar in terms of age or sex then you will get closer to him and the distance rating will get smaller. As a result you will not employ polite utterance when you ask him to do something. On the contrary, you will employ polite utterance when you interact with people whom you have not known well, such as people who are older than you.

c. Size of imposition

Size of imposition (R) can be seen from the relative status between one speech act to another in a context.
For example: borrowing a car in the ordinary time will make us feel reluctant but in urgent situation it will natural. Thus, in the first context we will employ polite utterance because the situation is urgent.

2.5 Review of Related Studies

The previous study about Politeness Strategies that is quite helpful for this research. Almost 27 years (1987-2014) the theory of Brown and Levinson has been used and applied in many linguistic study and research, especially the study of politeness and any other studies related to linguistic politeness.

The writer will show the similar focus in the study. The first, the thesis titled “The Politeness Strategies used by Sebastian in the film Cruel Intention” by Anne Darsono Hadi student of English department of Petra Christian University 2000. In her study, she intends to find out the politeness strategies used by Sebastian when conversing with Kathryn and Annette, the factors for the choice of each strategy and analyze the influence of Sebastian’s relationship with Kathryn and Annette to the choice strategy. The problem of the research is whether Sebastian, the main male character in the film Cruel Intentions, uses different politeness strategies or not when conversing with two main female characters in the film; Kathryn and Annette and which strategy is used the most to each character. This problem then, leads to what factors and reasons that affect the usage of each strategy and how Sebastian’s relationship with Kathryn and Annette influences his usage of politeness strategies.

The second Politeness Strategies Used by Joe and Kathleen in You’ve Got Mail by Ilena Wongso the student of English department Petra Christian University 2005.
The writer of this study wants to discover what politeness strategies are used by Joe and Kathleen as the main characters when they speaking to each other and find out which strategy is the most used by Joe and Kathleen. Also more importantly, she wants to find out how Kathleen and Joe’s relationship influence their choice of Politeness Strategies. In addition, by doing this research the writer will get a better understanding about politeness strategies so it can minimize the misunderstanding or miscommunication between speaker and his or her interlocutors.

Third, The Study of Henry Prasetya In his study, he wanted to find out The politeness strategies used by Blanche Dubois when used conversing with Eunice and Mitch in William’s A Streetcar Named Desired. The findings showed that Blanche used negative politeness the most when speaking to Eunice and without positive politeness. He thought that Blanche the negative politeness because she wanted to keep the distance between her and Eunice. According to Prasetya, the usage of negative politeness to Eunice was inappropriate because Eunice indicated solidarity by applying positive politeness to Blanche. Furthermore, Blanche used positive politeness when speaking to Mitch. This choice of strategy was appropriate because Blanche loved Mitch, so that the usage of positive politeness could reduce the distance between them. The writer uses this study because it has similarity with her study that is both of them use written

Based on the previous study above, this research has similar study. Politeness strategies but the writer only focuses on Positive Politeness strategies in the same theory that used in this research but has different topic of object. The writer analyzes
the conversation among the characters in the movie "The Theory of Everything". In this research, the writer uses Qualitative method to analyze her research. The writer chooses that previous study to her references because it has some things that relevant with her research.