

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Theoretical Background

1. Pragmatics

a. Definition of Pragmatics

People cannot really understand the nature of a language unless they understand how it is used in communication. It is important for people to understand language because it always expresses ideas, thoughts, feeling, and the speaker's intention. One branch of linguistics which studies language as being used is called pragmatics.

There are some points of view on pragmatics. According to Yule (1996:3), firstly, pragmatics is the study of utterances as communicated by a speaker and interpreted by a hearer. Secondly, pragmatics is the study of contextual meaning. It requires a consideration of how a speaker organizes what he or she wants to say. Thirdly, pragmatics is the study of how the hearer gets the implicit meaning of the speaker's utterances. The last, pragmatics is the study of the expression of a relative distance. It is assumed as the study of the relationship between linguistics forms and the users of those forms.

In addition, Leech (1983:6) states that pragmatics is the study of meaning which is related to the speech situations. Further he explains that

pragmatics can be seen as a way to solve problems which can arise, both from the perspective of a speaker and a hearer. For example from the speaker's point of view, the problem is the planning about how to produce an utterance. On the other hand, from the hearer's point of view, the problem is related to the interpretation, which forces the hearer to be able to interpret the possible reason that makes the speaker saying the utterance.

Meanwhile, Mey (1993:42) considers pragmatics as the study of human language uses' condition, which has a close relationship with the context of society. Similarly, Levinson (1983:5) states that pragmatics is the study of the use of language in communication. In this study, people try to see the relation between language and contexts.

In conclusion, pragmatics is the study of meaning of utterances in relation to the contexts which involves how a speaker produces an utterance to deliver his or her intention and how the listener interprets it.

b. The Scopes of Pragmatics

As one of linguistics branches, pragmatics covers several scopes; they are deixis, cooperative principles, implicature, presupposition and speech acts.

1) Deixis

Deixis is concerned with the way of how language encodes features of utterances' context and also with the ways of interpreting those utterances (Levinson, 1983: 54).

Another definition of deixis is proposed by Yule (1996: 9). He states that the word deixis comes from a Greek word, to point something via language, and then he classifies it into three categories (1996: 10-14):

a) Person Deixis

Person deixis is used to point to people, for example the pronouns for first person ('I'), second person ('you'), and third person ('he', 'she', or 'it'). In many languages, this type of deixis is related to the social status (for example, addressee with a higher status versus addressee with a lower status). Expressions which indicate a higher status are described as honorifics.

b) Spatial Deixis

The second type of deixis is spatial deixis, which is used to point to location. The examples are the adverbs 'here', 'there', 'this' and 'that'.

c) Temporal Deixis

The last category of deixis proposed by Yule is temporal deixis, which is used to point to location in time. This includes time adverbs like 'now', 'then', 'soon', and etc.

2) Cooperative Principle

People use cooperative principles as their guidance, which usually performs between the speakers and hearers when they are involve in conversational interactions. According to Grice (in Leech, 1983: 7-8), "there is a general assumption underpinning all utterance interpretations". Those interpretations are influenced by a cooperative principle in which a speaker and hearer are connected into the same goals. This cooperative principle is structured by a number of maxims.

a) Maxim of Quality

The maxim of quality requires the speakers to be truthful. They should not make statement for which they have no evidence.

b) Maxim of Quantity

The maxim of quantity emphasizes the importance of information. The information delivered by the speaker should be informative (neither too little, nor too much) to make sure that the conversation will be able to proceed.

c) Maxim of Relation

This type of maxim forces the speaker to create a relevant statement which is related to the topic.

d) Maxim of Manner

The maxim of manner is done by the speaker by creating a clear and brief statement. He or she also has to avoid absurdity and ambiguity of expression.

3) Implicature

Grice (in Levinson, 1983: 31) defines implicature as “what the speaker can imply, suggest or mean as distinct from what the speaker literally says”. Thus, to understand a speaker’s message, the hearer should be able to guess the intended meaning because sometimes the speaker delivers information more than what she or he is really said. The speaker may deliver the message both explicitly and implicitly. Grice (in Levinson, 1983: 127-128) then divides implicature into two, namely conventional implicature and conversational implicature.

a) Conventional Implicature

Conventional implicature happens when a true fact is being said in a misleading way by the speaker. It is also related to specific words and those words may carry additional conveyed meaning when they are used (Yule, 1996: 45). In addition, this type is not based on

pragmatic principles or maxims, and it does not need special context for its interpretation.

b) Conversational Implicature

The other type of implicature based on the maxims and contexts is a conversational implicature. It happens when a speaker meaning can differ from what is said, depending on the context of the conversation. There are two types of conversational implicature based on Grice's theory, they are generalized and particularized conversational implicature (Grice in Levinson, 1983: 126-129).

i. Generalized Conversational Implicature

According to Yule (1996: 41) this implicature happens when the hearer does not need to have a special knowledge to estimate the additional conveyed meaning. For the example, Doobie asks Mary whether she invites her friends Bella and Cathy to the party or not. Mary answers "I invited Bella". It means that Doobie automatically knows that Mary only invites Bella and she does not invite Cathy.

ii. Particularized Conversational Implicature

A particularized implicature is a conversational implicature which is in contrast with the generalized conversational implicature (Yule, 1996: 42). This implicature happens when the speaker is saying something and implicitly the hearer is giving the

response. So the speaker must be able to interpret the hearer's statement based on the context.

4) Presupposition

Presupposition is treated as the relationship between two propositions. Yule (1996: 25) states that a presupposition is something that the speaker assumes to be the case prior in making an utterance. Meanwhile, Givon (in Brown and Yule, 1983: 29) writes that the notion of presupposition refers to a discourse analysis. It refers to the logical meaning of a sentence.

5) Speech act

Based on Searle's theory, speech acts are "the basic or the minimal units of linguistic communication" (1976:16). Austin adds that speech act refers to an utterance and also the total situation in which the utterance is issued (1960:52). The more explanation about the speech act will be discussed in the next subchapter.

c. Context of Situation

A situational context or context of situation is an important element in communication. As stated by Leech (1983: 13), context has a great influence and also effect in understanding the meaning of an utterance. Through the context, the speaker and the addressee share

their background in understanding the utterances. Malinowski (in Halliday and Hasan, 1986: 6) defines context of situation as the environment of the text that includes the verbal and the situational environment in which the text is uttered.

Holmes (2001: 8) explains that there are some components, in any situation, will be generally reflected by the linguistic choices. They are the participant, the setting or social context of interaction, the topic, and the last is the function.

2. Speech Act

a. Definition of Speech Act

People do not only produce utterances which contain grammatical structure and words when they speak, but also perform action through those utterances. Utterances that perform an action is generally called as speech act (Yule, 1996:47). Similarly, Austin (in Tsui, 1994:4) states that speech act is an act refers to the action that is performed in making an utterance. Based on those opinions above, it can be concluded that speech act is the act performed by a speaker in uttering a sentence. The functions of the speech act itself is to state the speaker's intention to the hearer.

The discussion of speech act cannot be separated from the other aspects of speaking activities, such as speech situation and speech event.

Speech situation is a speech which is associated with the situation and an event may consist of one or more speech acts (Hymes in Fasold, 1999:42).

Austin (in Levinson, 1983:236) divides three basic senses in which when someone says something, he or she is also doing something in the same time. For this reason, he or she proposes three kinds of acts, they are:

1) Locutionary act is the real word that is uttered by the speaker and it contains the speaker's verbalized message.

2) Illocutionary act is the power or intention behind the words that is uttered by the speaker. It indicates the speaker's purpose in saying something. The speaker's expression can be in the form of statement, offer, promise, etc.

3) Perlocutionary act is the effect of the illocution on the hearer, such as the effect on the feelings, thoughts, or action of hearers.

In the other word, locutionary act is the simple act of saying words and the meaning of those words which are spoken by the speaker. While, illocutionary act is what is done the speaker is saying something, and finally perlocutionary act is the effect that arises when the speaker is saying something.

b. Direct and Indirect Speech Act

1) Direct Speech Act

A direct speech act occurs when there is a direct relationship between a structure and a function. Thus, to make a statement people

have to use a declarative form, to make questions they formulate it in the interrogative form, and to make commands they will use an imperative form. For example:

- 1) You wear seatbelt (declarative)
 - 2) Do you wear your seatbelt (interrogative)
 - 3) Wear your seatbelt! (imperative)
- (Taken from Yule, 1996:54)

In (1), the speaker states that the hearer wears a seatbelt. In (2), the speaker asks a question to the hearer whether the hearer wears the seatbelt or not. In (3), the speaker commands the hearer to wear the seatbelt.

2) Indirect Speech Act

An indirect speech act occurs when there is an indirect relationship between a structure and a function. For example, a declarative and an interrogative forms are used to make commands in an indirect speech act. Allan states that in an indirect speech act, there is an implicit meaning behind what the speaker actually says (1986:204).

When people use indirect speech act, they will be able to create a polite statement. As stated by Yule, indirect commands or request are simply considered as more gentle or more polite way to express commands better than direct commands (1996:133). That is why people tend to use indirect speech act better than direct speech act.

c. **Speech Act Classification**

Searle (in Levinson, 1983:240) proposes that in speaking, one can perform five basic kinds of action, namely:

1) Representative

Representative is a kind of speech act that states what the speaker believes to be the case or not, for example state, conclude, represent, deduce, etc. By using this utterance, his or her expresses belief that the propositional content is true.

2) Directive

In this type of speech acts, the speaker wants to ask someone else to do something. Acts of commanding, ordering, requesting, inviting, are all the examples of how the speaker expressing his or her wants.

3) Commissive

When the speaker uses commissive speech acts, it means that he or she will commit some future action. Basically, it expresses what the speaker intends. The examples are promises, offers, threats, and refusals.

4) Expressive

Expressive is a kind of speech acts that states what the speaker feels. The form of expressive can be statements of pleasure, pain, like, dislike, joy, or sorrow. In this case, the speaker makes the words fit

with the situation which his or her feeling also includes in it. Acts of thanking, apologizing, congratulating are all the examples of what the speaker feels.

5) Declaration

Declaration is a kind of speech acts that change the situation via the speaker's utterance. In order to perform a declaration correctly, the speaker has to have a special institutional role, in a specific context. For example, appoint, nominate, sentence, pronounce, fire, and resign.

3. Directive

Directive is used when the speaker wants the hearer to do things for him or her. Searle (in Levinson, 1983:241) gives the notion of directive as the utterance which is used by a speaker to get the hearer to do something. Similarly, Holmes says that directive is a linguistic utterance which is meant to ask someone to do something (1992:239). Directive can be in a form of commanding, offering, requesting, asking, inviting, ordering, begging, permitting, daring or challenging. Directive include acts of commanding and requesting that lead for further actions of the hearers, and the actions are in accordance with the speaker's instruction. Based on the theory of Gordon and Lakoff (in Bovillain 2003:119) to employ directive, a speaker must fulfill the certain conditions as follows:

1. The speaker wants the hearer to do some actions.
2. The speaker assumes that the hearer is able to do the act.
3. The speaker assumes that the hearer is willing to do the action.
4. The speaker assumes that the hearer would not do an action if there is no request.

Directive can be performed directly and also indirectly. When a speaker expresses an utterance in an imperative form, it means that he or she uses a direct directive and when he or she expresses in an interrogative and declarative forms, he or she uses an indirect directive. Orders and commands are generally expressed in an imperative form. In order to be more polite in asking someone, the speaker can use interrogatives and declaratives forms.

The example below may clarify the explanation above:

- (a) Sit down!
 - (b) Could you sit down?
 - (c) You'd be more comfortable sitting down
- (Taken from Holmes, 1992:290)

There are many factors that influence the use of a certain form of directive, such as social distance between the participants, their status, and the formality of the context. To get what he or she wants from someone else, a speaker must know the rule in expressing his or her desire and it should be relevant to the socio-cultural context. In choosing the appropriate linguistic

form of directive to family, friends, and foreigners, the speaker involves the dimensions of solidarity/social distance and status/power (Holmes, 1992:294).

4. Commands

a. Definition of Commands

In communication, people often employ commands to get someone to do something. In some occasions, commands are very important to be employed, for instance; when a chief of police commands his subordinates to catch the criminals. Even, in the modern technology, people can send commands only by clicking their computer's mouse. Every time they click on an icon on the computer they are sending a command to the computer's operating system.

According to Coulthard there is an easy way to predict whether a declarative or an interrogative form will be realizing something other than to make a statement or question (2004:24). He says that any declarative or interrogative form can be interpreted as a command if it refers to an action or an activity which is proscribed when the speaker utters it.

Chaika (1994:183) states that commands and questions, virtually, have the same precondition. They are:

- a. The speaker who commands has the right and duty to command

- b. The recipient of the command has the responsibility to carry out the command.

It means that, the person who has the right to command usually has a higher status than the person who must obey it.

Rescher (in Trosborg, 1995:194) writes that in expressing a command, the speaker should have a rational and a reasonable answer if someone asks him or her a question about why he or she issued a certain command.

According to Green (in Tsui, 1994:92) the form of request and order are different. The difference between both of them is in the level of politeness, in which the request form is more polite than the order form. Lyon (in Tsui, 1994:92-93) adds that the crucial difference between command and request is that a command has the unconditional feature; it means that the speaker assumes that the hearer will do the action in the way that the speaker has commanded. Whereas a request has the conditional feature, or, in other words, the speaker assumes that the request will only take an effect if the hearer agrees to do it.

Based on the explanations above, it can be concluded that a command is something that should be done by the hearer. A command can be interpreted only if the participants are actually in a commanding situation. The duty or obligation to carry out a command does not proceed

only from status of the speaker, but it may proceed from the physical circumstances in which the command has been uttered.

c. Types of Commands

1) Direct Commands

According to Chaika (1982:184), a direct command is allowed and commonly can be found in several certain circumstances, such as in family, in military form, in emergency situation (for example, during firefighting), and in hospital emergency rooms. Some examples of direct command:

- a) Pick up toys up right way (in a family: Parents to young children)
- b) Fire! (in military form)
- c) Get the hose! Put up the ladders!(in firefighting)
- d) Get me some bandages! (in hospital emergency rooms)

2) Indirect Commands

Searle (in Richards and Schmidt, 1975:93) describes one type of directive and he calls it as indirect commands. His categorization is primarily based on the content of commands. Sinclair and Coulthard (in Richards and Schmidt, 1975:96), also provide a rule for the interpretation of declarative and interrogative forms as indirect commands. The rule is that if the required action is not made explicit, so it is a kind of indirect commands. Below are some examples of indirect commands:

- a) Do you have to stand in front of the TV? (interrogative)

b) You're standing in front of the TV. (declarative)

c) You close the door. (declarative)

d. Forms of Commands

There are some major categories of commands on the basis of its form (Holmes in Richards and Schmidt, 1983). They are explained as follows:

1) Imperatives

Here are the six structural variants of directive speech acts in the form of imperative, which include commands as the imperative form.

a) Base form of verb

Base form of verb is the first form of verb. For example, "Speak up" and "Put your hands down". The words 'speak' and 'put' are verb.

b) You + imperatives

Imperatives are the forms of a verb that expresses commands. For example, "You look here" and "You go with your work".

c) Present participle form of verb

Present participle is the form of verb that ends in -ing. For example, "Listening to me" and "Looking at me". The words listen and look are verb.

d) **Verb ellipsis**

Verb ellipsis is the leaving out of a word or word form of verb. For example, “Hands up” and “Now this one”.

e) **Imperative + modifier**

This type of imperative is the form of a verb that expresses commands. Modifier is a word or phrase, such as “please”, address forms, and modal tags. Some example of imperative + modifier are “Children look this way, please” and “Please, turn around”.

f) **Let + first person pronoun**

A pronoun is a word used in a place of a noun or noun phrase, e.g., I, me, she, her, he, his, we, us, you, they, them, it, there. Some example of Let + first person pronoun are “Let’s finish there”, “Let’s try it”, and “Let’s find her”.

2) **Declaratives**

There are the two variants of directive speech acts which include commands as the declarative form:

a) **Embedded agent**

Declaratives, in this category, can be identified by the fact that the agent and the required activity are expressed explicitly in an embedded or a subordinate clause. In many cases the main clause was introduced by ‘I want’ or ‘I’d like’. For

example, “I’d like everyone sitting on the mat” and “I want you to draw a picture”.

b) Hints

Hints require addressees to infer what is required from their knowledge about the context or meaning of the speaker’s utterance. For example, “Kelly’s hand is up!”, “I’m not going to do it by myself”, and “I like the way you stood up quickly Neil”.

5. Politeness

Politeness is a very important principle in a language use, and in communication, it can be defined as a means to show awareness of another person’s face (Yule, 1998:60). The same opinion also stated by Holmes (1992:306). He says that a polite person makes other people are able to feel comfortable. So politeness involves how one can make others feel more pleasant. It also includes the appropriate linguistic choices in accordance with a certain social and a situational context.

Related to the discussion of politeness, in issuing commands, a speaker has to make sure that he or she is able to create a polite command. It is not only because he or she usually expects a positive result from the hearers (which the form is in compliance) but also because a speaker cannot employ commands directly (anytime and at any situation) because he or she must

consider several factors. Those factors are when and where he or she utters the expressions and also consider to whom he or she speaks to.

Bonvillain also adds that the above factors are very important because a speaker should make requests, so he or she will have a positive result, namely compliance; but because of the fact that sometimes there is a social relationship exists between the speaker and the addressee (even if the addressee is a strange person), a speaker must be sensitive to the hearer's feeling (2003:120).

The discussion of politeness cannot be separated from the discussion of face. Face means as a public self image, it refers to the emotional and social sense of self that every person has and expects to be recognized by everyone (Yule, 1996:134). From a film, a public self image can be found from the gesture, facial expressions, and other non-verbal expressions of the characters. Brown and Levinson (in Bonvillain, 2003:127) state that there are two kinds of "face", namely:

a. Positive face: a desire to be approved of, or to be appreciated and accepted by others, to be treated as a member of the same group, and to know that the others also want to have and share his or her desire.

b. Negative face: a desire that is not to be imposed upon by someone's action.

As one of the expressions of illocutionary acts which is about the power of the speaker's utterance, a command has a chance to damage the

hearer's face or even the speaker's own face; such acts are known as Face Threatening Act or FTAs. Therefore, a speaker needs to use certain strategies for accomplishing FTA in order to reduce the risk of damaging hearer's face. Brown and Levinson distinguish strategies of polite behavior to perform FTA in commands, they are:

a. Bald-on-record

The prime reason in using bald on record comes whenever a speaker wants to do the FTA with maximum efficiency more than he or she wants. It is to satisfy the hearer's face, even to any different degree. The speakers go on-record if there are good reasons to ignore the face risk of the hearer. They do not do any effort to minimize threats to the hearer's face.

When a speaker employs bald on record, there are some occasions in which the external factors can strain individual to speak directly so the speakers ignore face risk. For example, if there is an emergency situation (where there is a time limitation) and where there is some form of channel limitation such as in a communication via telephone. It would certainly require the speaker to speak with maximum efficiency. The other situations in which no attempt is made to mitigate the face risk are found where the power differential is great; in such cases the powerful participant will often employ no indirectness at all.

There are some sub strategies in bald on record, they are:

- 1) An emergency: HELP!
- 2) Task oriented or command: Give me the nails!
- 3) Alerting or warning hearers: Turn your headlights on!
(When alerting someone to something they should be doing).

b. Positive Politeness

Positive politeness is oriented toward the positive face of the hearer. It is the positive self image that he or she claims for himself or herself. It is about the face of the addressee by indicating that in some respects, the speaker wants the hearer's wants (for example by treating him as a member of an in-group, a friend, and a person whose wants personality traits are known and liked).

Positive politeness utterances are used as a kind of "metaphorical extension of intimacy". It is to eliminate the distance between the speaker and the hearer. So, it is considered as if they are known and they have no specific restrictions or differences in their social status.

When people speak to someone, they may orient positive face and employ positive politeness which appeals the hearer's desire to be liked and approved of in conversation. Positive

politeness is oriented to enhance the positive face needs of the interlocutor.

There are some sub strategies in positive politeness such as:

- 1) Noticing or attending to the hearer's interests, wants, needs or goods: "You must be hungry; it's a long time since breakfast. How about some lunch?"
- 2) Avoid disagreement
 A: "What is she, small?"
 B: "Yes, yes, she's small, smallish, um, not really small but certainly not very big."
- 3) Assume agreement: "So, when are you coming to see us?"
- 4) Give (or ask for) reasons: "Why don't you lend us your record player?"
- 5) Use in-group identity markers: "Come here, buddy."

c. Negative Politeness

Negative politeness is a strategy in which the speaker states the FTA by utilizing strategies oriented towards redressing the negative face-threat to the hearer. The realizations of this strategy consists in assurances that the speaker recognizes and respects the addressee's negative face wants and will not interfere with the addressee's freedom of action.

The main focus in using this kind of strategy is to assume that the speaker may be imposing on the hearer and intruding on their space. Therefore, these are automatically assumed that there might be some social distance or awkwardness in the situation. The example of the negative politeness is represented below:

- 1) Be conventionally indirect: "Could you pass the salt?"
- 2) Minimize imposition: "I just want to ask you if I would use your computer?"
- 3) Be pessimistic: "Could you jump over that five foot fence?"
- 4) Impersonalize speaker and hearer: "Give it."

d. Off-record

Off record strategy is performed typically through the use of an indirect illocutionary act which has more than one interpretation. Thus, if a speaker wants to do an FTA, but he or she wants to avoid the responsibility for doing it, he or she can do it in the form of off record utterances and leave it up to the addressee to decide how to interpret it.

Off record utterances essentially use indirect language. It is in order to minimize threat on hearer's face. Off record covers the act indirectly so the speaker cannot be responsible for any specific communicative intent.

- 1) Give hints: “it’s cold here.”
- 2) Be vague: “Perhaps someone should have been more responsible.”
- 3) Overstate: “There were a million people in the Co-op tonight!”

6. *Elizabeth: the Golden Age*



Elizabeth: the Golden Age is an adaptation from its original novel with the same title written by Tasha Alexander. This film is a sequel to the 1998 film *Elizabeth* and it is premiered on September 9th, 2007 in Toronto International Film Festival. It is directed by Shekhar Kapur and produced by Universal Pictures and Working Title Films. The screenplay was written by William Nicholson and Michael Hirst, while the designer of the costume is Alexandra Byrne. As a film that won two Academy Awards for the best costume design and best actress, this film costs around USD50-60 million.

This film is starred by Cate Blanchett as the Queen Elizabeth I of England and Clive Owen as a pirate and explorer who has just recently returned from the New World. *Elizabeth: the Golden Age* tells about an eloquent exploration of the relationship between Queen Elizabeth I and Sir Walter Raleigh at the height of the queen's power. The film starts in 1585 where Roman Catholic Spain is the most powerful country in Europe, with King Philip II on the throne. Meanwhile, in England, Elizabeth as the Queen of England, is still being pressured to find a husband and have an heir by her advisor, Sir Francis Walsingham. The Queen is presented with many portraits of crowned heads of Europe and princes; these include Ivan the Terrible, Erik of Sweden, Charles II of Austria, the Archduke of Austria and a French prince.

B. Previous Research Findings

Research dealing with pragmatics, especially speech acts, has been conducted several times. Since the meanings of speech acts are based on the context, the findings of every research are different from one to another. Here the researcher presents the previous research related to the discussion of speech acts. The first research is conducted by Sukasih Ratna Widayanti, entitled *A Pragmatic Analysis of Commands in Robert Wise's The Sound of Music*. The research focused on the pragmatic analysis of speech act of commands.

After conducting the research, Sukasih found that there were five types of commands, used by the characters of *The Sound of Music*. They are base form of verb, you + imperatives, verb ellipsis, imperative + modifier, and let + first person pronoun. According to the research, direct speech acts are proposed by the characters in this film. Then, at last she found that there were two purposes of commands uttered by the characters on *The Sound of Music*, they are referential and attributive.

Another investigation was led by Licenciada Romina Ariana Marazita in her article *The Role of Negative Politeness in Request: The Strategies that Non-Native Speakers Apply and Fail to Apply when Performing Request*. She analyzes the use of negative politeness strategies in making requests which is happened in a group of non native speakers of an English course. Then she investigates whether the non native speakers were aware of the use of politeness in the performance of speech acts. She applies politeness and speech acts to examine her data. The results are first the sub strategies be pessimistic is preferred to avoid imposition on the hearer, second the sub strategies be direct is chosen to minimize imposition because the speaker and the hearer are friend, the last bald on record strategy when the speaker has a higher authority. Her final conclusion is that on one hand, nonnative speakers are conscious of the concept of negative politeness since in fact they managed to apply some of the strategies this theory proposes. On the other hand, they do not apparently succeed in applying them in the right situation.

Then the closely similar research to this current research was conducted by Ning Zhao which entitled *Analyzing the Meaning in Interaction in Politeness Strategies in Scent of a Woman*. She examines the politeness strategies in this film in terms of the linguistic form, the context of utterance, and the relationship between the speaker and the hearer. She employs politeness strategies theories to examine her data. The result of this research is that positive politeness or negative politeness is adopted to examine how a cynical old colonel talked with a nice junior and a beautiful girl respectively in unconventional way. Then, it enables them to develop a friendship using the (im)politeness strategies; they are bald-on-record or off-record tactic. The analysis of politeness in action in this film uncovers both the informational and affective dimensions of language use in structuring human relationship and friendship.

This research is totally different because in this research, the researcher tries to observe not only the types of speech acts of commands but also the ways of expressing commands using politeness strategy. The politeness strategy is analyzed based on Brown and Levinson's politeness theory.

C. Analytical Construct

Elizabeth: the Golden Age

