CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Theoretical Review

1. Pragmatics

a. Definition of Pragmatics

Human language and its context have a close relation. Hence (1993: 42) defines pragmatics is the study of the conditions of human language uses as these are determined by the context of society. Besides, Leech (1983: 6) states that pragmatics is the study of meanings in relation to speech situation.

Levinson (1983: 5) defines that pragmatics is the study of language use, that is the study of relation between language and context which is basic to an account of language understanding which involves the making of inferences which will connect what is said to what is mutually assumed or what has been said before. Pragmatics can also solve the problem between the speaker and the hearer, especially the problem about point of view. Leech (1983:36) states that pragmatics involves problem solving both from the speaker's point of view and from the hearer's point of view. The problem of speaker's point of view is how to produce an utterance which will make the result.

The wider definition comes from Yule (1996: 3). He states that pragmatics is the study of speaker meaning. Pragmatic is the study of the contextual meaning, the second definition. The third definition, pragmatics is the study of how more

gets communicated than said. The last definition is that pragmatics is the study of expression of relative distance. Yule also says that to understand pragmatics briefly, there is a need to make a relationship with other areas of linguistics. Semantics and syntax can be related to this study.

From the explanations above, pragmatics means a study about the relationship between language, meaning and situation.

b.   Context

Context is one of the factors that give an effect to people how they use the language. According to Asher (1994: 731) context is one of those linguistic terms which are constantly used in all kinds of context but never explained. It has the relationship with meaning and they are important in pragmatics. Finnegan et al. (1997: 345) state that the essential element in the interpretation of an utterance is the context in which it is uttered. The context can influence the speaker on how to use the language. Yule (1996: 21) states that context simply means the physical environment in which a word is used. The importance of taking of context into account is also well expressed by Hymes (in Brown and Yule, 1983: 37) who views the role of the context in interpretation as, on the one hand, limiting the range of possible interpretation and, on the other hand, as supporting the intended interpretation:

> "The use of linguistic form identifies a range of meanings. A context can support a range of the meanings. When a form is used in a context, it eliminates the meaning possible to that context other than those the form can signal: the context eliminates from consideration the meanings possible to the form other than those the context can support."

Besides, Mey (1993: 39-40) states that context is more than a matter of reference and of understanding what things are about. It gives a deeper meaning to utterances. The utterance "It is along time since we visited your mother", when uttered in the living room by a married couple, has a totally different meaning from it is uttered by a husband and wife while they are standing in front of the hippopotamus enclosure at the zoo, in which it can be considered as a joke.

a. Context of situation

Hymes in Wardhaugh (1998: 243-244) gives a concept for describing context of situation which he uses the word of SPEAKING as an acronym for the various factors he deems to be relevant.

1) S (Setting and Scene)

Setting refers to the time and place, i.e., the concrete physical circumtances in which the speech event takes a place. Scene refers to the abstract psychological setting or the cultural definition of the occasion.

2) P (Participants)

The participants are various combinations which include speaker and listener, addressor and addressee, sender and receiver. They generally fill certain socially specified roles such as gender, status, age or profession of the participants.

3) E (Ends)

Ends refers to the conventionally recognized and expected outcomes of an exchange as well as to the personal goals that participants seek to accomplish

on particular occasions. In other words, it can be said as the purpose or the goal of the participants in speech event.

4) A (Act Sequence)

Act sequence refers to the actual form and content of what is said: the precise words used, how they are used, and the relationship of what is said to the actual topic at the hand.

5) K (Key)

Key refers to the tone, manner or spirit in which a particular message is conveyed: light-hearted, serious, precise, pedantic, mocking, sarcastic, and so on. The key also be marked nonverbally by certain kinds of behavior, gesture, posture, or even deportment.

6) I (Instrumentalities)

Instrumentalities refer to the choice of channel, e.g., oral, written, or telegraphic, and to the actual forms of speech employed, such as the language, dialect, code, or register that is chosen. Formal, written, legal language is one instrumentality.

7) N (Norms of Interaction and Interpretation)

Norms of interaction and interpretation refer to the specific behaviors and properties that attach to speaking and also to how these may be viewed by someone who does not share them, e.g., loudness, silence, gaze return and so on. In other words, the meaning of norms here are the social rules that governs the event and the action and reaction of participants.

8) G (Genre)

Genre refers to clearly demarcated types of utterances; such things as poems, proverbs, riddles, sermons, prayers, lecture and editorials.

Additionally, Holmes (2001: 8) states that in any situation, linguistic choices will generally reflect the influence of one or more of the following components.

1) The participant (it relates to people who are speaking and whom they are speaking to).

2) The setting or social context of interaction (it relates to a place where people are speaking)

3) The topic (it relates to something what is being talked about)

4) The function (it relates to people's reason why they are speaking)

b. **Cultural or social context**

Malinowski in Halliday and Hasan (1986: 6) defines context of situation as environment of the text including the verbal and the situational environment in which the text is uttered. The linguistic interaction involves not only the immediate sight and sound surrounding the event but also the whole cultural history that is behind the participants and the kind of practices that they are engaging in.

2. Speech Acts

a. Definition of Speech acts

An action that performs through language is called as speech act. Austin (1962) defines speech act as the actions performed in saying something. Aitchison (2003: 106) defines speech act as a number of utterance behave somewhat like actions. He also states that when a person utters a sequence of words the speaker is often trying to achieve some effects with those words; an effect which might in some cases has been accomplished by an alternative action.

Based on Yule (1996: 47), he states that speech act is an action performed by utterances. He also gives specific labels in English for it such as apology, complaint, compliment, invitation, promise or request.

b. Classification of Speech acts

1) Austin's clasifications of Speech acts

Speech act has been classified by linguists. Austin (1969: 107) identifies three levels of action beyond the act of utterance.

a) Locutionary Acts

Locutionary act is the form of the words uttered or the basic act of utterance. Austin (1969: 108) states that locutionary act is roughly equivalent to uttering a certain sentence with certain sense and reference, which again is roughly equivalent to meaning in the traditional sense. Leech (1996: 199) states that locutionary act is performing the act of saying something.

b) Illocutionary acts

Illocutionary act is the function of the words which is uttered by the speaker. Austin (1969: 108) defines illocutionary act as an utterance which has a certain (conventional) force. Leech (1996: 199) also states that illocutionary act is performing the act in saying something.

c) Perlocutionary acts

Perlocutionary act is the effect of the word for the hearer. Austin (1969: 108) perlocutionary act is the effect of an utterance. It is what people bring about or achieve by saying something such as convincing, persuading, deterring and even say, surprising, misleading. Leech (1996: 199) defines that perlocutionary act is performing the act by saying something.

Austin (1969: 150) also distinguished five more general classes of utterance, classified according to the illocutionary force. These are the explanations proposed by Austin (1969: 150-151).

a) Verdictives

Verdictives are typified by the giving of verdict, as the name implies, by a jury, arbitrator or umpire. However, the need not be final; they may be, for example, an estimation, reckoning or appraisal. It is essential to give a finding to something – fact or value which is for different reasons hard to be certain about.

b) Exercitives

Exercitives are exercise of power, right or influence. The examples are appointing, voting, ordering, urging, advising, and warning.

c) Commisives

Commisives are typified by promising, or otherwise undertaking; they commit the hearer to do something, but include also declaration or announcements of intention, which are not promise, and also rather vague things which can be called as espousal as for example siding with.

d) Behabitives

Behabitives are very miscellaneous group and have to do with attitudes and social behavior. The examples are apologizing, congratulating, condoling, cursing and challenging.

e) Expositives

Expositives are difficult to define. They make plain how to utterances fit into the course of an argument or conversation, how words are used or in general are expository. The examples are 'I assume', 'I reply', and 'I postulate'.

2) Searle's classifications of speech act

Classification of speech act is also classified by Searle. Searle (1969: 23-24) starts with the notion that when a person speaks, he/she performs three different acts, i.e. utterance acts, propositional acts, and illocutionary acts. Utterance acts consist of simply of uttering strings of words. Propositional acts and illocutionary acts consist characteristically of uttering words in sentences in certain

context, under certain condition, and with certain intention. He gives five classifications for illocutionary acts.

a) Representatives or Assertives

The acts in which the words state what speakers believe such as describing, claiming, hypothesizing, insisting and predicting. It also refers to speech act that describes states or events in the world such as a statement of fact, a report and a conclusion. Yule (1996: 53) said that this kind of speech acts that state what the speaker believes to be the case or not. Example: "The earth is flat."

That utterance can be called as a claiming. The speaker believes that earth is flat, but the earth is not flat actually.

b) Directives

This act makes the hearer doing something through words such as commanding, requesting, inviting, forbidding, and suggesting. Leech (1996: 105-107) defines directive as an intention to produce some effect through action by the hearer. Yule (1996: 54) states that speakers use to get someone else to something. They express what the speaker wants. Example: "Don't touch that!". The words have meaning and contain a command which orders the hearer for not touching something.

c) Commisives

The speaker uses word to commit the future action such as promising, offering, threatening, refusing, vowing and volunteering. Leech (1996: 105-107) state that commisive commits the speaker to some future action. It

expresses what the speaker intends. Yule (1996: 54) states that in using commisive, the speaker undertakes to make the world fit the words (via the speaker). For example, "I'll be back". In the example, the words have meaning and contain a promise that the speaker will back to that place.

d) Expressives

The speaker feeling is expressed by this act such as apologizing, praising, congratulating, deploring and regretting. Yule (1996: 53) says that expressives speech act state what the speaker feels. They can be caused by something the speaker or the hearer does, but they are about the speaker's experience. For example, "Congratulations!". The meaning is congratulating that is uttered by the speaker to someone.

e) Declarations

Changing the world through utterances can be expressed from this type. Yule (1996: 53) states that declarations are those kinds of speech acts that change the world via utterance. Declaring two singles to be a married couple, changing a nameless baby into one with name are the examples. For example, "I now pronounce you husband and wife". The meaning is declaring which a person who utters it is the priest.

c. Direct and Indirect of speech act

Searle (in Brown and Yule, 1983: 232) introduces a distinction between direct and indirect speech acts. This distinction is made on the basis of recognition of the intended perlocutionary effect of an utterance in particular occasion.

1) **Direct speech act**

Finch (2000: 183) direct speech act is a speech act that has direct connection with the structure used. In a direct speech act, the sentence meaning and speaker's meaning match with the speaker's meaning, i.e. the form of the utterance is in accordance with what the speaker is intending to convey. Searle (in Cutting, 2002: 19) states that the speakers use direct speech act to communicate the literal meaning that the words conventionally express; there is a direct relationship between the form and the function (declarative, imperative and interrogative).

Clark and Clark (1977: 28) note that telling is usually done with declaratives, questioning, with interrogatives are used to question about some states of affair and imperatives are used to request or order something are all direct speech acts. For example, (a) Andrea picks up the phone; (b) Did Andrea pick up the phone?; (c) Pick up the phone, Andrea!. In (a) the speaker asserts that Andrea picks up the phone, in (b) the speaker asks whether or not Andrea picks up the phone, while (c) the speaker requests/commands Andrea to pick up the phone.

2) **Indirect speech act**

Finch (2000: 183) states that indirect speech act occurs when there is an indirect relationship between a surface structure and function and in indirect speech act, the speaker means what the sentence means but something else as well. Searle (in Cutting, 2002: 19) also explains that someone who uses an indirect speech act wants to communicate a different meaning from the apparent surface meaning; the form and function are not directly related (statements, question,

command/request). Yule (1996: 55) gives some examples where the speaker wants the hearer not to stand in front of the TV. The basic function of all utterances is a command or requests but only the imperative structure in (a) represents a direct speech act. The interrogative structure in (b), is not being used only as a question but also as an indirect request. The declarative structure in (c) is also an indirect request. Example: (a) Move out of the way!; (b) Do you have to stand in front of the TV?; (c) You're standing in front of the TV.

3. **Speech act of refusal**

Refusals are considered to be face-threatening act because they contradict the listener's expectation (Chen, 1995). Refusal is an expression which is expressed by saying 'no' but it is not easy. Blum-Kulka (1982: 30-31) mentions that it is not common in English to express refusal by saying 'no' or to say 'no' in response to a request for information (for example in shops, hotels, restaurants).

Felix-Brasdever in his book which entitles *Politeness in Mexico and United States: a Contrastive Study of The Realization and Perception of Refusals* (2008: 42) states that the speech act of refusals represents one type dispreferred response. Refusal expression has to be used in an appropriate form and the function depends on the context. Chen Ye and Zhang (1995: 121) states that the function of refusal as a reactive speech act which response to an initiating act and is considered a speech act by which a speaker (fails) to engage in an action proposed by the interlocutor. Edmonson (1981) utters that the action proposed by the interlocutor is called as Initiating Act and typically takes the form of one of the

following: *request, invitation, offer, suggestion.* These are the classification of different types of refusal functions:

a. Request

Requests for favors entail doing activities that require some time and/or effort on the part of the addressee. Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford (1991) state request strategy depends on specific content and the appropriate form for mitigating the threatening nature of refusals.

b. Invitation

There are two types of invitation which are ritual invitation and real invitation. The inviter shows his/her willingness of maintaining relationship with the listener in the future which is called as ritual invitation, while the invitation that expresses the addresser's sincere intention to treat the addressee is called as real invitation. Ritual invitations often occur between acquaintances as a way to show the willingness to maintain relationships with each other. Compared with real invitations, the inviter will not give many details about the invitation.

c. Offer

According to what is offered, there are four types of offers: gift offer, favor offer, food/drink offer and opportunity offer.

d. Suggestion

A suggestion occurs when one person uses utterances to propose some actions or at least changes on the part of the addressee. There are two types of suggestions: *solicited* suggestions and *unsolicited* suggestions. Solicited

suggestions refer to suggestions needed by the listener. The speaker gives suggestions in response to the listener's needs. For example, a student asks for advisors' suggestions about his/her paper. Unsolicited suggestions are suggestions that are voluntarily given by the speaker without the request of the listener. Because unsolicited suggestions often occur between acquaintances, correct choice of the form of address is very important in mitigating the uncomfortable feelings caused by a refusal.

This expression includes of speech act especially commisives speech act which the word commits to future action. According to Searle (1977) refusals belong to the category of commisives because they commit the refuter to performing an action. Beebe, Takahashi, and Uliss-Weltz (1990) explain that refusal expression can be expressed directly, indirectly and adjunct. These are the classifications of refusal expression:

Direct refusals	Indirect refusal	Adjunct to refusals
Performative Non-performative	Statement of regret Wish Excuse,reason, explanation Statement of alternative Set condition for future or past acceptance Promise of future acceptance Statement of principle	Statement of positive opinion/feeling or agreement Statement of empathy Pause fillers Gratitude/appreciation

	Statement of philosophy	
	Attempt to dissuade intercolutor	
	Acceptance that functions as a refusal	
	Avoidance	

Table 1. the Classification of Refusal Strategies

1. **Direct Refusals**

   a. **Performative**

   The speaker usually is in the speech such as "*I refuse…*" which based on Leech (1996: 215) states that performatives are self-naming utterances. The performative verb usually refers to the act in which the speaker is involved at the moment of speech.

   b. **Non performative**

   1) "no"

   Saying "no" for refusing is common and it shows that the speaker refusing directly.

   2) Negative willingness/ability

   The use of negative willingness is showed by speaker by saying "*I can't…*", "*I won't…*", "*I don't think so…*"

2. **Indirect Refusals**

   a. **Statement of regret**

   In the statement of regret, the speaker feels sorry or regret and it can be showed by saying *"I'm sorry…", "I feel terrible…"*

   b. **Wish**

   The speaker uses the statement of wish for refusing by saying *"I wish I could help you…"*

   c. **Excuse, reason, explanation**

   Commonly, people use this category for refusing which they give reason or explanation. *"my children at home…", "I'm headache…"* are the examples.

   d. **Statement of alternative**

   The speaker gives the alternative such as *"I'd rather…", "I'd prefer…"* or *"why don't you ask someone else?..."*

   e. **Set condition for future or past acceptance**

   In this situation, the speaker gives an opportunity for the hearer by past acceptance in which the hearer does not ask the speaker. It can be shown by saying *"if you had asked me earlier, I would have…"*

   f. **Promise of future acceptance**

   Promising is another strategy for refusing which can be performed as *"I'll do it next time…", "I promise I'll…", "next time I'll…"*

g. Statement of principle

The speakers use their principle for refusing which can be shown by saying *"I never do business with friends…"*

h. Statement of philosophy

Saying statement philosophy is one of strategies for refusing indirectly. For example the speaker will say *"help one, help all"*

i. Attempt to dissuade interlocutor

In this strategy, the speaker uses:

1) Threat or statement of negative consequences to the requester. *"I won't be any fun tonight…"* this is the example to refuse an invitation.

2) Guilt trip, the example of this situation can be shown on waitress to customers who want to sit a while: *"I can't make a living off people who just order coffee…"*

3) Criticize the request/requester (statement of negative feeling or opinion; insult/attack. This is the example *"who do you think you are?", "that's terrible idea!"*

4) Request for help, empathy, and assistance by dropping or holding the request.

5) Let interlocutor off the hook

6) Self-defense, it is the example: *"I'm trying my best…", "I'm doing all I can do…"*

j. Acceptance that functions as a refusal

1) Unspecific or indefinite reply

2) Lack of enthusiasm

k. Avoidance

1) Verbal (topic switch, joke, repetition of part of request, postponement,

hedge)

  a) Topic switch

  b) Joke

  c) Repetition of part request

Example: *"borrow money?"*

  d) Postponement

Example: *"let's think it over"*

  e) Hedge

Example: *"let me try it, but I can't guarantee anything", "I'm not sure*

about this problem"

3. Adjunct to refusals

  a. Statement of positive opinion/ feeling of agreement

This statement can be shown as *"That's good idea…."; "I'd love to…."*

  b. Statement of empathy

Example: *"I realize you are in difficult situation"*

  c. Pause fillers

Example: *"oh…"; "well…"; "uhm…"*

d. Gratitude/appreciation

Example: *"thanks, but…"*

4. Politeness

The speakers have to know the ways how they are speaking. Wardhaugh (1998: 255) states that people have to make a choice of many different kinds: what they want to say, how they want to say it, and the specific sentence types, words, and sounds. Politeness is one of the ways to employ the expression. To see how to use the politeness in their expression, the speakers can see the face of the hearer. Using politeness is also used to employ the refusal expression. They have to save the hearer's face because the refusal expression is one of dispreferred responses

Saving the hearer's face is important for the speaker because from the face the speaker will see the hearer's feeling. Goffman (1967) states that there may be several reasons why people want to save their face. They may have become attached to the value on which this face has been built, they may be enjoying the results and the power that their face has created, or they may be nursing higher social aspirations for which they will need this face. However, face is also called as self-image which face means the public self-image of person (Yule, 1996: 60). Besides, Brown and Levinson (1987: 66) states that face is something that is emotionally invested, and that can be lost, maintained, or enhanced and must be constantly attended to in interaction. It is possible that the speakers give an alternative action to save another's face which is called as face saving act (Yule, 1996: 61). Yule (p.62) also divides face into two types.

a. Positive face

Positive face is the wish that someone wants to be desired by others, by either the speaker or the addressee, or both. A person's positive face is need to be accepted, even liked by others, treated as the member of some groups and to know that his wants are shared by others.

b. Negative face

Negative face is the desire not to be imposed upon by others, the need to be independent or to have freedom of action, not impeded or imposed on by others.

Yule (1996: 60) gives a definition of politeness that is an interaction to show awareness of another person's face. From the interaction the speakers have to respect for keeping their public self-image. Based on Brown and Levinson (1987) speakers have to acknowledge and show an awareness of the face, the public self-image, the sense of self, of the people that they address. Yule (1996: 64) proposes two kinds of politeness, *positive politeness* and *negative politeness*.

Similarly, Brown and Levinson, propose some various linguistic devices employed to realize different communication strategies.

a. Bald on-record (no effort to minimize threats to the hearer's face)

b. Positive politeness (recognize the hearer's desire to be respected)

   1) Claiming common ground (indicate that the speaker and the hearer belong to the some group, have similar needs, etc)

   a) Attending to the hearer (his/her interests, wants, needs, goods)

b) Exaggerating approval, sympathy, etc

c) Intensifying interest to hearer

d) Using in-group identity markers (address form, use of in-group language or dialect, use of jargon or slang, contraction and elipsis)

e) Seeking agreement (safe topics, repetition)

f) Avoiding disagreement (token agreement, pseudo-agreement, white lies, hedging opinions)

g) Presupposing/ raise/assert

h) Switching personal focus

i) Joking

2) Conveying cooperation between the speaker and the hearer

a) Presupposing the hearer's feeling or wants

b) Offer/promise

c) Being optimistic

d) Including both the speaker and the hearer in the activity

e) Giving or asking for reason

f) Assuming or asserting reciprocity

g) Giving gifts to hearer (goods, sympathy, understanding, cooperation)

c. Negative politeness (recognize the hearer's desire not to be imposed upon)

1) Being conventionally indirect

2) Avoiding to make presumption or assumption (question, hedge)

3) Avoiding coercing the hearer

a) Being pessimistic, uncertain

b) Minimizing the imposition

c) Giving deference

4) Communicating a desire not to impose on the hearer

a) Apologizing

1) Admitting imposition

2) Indicating reluctance

3) Giving over helming reason

4) Begging forgiveness

b) Impersonalizing

c) Using passives

d) Using indefinites

e) Pluralizing pronouns

f) Using distance

g) Stating general rules

h) Nominalizing

d. Off-record (indirect strategies)

1) Giving hints

2) Understanding

3) Overstating

4) Being ironic

5) Using rhetorical questions

6) Being vague or ambiguous

The politeness strategies above have relation to refusal expression. The use of bald on record strategy exists when the refuters use physical departure or say "no" directly. The use of positive politeness strategy appears when the refuters state a promise, a reason, or gratitude. Commonly, negative politeness strategy is used for stating regret, apology or being indirectness. Off record strategy also appears when the refuters refuse with the indirect statement.

Brown and Levinson in Cutting (2002: 45) state that the speakers should respect each others' expectations regarding self-image, take account of their feelings, and avoid "face threatening act" (FTA). These acts impede the freedom of actions (negative face), and the wish that one's wants be desired by others (positive face)- by either speaker, or the addressee, or both. Holtgraves (2002: 40) states that requests potentially threaten the addressee's negative face because they may restrict the addressee's freedom to act according to his/her will. In other words, refusals may threaten the addressee's positive face because they may imply that her or his statement is not favored by the speaker.

5. *Orphan* Movie

Orphan is American movie which is released on July 24th, 2009. It is directed by Jaume Collet-Serra and produced by Leonardo DiCaprio and Susan Downey. The story of this movie is made by Alex Mace. It is about an insane girl who is in disguise to be as a child. Psychological thriller is the genre of this movie. The setting of this movie is in Toronto, Canada. The characters in this movie are

played by Isabelle Fuhrman as Esther, Vera Farmiga as Kate and Peter Sarsgaard as John. Their character in this movie is as a family.

Figure 1. the Picture of *Orphan*

Many comments about this movie include positive and negative critics. This movie also has made a controversy for the addoption community which are not received well to this movie. Although this movie has gotten many critics, it has gotten awards from *Teen Choice Awards* in 2009 and Brussels International Festival of Fantasy Film in 2010.

The story started when a family adopted a 9-year old Russian girl from the local orphanage after they lost their child. They did not only have Esther in their family, but also they had two children who were Max and Daniel. Max was a deaf girl and Daniel was a boy who did not like music and he did not really like Esther. At the first time, Esther lived with her new family happily, but every member of the family suspected to her especially her step mother after she did strange

behavior such as lying to her step father. In the end of story, they did not expect that Esther was not a child. She had hypopituarism, a condition in which the pituitary gland does not produce enough of one or more of these hormones, so, she could not grow normally. She was 34 years old and she came from mental hospital actually. She escaped from there and she disguised as a child in an orphanage. She had a purpose to make a mess every family who adopted her and she usually loved her step father. In her new family, Esther loved her father too. She would kill the entire family member if she could not get what she wanted. She also made this family in a mess by killing every members of family but she was not success to kill all the members of the family. John and Sister Abigail who organized the orphanage where she was from were killed by her. Sister Abigail was not one of the members of this family because Esther considered that she could damage her plan to make this family in a mess.

B. Previous Research

The research of the refusal expression is not the first time that is done by the researcher. The researcher uses some reviews that relate to this topic. There are two previous researches to refer to. The first research is conducted by Li Honglin which entitles *A Comparative Study of Refusal Speech Acts in Chinese and American English* (2007). The aim of this research is to compare the use of refusal expression which is performed by Chinese and American English. The result of the research concluded that the use of refusals varies in directness with situations

and culture. Americans are more direct than Chinese and Chinese use politeness strategies to minimize the negative effects on the addressee.

The second research was conducted by Jia Yang (2008) from the Ohio State University which entitles *How to Say 'No' in Chinese: A Pragmatic Study of Refusal Strategies in Five TV Series.* She studied about situations in which refusal would occur and examined the refusal strategies and the relative to linguistic forms that could be employed to react to various refusal situations in Chinese culture. This research is different from this current research because Yang's research relates to the culture especially Chinese culture. The result of this research shows that refusal is initiated by four types of act: invitation, request, suggestion, and offer. The social and cultural factors such as the relationship between the interlocutors influence Chinese people to choice the refusal strategies to express their refusal expression. In other words, they are able to make appropriate refusal strategies as a response to different initiating acts.

C. Conceptual Framework

Language and context are terms which cannot be separated. Pragmatics is the study of meaning of language in a context and through language people can do an action which is called as speech acts. It relates to the context in which a situation can give an effect to the speakers for using language. Context is divided into two, namely context of situation and social or cultural context. This research uses the theory of context which is based on Holmes (2001).

This research uses pragmatics approach especially speech act. There are five classifications of speech act, namely declarative, representative, commisive, expressive and directive. This research focuses on a research about commisive speech act especially the refusal expression which is used in the family characters in a subtitle of a movie.

Refusal expression is an expression which contradicts with the listener's expectation. In other words, it can be called as a dispreffered response. There are three types of refusal expression that is: a) direct refusal; b) indirect refusal; c) adjuncts to refusal. Direct refusal has 2 strategies, namely performative, e.g. *I refuse…* and non-performative, e.g. *No, Can't be allowed*. Indirect refusal has 11 strategies that is: a) statement of regret, e.g. *Feel embarrassed*; b) wish, e.g. *I wish I could be there*; c) excuse, reason, explanation, e.g. *I still have some things to do*; d) statement of alternative, e.g. *You can use it tomorrow*; e) set condition for future or past acceptance, e.g. *If he talks his secret, I will talk too*; f) promise of future acceptance, e.g. *I will accept it next time*; g) statement of principle, e.g. *My sister never accepts a gift*; h) statement of philosophy, e.g. *Help one, help all*; i) attempt to dissuade interlocutor, e.g. *I'm trying my best*; j) acceptance that functions as a refusal, e.g. *I will think over about your request*; k) avoidance, e.g. *I'm not sure about it*. Adjunct to refusals has 4 strategies that is: a) statement of positive opinion/feeling agreement, e.g. *It's good, but…*; b) statement of empathy, e.g. *I realize you are in difficult situation*; c) pause fillers, e.g. *Well…, Uhmm…*; d) gratitude/appreciation, e.g. *Thanks.*

To employ the refusal expression, the Brown and Levinson's politeness theory is used by the researcher. The employment of refusal expression can be expressed through politeness. The politeness strategies are divided into 4 parts. Positive politeness, e.g. *I will do better next time*, negative politeness, e.g. *I'm not doing it*, bald on record, e.g. *No* and off record are the ways how to the characters employ the refusal expression.

Refusal expression is one of dispreferred responses which have a function to give a response from: a) offer, e.g. *A: Do you want to play? B: (shaking head)*; b) invitation, e.g. *A: Would you like to come my party tonight? B: I'm sorry, I have to do my homework*; c) request, e.g. *A: Come on, just quickly say Hi B: I said no*; d) suggestion, e.g. *A: I just don't think you're gonna be comfortable in it. What about those jeans? B: I thought you said there wasn't anything wrong with being different*. The object of this research is a movie and *Orphan* movie is the movie which is used by the researcher.
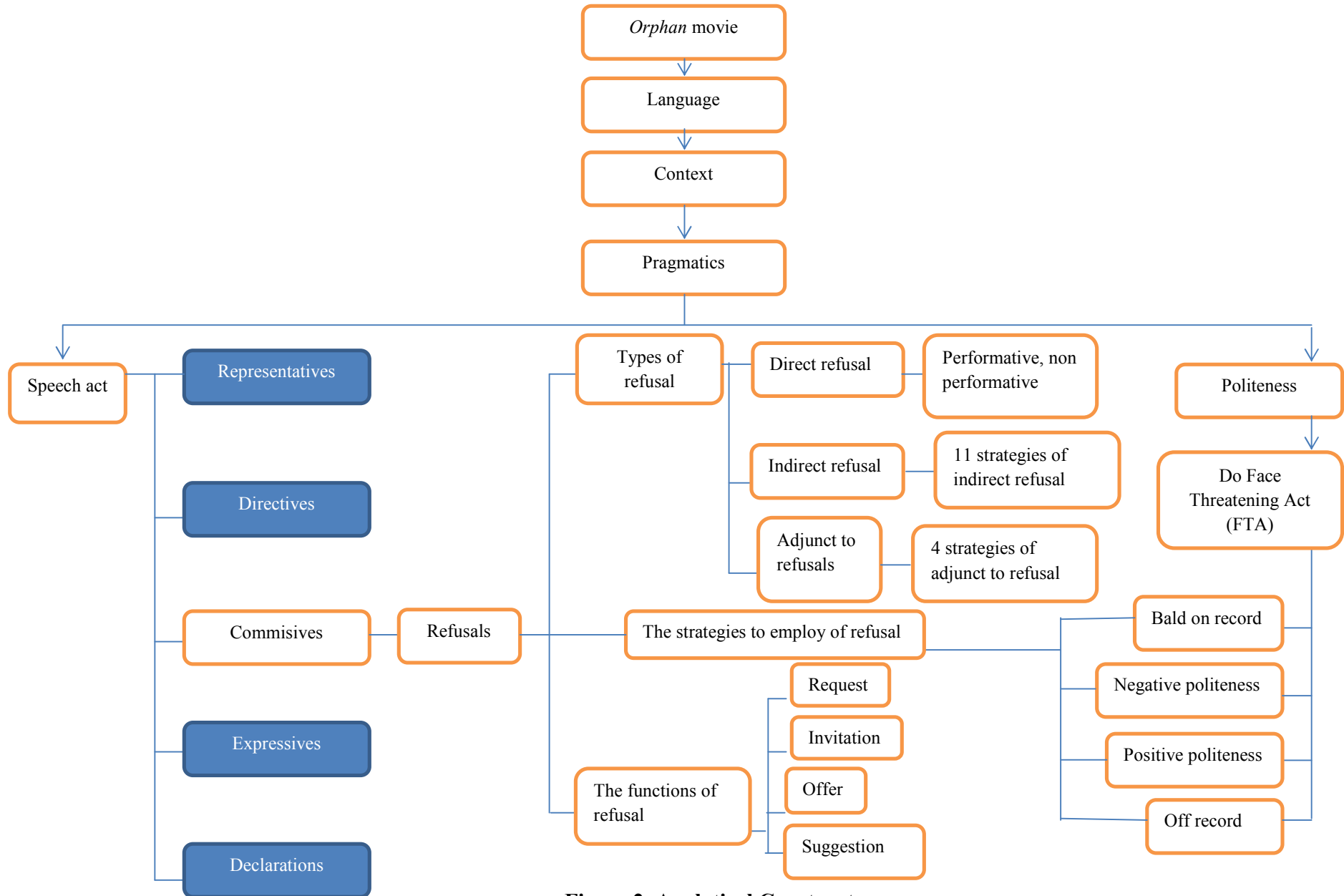
D. Analytical Construct

Figure 2. Analytical Construct