CHAPTER II

THEORETICAL REVIEW

This chapter discusses about the theories used in analyzing the data in this research. There are some theories of pragmatic used in analyzing the data since it is a pragmatics study. They are divided into four main points; pragmatics, politeness principle, politeness strategies, and pragmatic scales.

2.1 Pragmatics

This research is a pragmatics study which analyzes the pragmatic scales in politeness strategies found in *Beauty and the Beast* movie script.

According to Yule (1996:3), there are four areas that pragmatic is concerned with; pragmatics as the study of speaker meaning, contextual meaning, how utterance is communicated more than is said, and the expression of relative distance. From his statement, it can be concluded that pragmatics is a study of meaning communicated by an addresser (R) and interpreted by an addressee (E) based on speaker intention, the relative distance between the speaker and the hearer, and the context or speech situation.

Since pragmatics studies meaning in relation to speech situation, Leech (1983:13) introduces some aspects of situations. The explanation of each aspects is described as follows:

1. *Addressers or addressees*

Addresser is a person who receives and interprets the message (the sender). Addressee is a person who is an intended receiver of the message (the receiver).

In this analysis, addressers and the addressees are the characters of the movie script *"Beauty and the Beast".* They are 9 characters which represent the tact maxim utterance; Beast, Belle, Cogsworth, Lumiere, Chip, Mrs.Potts, Maurice, Bookseller, and Wardrobe. When Beast talks to Belle, Beast is being an addresser and Belle is being an addressee. Then, when Belle replies, she is being an addresser and Beast is being an addressee. Addresser is being shortened with R and addressee is being shortened with E.

2. *The context of an utterance*

Context is any background knowledge assumed to be shared by the E and R who contributes to hearer's interpretation of what R means by a given utterance.

In relation to this research, the context is the explanation of who are the R and the E in the utterance and what situation that they have in the utterance. For example, R is Belle and E is Maurice. Their relation is father and daughter. Then the situation is Maurice is being a Beast's prisoner and Belle wants to get him out of the jail. However, Maurice is afraid that Beast will come and see her, so he says "I want you to leave this place!" From the context, it can be known that Belle will have an

interpretation that she needs to go since the place is dangerous and Maurice doesn't want her in danger. Thus, from the context of an utterance, the interpretation of the message sent by R can be figured out.

3. *The goal(s) of an utterance*

The goal of an utterance does not commit its user to dealing with conscious volition or motivation, but can be used generally of goal-oriented activities.

In this term, the goal is about the goal of being polite in making the utterance between the R and E. Because of that, R uses the politeness strategies and arise the pragmatic scale to get the goal.

From all those explanation above, it can be concluded that pragmatics is all about the interpretation of the message communicated by R to E. The interpretation of the message can be figured out based on the context of an utterance. In addition, in every messages made by R, it always has a goal to be aimed.

Also, in pragmatics, there are some fields that are explained deeper since they have the theories related to this research. They are politeness principle, politeness strategies, and pragmatic scales.

2.2 Politeness Principle

Politeness principle (PP) is being the focus on the analysis of this research. The theory of politeness principle used in this research is introduces by Leech. He (1983:81) states that:

> PP is to minimize (other things being equal) the expression of impolite beliefs, and maximize (other things being equal) the expression of polite beliefs which is somewhat less important.

PP explains about how to make and understand the utterances based on politeness. So, PP is all about how to be polite in making an utterance. In addition, the goal of PP is to minimize the impoliteness in the utterance itself.

In the movie script of *Beauty and the Beast*, the writer analyzes the utterance made by the characters based on the politeness. Talking about politeness itself, Robin Lakoff (1990:34) states about politeness as well as follows:

> Politeness is a system of interpersonal relations designed to facilitate interaction by minimizing the potential for conflict and confrontation as conflict-free, with speakers normally being able to satisfy one another's needs and interests.

Thus, it can be said that politeness goal is to make no conflict in between R and E when they interact to make a communication. In addition, the focus of politeness itself is to satisfy another's needs. This is what people call giving more benefit to E rather than the cost. That is why the effect of politeness behaviour to R is more important than E. Dealing with politeness behaviour, there are some maxims of politeness introduced by Leech as well.

2.2.1 Maxim of Politeness

Maxims of politeness are a number of maxims dealing with polite behaviour. The meaning of maxim itself according to Oxford dictionary (2003) is saying that expresses a general truth or rule of behaviour. There are six maxims of politeness; tact maxim, generosity maxim, approbation maxim, modesty maxim, agreement maxim, and sympathy maxim. However, it is only tact maxim is used as the limitation in finding data in the *Beauty and the Beast* movie script. Nevertheless, all of the six maxims are explained below to make the difference between tact maxim and the other maxims.

2.2.1.1 Tact Maxim

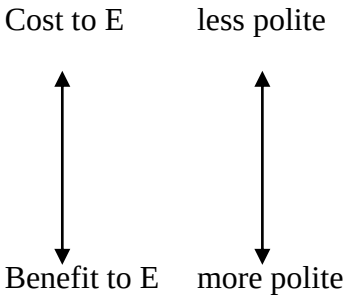
Tact maxim is a maxim which has a rule of minimizing cost to other and maximizing benefit to other. Leech (1983:109) states that there are two sides to the tact maxim, a negative side 'Minimize the benefit to E', and a positive side, 'Maximize the benefit to E'. The example of the tact maxim is as follows:

"Won't you put your sweater on? It is cold in here."

This utterance said by R to ask E putting on his sweater. By putting on his sweater, E can get more benefit like feeling warm than the cost. There is no cost that E should do expect of putting his sweater on. This is how tact maxim works in an utterance when E gets more benefit than the cost.

To see the more benefit to E than the cost, it can be seen as well from this example above. It is taken from Leech (1983:107).

1. Peel the potatoes.
2. Hand me the news paper.
3. Sit down.
4. Look at that.
5. Enjoy your holiday
6. Have another sandwich.



It can be seen that the utterance will be more polite when R gives more benefit to E like the (6) example. It gives benefit to E when E can have another sandwich meaning that he can take more sandwiches. It is different from the (2) example when R asks E to hand a newspaper for R. Handing the newspaper for R will be a benefit for R himself, not for E. That is why is less polite than the (6).

2.2.1.2 Generosity Maxim

The difference between tact and generosity maxim is generosity maxim is centered to self, not to other like the tact maxim is. According to Leech (1983:133), the rule of generosity maxim is to minimize benefit to self and maximize cost to self. The example of generosity maxim is presented below:

"You must have dinner with us."

This example shows that R makes more cost to himself rather than the benefit. The cost will be like R needs to pay for the dinner also he needs to prepare so it will need his time to make the preparation, etc. This is the example of how the rule of generosity maxim works.

2.2.1.3 Approbation Maxim

Approbation maxim is a maxim which focuses on making praise to other. The rule of approbation maxim according to Leech (1983:135) is to minimize dispraise to other and maximize praise to other. It can be said as well that approbation maxim is to avoid R to say unpleasant things to E. For example, when E does a dance performance, then R says "Your performance was so great" is approbation maxim. If R says "Well, your performance was ok" is not a approbation maxim.

2.2.1.4 Modesty Maxim

Modesty maxim is a maxim which concerns in making dispraise to self. That is different from approbation which makes dispraise to other, not to self. Leech (1983:136) states that modesty maxim is about to minimize the praise of self and maximize dispraise of self. It can be seen from the example below:

"Please accept my small gift as a present for your winning."

"My small gift" here is an example of minimizing the praise and maximizing the dispraise of self. If R says "my large gift" then he does not use the modesty maxim since he maximizes the praise of himself not the dispraise.

2.2.1.5 Agreement Maxim

Agreement maxim is about to minimize the disagreement between self and other and maximize the agreement between self and other. Taken the example

from Leech (1983:138), the comparison of the rudeness reply in saying the disagreement can be seen below:

1. A: "It was an interesting exhibition, wasn't it?"
   B: "No, it was very *un*interesting.
2. A: A referendum will satisfy everybody.
   B: Yes, definitely
3. A: English is a difficult language to learn.
   B: True, but grammar is quite easy.
4. A: The book is tremendously well written.
   B: Yes, well written as a whole, but there are some rather boring patches, don't you think?

The (1) and (3) example make the contrast comparison of the rudeness in replying the statement of R. The (1) is not an agreement maxim, but the (3) is, since R tries to minimize his disagreement by saying "true, *but* ... "

2.2.1.6 Sympathy Maxim

Sympathy maxim is about showing the sympathy not the antipathy to other. For example, when R hears that E's father passes away and R uses sympathy maxim, he will say "I am sorry about your father" instead of saying "I am pleased to hear about your father". It can be said as well that sympathy maxim is a maxim to express condolences.

2.3 Politeness Strategy

Politeness is made to make no-conflict. In politeness, Yule (1996:60) also has his argument about it. He states that politeness, in an interaction, can then be defined as the means employed to show the awareness of another's person face.

Face means the public self-image of a person. To save the face of others, Brown and Levinson (1978:68) introduce the four politeness strategies; bald on-record, off-record, positive politeness, and negative politeness. In addition, it can be said that these four strategies are used by E to show his respect and politeness to save R's face.

2.3.1 Bald on-record

Bald on-record is the strategy used on-recordly or straight to the point. Brown and Levinson (1983:68-69) states that an actor (R) goes on-record in doing an act A if it is clear to participants (E) what communicative intention led the actor to do "A" (i.e., there is just one ambiguously attributable intention with which witnesses would concur). For example, if R says "I (hereby) promise to come tomorrow", and if E would concur that, in saying that, R did unambiguously express the intention of committing his self to that future act, then it means he did "on-record" as promising to do so.

In addition to this, there are two sub-strategies of bald on-record strategy according to Brown and Levinson (1983:95); cases of non-minimization of the face threat and cases of Face Threatening Act (FTA)-oriented bald-on-record usage.

Some examples of cases of non-minimization of the face threat (Brown and Levinson: 1983:96) are:

a. Emergency, when it is in cases of great urgency. (e.g. "Help!", "Watch out!", "Your pants are on fire!")

b. Attention-getters, where R speaks as if maximum efficiency were very important, he provides metaphorical urgency for emphasis. (e.g. “Listen, I’ve got an idea”, “Hear me out: ...”, Look, the point of this: …”)

c. Entreaties, when R is begging something to E. (e.g. “Excuse me” ,“Forgive me”, “Accept my thanks”)

d. Task-oriented, probably accounts for the paradigmatic form of instruction and recipes. (e.g. “Give me the nails”, “Bring me wine”, “In the future, you must add the soda after the whisky”)

e. Teasing or joking is a socially acceptable rudeness just like being sarcastic. (e.g. “Cry. Get angry)

f. Advice or warning, when R shows that he cares of E. (e.g. “Careful! He’s a dangerous man”, “your headlights are on!”, “take care”)

g. Granting permission, when R gives a permission for something that E has requested. (e.g. “Yes, you may go”)

Some examples of cases of Face Threatening Act (FTA)-oriented bald-on-record usage (Brown and Levinson: 1983:99) are:

a. Invitation, when R wants to invite E to do something. (e.g. “Come in”)

b. Command, when R request E to do something. (e.g. “Sit down”)

c. Offer, when R has something to offer to E. (e.g. “(You must) have some more cake”, “Don’t bother, I’ll clean it up”)

By reading all examples of bald on-record strategy, it can be said that bald on-record is used not to make unambiguously which can make R feels confused. E just says what he means directly or on record to make R understands directly to the point of what E means in his utterance.

2.3.2 Off-record

Off record is a strategy that goes indirectly or not straight to the point. Brown and Levinson (1983:211) states:

> A communicative act is done off record if it is done in such a way that it is not possible to attribute only one clear communicative intention to the act. In another words, the actor leaves himself an 'out' by providing himself with a number of defensible interpretations.

According to what Brown and Levinson states above, saying something off record has some intentions beyond of what R literally says. So, R says his intention indirectly and it shows politeness.

In off-record term, there are some sub-strategies introduced by Brown and Levinson (1983:213). They are as follows:

a. Give hints, when R says something that is not explicitly relevant, by mentioning he invites E to search for an interpretation (e.g. "It's cold in here")
b. Give association is a related kind of implicature triggered by relevance violations is provided by mentioning something associated with the act required of E, either by a precedent in R-E's experience or by mutual

knowledge irrespective of their interactional experience. clues (e.g. “Oh God, I’ve got a headache again”)

c. Presuppose, when an utterance may implicate a criticism by a presupposition (e.g. “I washed the car again today” to tell E that later, it might be his turn to wash the car.)

d. Understate is one way of generating implicatures by saying less than is required. (e.g. “She’s some kind of idiot” when She is a very smart person)

e. Overstate is when R is exaggerating or choosing a point on a scale which is higher than the actual state of affairs. (e.g. “There were a million people in the Co-op tonight!” when there’s only a few people who were there.)

f. Use tautologies. By uttering a tautology, R encourages E to look for an informative interpretation of the non-informative utterance. (e.g. “Boys will be boys”)

g. Use contradiction is when R states two things that contradict each other and he makes it appear that he cannot be telling the truth. Thus, he encourages E to look for an interpretation that reconciles the two contradictory propositions. (e.g. one might say of a drunken friend to a telephone caller “Well, Jhon is here and he isn’t here.)

h. Be ironic is when R says the opposite of what he means. (e.g. “John’s a real genius” [after John has just done twenty stupid things in a row)

i. Use metaphors. The use of metaphor is perhaps usually on record, but there is a possibility that exactly which of the connotation of the metaphor R intends may be off record. (e.g. “Harry’s a real fish” [he {swims} like a fish])

j. Use rhetorical question. To ask a question with no intention of obtaining an answer is to break a sincerity condition on question – namely, that R wants E to provide him with indicated information. (e.g. “What can I say?” [nothing, it’s so bad])

k. Be ambiguous. Stretching the term ‘ambiguity’ to include the ambiguity between the literal meaning of an utterance and any of its possible implicatures, it can be seen that every off-record strategy essentially exploits ambiguity in this wider sense (e.g. “John’s a pretty {smooth} cookie”, either it is a compliment or as an insult.)

l. Be vague. R may go off record by being vague about who the object is or what the offence is. (e.g. “I’m going {you know where}”)

m. Over-generalize is when R makes a generalization and E has the choice of deciding whether the general rule applies to him in certain case. (e.g. “Mature people sometimes help do the dishes”)

n. Displace the addressee is when R says something to another person but actually he means to E. So, he displace E.

o. Be incomplete, use ellipsis. Elliptical utterance is legitimated by various conversational contexts. (e.g. “Well, I didn’t see you … “)

2.3.3 Positive Politeness

Positive politeness is redress directed to the R's positive face. According to Brown and Levinson (1983:101), positive face means R's perennial desire that his wants (or the actions/acquisitions/values resulting from them) should be thought of as desirable. A person's positive face is the need to be accepted, even liked, by others, to be treated as a member of the same group, and to know that his or her wants are shared by others.

There are 15 sub strategies of the positive politeness strategy (Brown and Levinson: 1983:103) as follows:

a. Notice, attend to the addressee is when R takes notice of aspects of E's condition. (e.g. "You must be hungry, it's a long time since breakfast. How about some lunch?")
b. Exaggerate is when R says something over than it is. Usually, R is exaggerating his utterance when he says something about interest, approval, and sympathy. (e.g. "What a fantastic garden you have!")
c. Intensify interest to the hearer. Another way for R to communicate to E that he shares some of his wants is to intensify the interest of his own contributions to the conversation, by 'making a good story'. (e.g. "I come down the stairs, and what do you think I see? – a huge mess all over the place … ")
d. Use in-group identity markers. By using any of the innumerable ways to convey in-group membership, R can implicitly claim that the

common ground with E that is carried by that definition of the group. (e.g. “Come here, *mate*!”)

e. Seek agreement. Another characteristic way of claiming common ground with E is to seek ways which it is possible to agree with him. (e.g. A: “John went to London this weekend!” B: “To London!”)

f. Avoid disagreement is when R hides the disagreement. (e.g. A: “Can you hear me?” B: “Barely.”)

g. Presuppose/raise/assert common ground is used to soften request or offer. (e.g. “Wouldn’t you like a drink?”)

h. Joke. Since jokes are based on mutual shared background knowledge and values, jokes may be used to stress that shared background or those shared values. (e.g. “How about lending me this old heap of junk [new Cadillac])

i. Assert or presuppose the speaker’s knowledge of and concern for the hearer’s wants. One way of indicating that R and E are cooperators, and thus potentially to put pressure on E to cooperate with S, is to assert or imply knowledge of E’s wants and willingness to fit one’s own wants in with them. (e.g. “Look, I know you want the car back by 5.0, so should (not) I go to town now?” [request])

j. Offers and promises are the natural outcome of choosing this strategy; even if they are false, the demonstrate R’s good intentions in satisfying E’s positive face wants. (e.g. “I’ll drop by sometimes next week.”)

k. Be optimistic is when R assumes that E wants R's wants and will help him to obtain them. (e.g. "You will lend me your lawnmower for the weekend, {I hope}")

l. Include both the speaker and the hearer in the activity. By using 'we' form, when R really means 'you' or 'me', he can call upon the cooperative assumptions. (e.g. "Give us a break.")

m. Give (or ask for) reason is a way of implying 'I can help you' or 'you can help me, and assuming cooperation a way of showing what help is needed. (e.g. "Why don't we go to the seashore!")

n. Assume or assert reciprocity. The existence between R and S may also be claimed or urged by giving evidence of reciproca rights or obligations obtaining between S and H. (e.g."I'll do X for you if you do Y for me.)

o. Give gifts is when R knows what E's wants as a human; the wants to be liked, admired, cared about, understood, listened to, and so on. (e.g. "I do care about you")

2.3.4 Negative Politeness

The world "negative" in negative politeness strategy does not mean "bad", it is just the opposite pole from "positive". According to Brown and Levinson (1983:129), negative politeness is redressive action addressed to the addressee's negative face: his want to have his freedom of action unhindered and his attention

unimpeded. There are 10 sub-strategies of negative politeness strategy divide by Brown and Levinson (1983:132) as follows:

a. Be conventionally indirect. Here, R is faced with opposing tensions; the desire to give E an 'out' by being indirect and the desire to go on record. (e.g. "Can you shut the door?" [I want you to shut it}])

b. Question, hedge. In the literature a 'hedge' is a particle, word, or phrase that modifies the degree of membership of a predicate or noun phrase in a set; it says of that membership that is partial, or true only in certain respects, or that is more true and complete than perhaps might be expected. (e.g. "A swing is *sort* of a toy.")

c. Be pessimistic is when R expresses his doubt of the conditions for the appropriateness of R's speech act obtain. (e.g. "*Perhaps*, you'd care {to help me}")

d. Minimize the imposition is when R minimizes the things he wants to say or ask. (e.g. "I *just* want to ask you if I can borrow a single sheet of paper.")

e. Give deference (e.g. "We look forward to {eating} with you")

f. Apologize (e.g. "I don't want to bother you, but…", "I hope you'll forgive me if…")

g. Impersonalize the speaker and the hearer (e.g. "It {seems} [to me] that …")

h. State the Face Threatening Act as a general rule (e.g. "Passengers will please refrain from flushing toilets on the train.")

i. Nominalize (e.g. “It is my pleasure to be able to inform you…”)

j. Go on record as incurring debt, or as not indebting the hearer (e.g. “I’ll never be able to repay you if you …” [request], “I could easily do it for you.”)

2.4 Pragmatic Scale

Even R already uses politeness strategy to make his utterance be polite, but still the rank of politeness can be measured either his utterance is less polite or more polite by using the pragmatic scale.

Leech (1983: 81) states that polite and impolite beliefs are respectively beliefs which are favorable and unfavorable to R or to a third party, where ‘favorable’ and ‘unfavorable’ are measured on some relevant scales of values which Leech calls it *pragmatics scales*.

There are five scales of pragmatic introduced by Leech (1983:123); the cost-benefit scale, optionality scale, indirectness scale, power/authority scale, and social scale.

2.4.1 Cost-Benefit

The cost-benefit scale is scale that is oriented in cost and benefit for E or R. Leech (1983:123) states that the cost benefit scale on which is estimated the cost or benefit of the proposed action A to R or E. This scale pushes E to measure

amount of the cost to himself and amount of the benefit to E. In this case, if the cost for E is higher than the benefit, the utterances are less polite. Meanwhile, if the benefit for E is higher than the cost, the utterances are more polite. From the explanation, it can be indicated that the higher cost to E is less of politeness, while the higher benefit to him is greater politeness.

For example, R says to E "You can warm yourself by drinking coffee and you can make it by your own, but you have to buy it first at the mini market". This utterance is less polite since E has to make the coffee by himself, even he has to buy it first at the minimarket. When he has to buy it, he needs money and he needs to go to the minimarket. This is what can be called as the higher cost than the benefit for E.

On the other hand, if R says "You can warm yourself by drinking my coffee" This utterance is more polite since E doesn't have any cost to do except of accepting R's offer. In addition E will get more benefit (feel warm) than the cost.

2.4.2 Indirectness

In indirectness scale, the higher indirectness indicates the higher politeness. The examples are (Leech [1983:108]):

(1) Could you possibly answer the phone? (more polite)
(2) Would you mind answering the phone?
(3) Can you answer the phone?
(4) Will you answer the phone?
(5) I want you to answer the phone.
(6) Answer the phone! (less polite)



The examples above show that the degree of indirectness influences the degree politeness. Utterances that are more indirect are more polite. In that situation the higher indirectness influence the decrease of the benefit to E.

2.4.3 Social Distance

Social distance shows the social status of the R and E or even more. For example like the difference of age, sex, etc. Talking about social distance scale, Leech (1983:126) states:

> The overall degree of respectfulness, for a given speech situation, depends largely on relatively permanent factors of status, age, degree of intimacy, etc., but also, to some extent, on the temporary role of one person relative to another.

Thus, the social distance scale indicates the degree of respectfulness depending on real factors, age, social class, sex, etc. This scale is used to show difference, existence, or solidarity between group members. For instance, people who have known each other will show the higher solidarity to each other. On the contrary, people who are in distant relationship will have a low solidarity to each other.

The higher and lower politeness depends on the relation between R and E. It's higher when a relationship between R and E is a daughter and her mom. Thus, R shows her closeness to E by calling her "Mom". However, when the relationship is not between a daughter and her mom, but R calls "Mom" to a waitress only who is not close to her, then it can be said that the politeness is low.

2.4.4 Optionality

Optionality scale measures the rank of politeness by seeing if there is an option or not made by R to E. The optionality scale according to Leech (1983:123) on which illocutions are ordered according to the amount of choice which allows to E. Optionality scale is assessing the degree of the illocution performed to a degree of choice that R allows E. In this case, R gives an option to E to answer or give respond towards the illocution of what R utters. If R gives an option to E to choose the response, it will be more polite.

For example, R says “If you like that shirt, I will buy it for you” R is being more polite by saying “if” as the sign of the option that E has, if E likes the shirt, so R will buy it, but if E doesn’t like it, R will not buy it. The decision is on E’s hand.

On the other hand, if R says “I will buy the shirt for you” In this utterance, even E will have benefit to get a shirt for free since R will buy it, but E doesn’t have an option to choose either she likes the shirt or not. This is what can be said that the politeness is low.

2.4.5 Power/Authority

Power/authority scales shows the difference of the position between R and E. According to Leech (1983:126), he says that someone in authority may use a familiar form of address to someone who, in return, uses the respectful form. The power or authority scale represents the social status relationship between the participants. The various selected language shows whether R sees the person who

is addressed is superior or equal. It means the way R talks reflects his relationship to E. A person with higher position has authority to order a command to a person with lower position. Also, they have the special calls to show their difference status and position.

For instance, the employee will call the superior "*Sir*" while his superior calls him by his name. So, it's more polite for a lower position person who calls others with higher position by saying *"Sir"* and it is less polite when the lower position person calls the higher one only with name.