CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Pragmatics

Pragmatics is the study of context-dependent aspect of meaning which are systematically abstracted away from in the construction of content or logical form. It means that pragmatics is the study about meaning of meaning. It differs from semantic. Semantic is the study about meaning of meaning through sentences/clauses, called written text. While, pragmatic is the study about meaning of meaning through utterances/conversations, called spoken text.

Yule (1996:3) said that pragmatic is the study of contextual meaning. According to him, pragmatic is focused with the study of meaning as spoken by a speaker (or a writer) and interpreted by a listener (or a reader) so that it involves the interpretation what people mean in the particular context and how the context influences what is said. Similar to Yule, Leech (1983) stated that pragmatic can be usefully defined as the study of how utterances have meaning in situation. From his statement, it can be concluded that pragmatic is the study of understanding meanings of utterances by looking at the situation where it takes place. The meaning of the situation is called context.

2.2 Context

According to Leech, context deals with relevant aspect of physical or social settings of an utterances. It is the background knowledge, which is shared

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by the speaker and the hearer in understanding their utterances (1983:13). Therefore, context is appeared whether in spoken or written text by means to understand the intention of the speaker or writer. Similarly, Levinson assumed that the importance of context, which is included in the definition of pragmatics, is the study of the ability of language user to pair sentences with the context in which they would be appropriate (1985:24). It can be seen that the role of context in pragmatics is necessary to pay attention to the context of situation surrounding the condition in doing conversation.

Meanwhile, Malinowski had opinion that there are two kinds of context, context of situation and context of culture. Context of situation is the situation in which the text is uttered. It is an environment of the text. Context of culture is the cultural background or the history behind the participants, or people who are involved in speech, time, social environment, political condition etc. (Halliday and Hasan, 1985:6).

From the statement above, it can be concluded that speech context is all aspects in speaking whether social or physical including the speech, time, place, social environment, political condition, and etc. Then, context is a set of propositions describing the beliefs, knowledge, and commitments and so forth of the participant in a discourse to in order to understand the meaning of an utterance. Because the analyst is investigating the use of language in context by a speaker, so it is more concerned with the relationship between the speaker and the utterance, on the particular occasion of use. During the proses of communicating with other, it is necessary to be polite so the speaker's context or illocution will be

delivered completely. If the speaker speaks politely, it will satisfy the hearer so their communication is running well.

2.3 Politeness Strategies

Politeness is a system of interpersonal relations designed to facilitate interaction by human interaction by minimizing, potential conflict and confrontation inherent in all human interchange (Yule, 1996:106). In communication, politeness can be defined as the means to show awareness of another person's face. Face means public self-image of person. It refers to that emotional and social sense of self that every person has and expects everyone else to recognize (Yule, 1996:134). Held (2005) notes that politeness may be understood as a specific type of linguistic structure, which expresses the speaker's attitude and are thus not explicable by semantic, but rather by pragmatic means.

There are a lot of politeness theories developing in linguistic studies. Analysis study of conversation firstly introduced by Grice in 1975. He was a pioneer who systematically studied the meaning of a sentence which he called "implicature". Grice postulated a framework for language use, based on what he called the Co-operative Principle (CP), consisting of a set of maxims and sub-maxims which interactants supposedly follow when communicating. Those maxims consist of maxim of quality, maxim of quantity, maxim of relation, and maxim of manner. The social norm model originates in the work of Robin Lakoff. She claims that politeness is developed by societies in order to reduce friction in personal interaction. Her model of politeness is highly rationalist and leans on

Grice's Cooperation Principle. Two rules are given: be clear and be polite. According to these rules, utterances can be classified as well-formed or non-well-formed (as cited in Watts, 2003:5). Since politeness is considered to be a major pragmatic factor regulating social interactions, Leech (1983) proposes a detailed description of the politeness model based on the concept of maxims. Like Lakoff, following Grice's work of maxims, Leech develops his definition of politeness from Grice's Cooperation Principles. His politeness principles consists of a number of maxims which are tact maxim, generosity maxim, approbation maxim, modesty maxim, agreement maxim, and sympathy maxim. Brown and Levinson (1987) also identifies and introduce their politeness theory which is based on and influenced by Goffman's notion of face as well as the English folk term.

The researcher takes Brown and Levinson's linguistic politeness theory as the basic theoretical framework because the theory offers us deeper understanding between face and the strategies whether from the speaker or the addressee.

2.3.1 Brown and Levinson's Theory of Politeness

The central point in politeness theory is what Brown and Levinson (1987) call a "Model Person" (MP) which is defined as a "willful fluent speaker of a natural language". Every MP, according to Brown and Levinson, is endowed with what is termed "face" and "rationality". Face is defined as the public self-image that every member wants to claim for himself. Rationality refers to the application of a specific mode of reasoning from ends to the means that will achieve those ends.

2.3.1.1 Face and Face Threatening Acts

The term "face" was employed by Goffman (1967) to refer to the public image a person projects for him/herself. Goffman assumes that social interaction plays an important role in determining our position in, as well as our knowledge of the world. Therefore, face is central to social interaction where its presentation achieves some sort of social harmony. According to Fasold (1996:160), face means something that is emotionally invested. It can be lost, maintained, or enhanced, and must be constantly attended to in interaction. According to Brown and Levinson (in Fasold, 1996:160), face has two aspects, namely 'positive' and 'negative'.
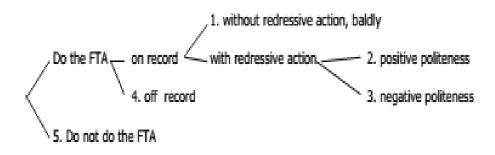
    a.   Negative face

       Negative face is the desire to have freedom of action, freedom of imposition, and not to be impeded by others.

    b.   Positive face

       Positive face is the need to be appreciated and accepted, to be treated as the member of the same group, and to know that his or her wants are share by others.

Acts that threaten someone's face are called face threatening acts (FTAs). Although it is in every participant´s interest to avoid face threatening acts in an interaction, it is not always possible, as some acts are intrinsically face threatening and cannot be performed without posing a threat to either hearer´s or speaker´s face. Typical FTAs include acts such as accusations, insults, interruptions, complaints, disagreements or requests. A disagreement threatens the positive face,

because of the fact that it implies a lack of acceptance for the hearer´s opinions. A request is always threatening to hearer´s negative face, since the demand represents an imposition and restricts the addressee´s independence. At the same time, a request can represent a danger for the positive face if the addressee intends to decline it.

Even though FTAs cannot be sometimes avoided, there are certain strategies to minimize the threat. Brown and Levinson (1) list five options a speaker can choose from in case a face threatening act should be performed; each strategy requiring a different amount of face saving effort.

(1) Brown and Levinson´s FTA avoiding strategies

In order to reduce the FTAs, Brown and Levinson sum up four main types of politeness strategies, those are:

1. On Record Strategy Without Redressive Action

The most direct and threatening strategy is to act baldly on record. Direct speech acts are used and they tend to contain the imperative without any mitigating devices (Cutting, 2008). Brown and Levinson note that these acts follow Grice´s Maxims of Cooperation. They are relevant, brief and avoid ambiguity and do

not communicate more than is required and thus no concern for face wants is expressed. Bald-on-record acts are preformed when the speaker has significantly more power than the hearer or when the threat involved is very small. When urgency or efficiency is necessary, a face threatening act can also be done without redress. Orders such as "Call the ambulance!" are not considered impolite and it is mutually understood that there is no time for mitigating strategies.

2. Positive Politeness

Positive Politeness is redress directed to the addressee's positive face, his desire that his wants should be thought of as desirable. This strategy attempts to minimize the threat to the hearers face. This strategy is most commonly used in situations where the audience knows each other fairly well. Quite often hedging and attempts to avoid conflict are used. For example, a positive politeness strategy might be the request "I know that you've been really busy lately, but could you do the dishes?"

3. Negative Politeness

This strategy presumes that the speaker will be imposing on the hearer. The potential for awkwardness is greater than in bald on record strategy and positive politeness strategy. Negative face is

the desire to have freedom of action. Thus, a request without consideration of the hearer's negative face might be uncomfortable, for example "I need $5" is awkward if five dollars is outside the recipient to the question's financial capabilities. But if the speaker, knows that the hearer wants to maintain his autonomy, adds an out for the listener like "I know you've been kinda strapped for cash, but could I borrow $5?", the hearer is more likely to give him that money because the request showed a respect for his ability to

4. Off Record Strategy

Speaker may also decide to go off-record. In this way "it is not possible to attribute only one clear communicative intention to the act". This ambiguity is achieved by violation of Gricean maxims and it is left up to the hearer to infer the implicated meaning. The hearer´s face is protected by having the option to retreat behind the literal meaning of the words (Cutting, 2008) and the speaker can save his face by denying having performed the face threatening act. Therefore, this strategy minimizes the threat most successfully; however, the speaker risks being misunderstood and failure to communicate the FTA. An example of using an off record strategy is an utterance such as "I must have forgotten my pen" in place of bald on record request "Lend me your pen".

2.4 Positive Politeness Strategies

According to Brown and Levinson (1987:70) positive politeness is oriented toward the positive face of the hearer, the positive self-image that he claims for himself and his perennial desire that his wants (or the action/acquisition/values/ resulting from them) should be thought of as desirable (1987:101). Positive politeness utterances are not only used by the participants who have known each other fairly well, but also used as a kind of metaphorical extension of intimacy to imply common ground or to sharing of wants to limited extent between strangers. For the same reason, positive politeness techniques are usable not only for FTA redress, but in general as a kind of social accelerator for the speaker in using them indicates that he wants to 'come closer' to the hearer.

Positive politeness strategy involves fifteen strategies, namely: notice, attend to the hearer (his interest, wants, needs, goods); exaggerate (interest, approval, sympathy with the hearer); intensify interest to the hearer; use in-group identity markers; seek agreement; avoid disagreement; presuppose / raise / assert common ground; joke; assert or presuppose the speaker's knowledge and concern for the hearer's wants; offer / promise; be optimistic; include both the speaker and the hearer in the activity; give (or ask for) reasons; assume or assert reciprocity; and give gifts to the hearer (goods, sympathy, understanding, cooperation).

2.4.1 Fifteen Strategies of Positive Politeness

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

In general, this output suggests that the speaker should take notice of aspect of the hearer's condition (noticeable changes, remarkable possession, anything which looks as though the hearer would want the speaker to notice and approve of it). For example:

"Goodness you cut your hair! … By the way I came to borrow some sugar."

"What a beautiful dress! Where was it bought?"

"We ate too many beans tonight, didn't we?"

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

This strategy is often conducted with exaggerate intonation, stress, and other aspects of prosodic, as well as with intensifying modifiers. For example:

"You are a fantastic cook, the lunch was great!"

"How absolutely marvelous/ extraordinary/….."

Strategy 3: Intensify interest to the hearer

In this strategy, there is another way for the speaker to communicate to the hearer that he shares some of his wants to intensify the interest of his own (the speaker) contribution to the conversation, by making a good story. The speaker uses the vivid explanation or description, therefore it can pull the hearer's right into the middle of the events being discussed, even by using metaphorically at any rate, thereby increasing their intrinsic interest to him. For example, "So we talk to

our brothers and sisters over at Krispity Krunch. We make a deal where we supply sports factoids to their boxes. So that when Joe Couch Potato is sitting there, he's, uh, snacking, he looks down, and what does hesee? Sports America Krispity Krunch sports factoids. He's definitely buying more Krispity Krunch and not Krunch 'n Krackle which, by the way, looks and tastes exactly the same".

Strategy 4: Use in-group identity makers

In this strategy, by using any of the innumerable ways to convey in-group membership, the speaker can implicitly claim the common ground with the hearer that is carried by that definition of the group.

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

"Honey, can you give me the beer?"

"Hey brother, what's going on?"

Strategy 5: Seek agreement

Another characteristic of claiming common ground with the hearer is to seek ways in which it is possible to agree with him. There are two ways: safe topics and repetition (Brown and Levinson, 1987:112).

a. The raising of 'safe topics' allows the speaker to stress his agreement with the hearer that the hearer's opinion is right. The speaker corroborates in his opinions and therefore to satisfy the hearer's positive face. For example, if your neighbor comes home with a new car and you think that it is hideously huge and pollution producing,

you might still be able to say sincerely "Isn't your new car a beautiful color!". Hence, your neighbor's positive face is safe because we do not tell him about his dreadful car.

b. Agreement may also be stressed by repeating a part or what the entire preceding the speaker has said in a conversation. It is not only used to demonstrate that one has heard correctly what was said but also to stress emotional agreement with the utterance (or to stress interest and surprise). "She had an accident last week". – "Oh my god, an accident!"

Strategy 6: Avoid disagreement

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

a. For instances of 'token' agreement are the desire to agree or appear to agree with the hearer leads also to mechanism for pretending to agree (Brown and Levinson, 1987:113). The remarkable degree to which speakers may go in twisting their utterances so as to appear to agree or to hide disagreement-to respond to a preceding utterances with 'Yes, but…' in effect, rather than 'No'.

b. Pseudo-agreement is found in English in the use of "then" as a conclusory marker, an indication that the speaker is drawing a conclusion to a line of reasoning carried out cooperatively with the

addressee (Brown and Levinson, 1987:115). For example, *"I'll see you then"*.

c. White lies ways happen when a speaker confronted with the necessity to state an opinion, wants to lie rather than to damage the hearer's positive face. It is also used to avoid confrontation when refusing a request by lying, pretending there are reasons why one cannot comply (Brown and Levinson, 1987:115). For example, "I fell---fell asleep at my computer. Just kind of banged right into the monitor".

d. Hedging opinion occurs when the speaker may choose to be vague about his own opinions, so as not to be seen to disagree (Brown and Levinson, 1987:116). Normally hedges are a feature of negative politeness, but some hedges are a feature of positive politeness function as well. For example, "No, no, not yet. I mean not yet, Dan"

Strategy 7: Presuppose / raise / assert common ground

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

a. Gossip or small talk, the value of speaker's spending time and effort on being with the hearer, as a mark of friendship or interest him. It gives rise to the strategy of redressing FTAs by talking for a while about unrelated topic before leads to the real topic (Brown and Levinson, 1987:117).

For example, actually the speaker wants to request something to the hearer, thereby he can stress his general interest with the hearer and indicates that he has not come to see the hearer simply to do it even though his intent might be obvious by his having brought gift to the hearer.

b. Point of view operations by means of deixis. It is used for reducing the distance between the speaker and the hearer's point of view.

1) Personal-center switch: the speaker to the hearer. This where the speaker speaks as if the hearer were the speaker, or the hearer's knowledge were equal to the speaker's knowledge (Brown and Levinson, 1987:119). For example, when the speaker gives directions to a stranger, unfamiliar with the town "It's at the far end of the street, the last house on the left, isn't it".

2) Time switch, the use of 'vivid present', a tense shift from past to present tense (Brown and Levinson, 1987:120). The vivid present functions to increase the immediacy and therefore the interest of the story. For example, "John says he really loves your roses".

3) Place switch, the use proximal rather than distal demonstrative (here, this, rather than that, there), where either proximal or distance would be acceptable, seems to convey increased

involvement or empathy (Brown and Levinson, 1987:121). For example, "this is my boss".

c. Presupposition manipulation means that the speaker presupposes something that it is mutually taken for granted. (Brown and Levinson, 1987:122).

1) Presuppose knowledge of the hearer's wants and attitudes. Negative questions, which presume 'yes' as an answer, are widely used as a way to indicate that the speaker knows the hearer's wants, tastes, habits, etc., and thus partially to redress the imposition of FTAs. For example, "Wouldn't you like a drink?"

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

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

4) Presuppose the hearer's knowledge. The use of any term presupposes that the referents are known to the addressee. For example, "Well I was watching High Life last night". The speaker assumes that the hearer does know the program even

though the hearer indeed does not know about the TV program. However, it may operate as an expression of good intentions, indicating that the speaker assumes that the speaker and the hearer share common grounds.

Strategy 8: Joke

Jokes may be used as an exploitation of politeness strategies as well, in attempts to reduce the size of the FTA. For instance the speaker may joke in order to minimize an FTA of requesting. Jokes are also used as a basic positive politeness technique for putting the hearer 'at ease', for example in response to a faux pass of hearer's. For example, "Yeah, uh, no broken bones. No harm, no foul".

Strategy 9: Assert or presuppose speaker's knowledge and concern for the
hearer's wants

This strategy is done by asserting or implying knowledge of hearer's wants and willingness to fit one's own wants with them. For example, "I know we definitely had our moments. But I think you're a good manager and a good salesman. And I want you to come here and be my second-in-command".

Strategy 10: Offer, promise

In order to redress the potential threat of some FTAs, a speaker may choose to stress his cooperation with the hearer in another way. The speaker may claim that whatever the hearer wants, the speaker will help to obtain the hearer's wants. Offers and promises are natural outcomes of choosing this strategy even if

they are false. They just demonstrate the speaker's good intentions in satisfying the hearer's wants. For example, "Don't. I'll call you. Take care Morty".

Strategy 11: Be optimistic

In this strategy, the speaker assumes that the hearer wants to do something for the speaker (or for the speaker and the hearer) and will help the speaker to obtain the goals because it will be in their mutual shared interest. For example, "You'll lend me your apartment-key for the weekend, I hope".

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

This strategy uses an inclusive 'we' form, when speaker really means 'you' or 'me', he can call upon the cooperative assumptions and thereby redress FTAs. An inclusive 'we' often use with the word let's. For example, "Let's stop for a bite".

Strategy 13: Give (or ask for) reasons

In this strategy, the speaker including the hearer in the speaker's practical reasoning and assuming reflexivity that the hearer wants to the speaker's wants. This strategy can be used for complaining or criticizing by demanding reasons 'why not', and assuming that if there are no good reasons why the hearer should not or cannot cooperate he will cooperate, for example complaining past action. Thus, the indirect suggestion which demands rather than gives reasons is a conventionalized positive politeness form. For example, "Why don't you just say, ''Fire them''?".

Strategy 14: Assume or assert reciprocity

In this strategy, the speaker may say, in effect, 'I'll do X for you if you do Y for me', or 'I did X for you last week, so you do Y for me this week' (or vice versa). By this strategy, the speaker may soften his FTA by negating the debt aspect and / or the face threatening aspect of speech act such as criticism or complaints. For example, ""Yesterday I've washed the dishes, so today it's your turn!".

Strategy 15: Give gifts to the hearer (goods, sympathy, understanding, cooperation)

The last strategy, the speaker may satisfy the hearer's positive face want (that the speaker wants to the hearer's wants, to some degree) by actually satisfying some of the hearer's wants. Hence we have the classics positive politeness action of gift giving, not only tangible gifts but also human relation wants such as admired, listened, understood, etc. For example, "I heard you love cakes so much, then I want to come to my party tonight".

2.4.2 Factors Influencing the Use of Positive Politeness Strategy

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

1. Payoff

The speaker employs the positive politeness strategy because they can get any advantages. The speaker can minimize the FTA by assuring the hearer that he likes the hearer and wants to fulfill the hearer's wants. Thus, the hearer positive face is not threatened by the speaker because it can be seen for their mutual shares. For example:

"Let's get on for dinner."

(Taken from Brown and Levinson, 1987:114)

The example above shows that the speaker minimizes the FTA (request) to the hearer by including the speaker himself equally as the participant.

2. Relevant Circumstances

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

1. Relative Power

Power (P) is the general point is that we tend to use a greater degree of politeness with people who have some power or authority over us than to those who do not. It is based on the

asymmetric relation between the speaker and the hearer. These types of power are most found in obviously hierarchical settings, such as courts, the military, workplace. For example, you would probably be more polite about conveying to your employer because she or he always arrives late, than in conveying to your brother. This is because your employer can influence your career in a positive way (reward power) or negative way (coercive way).

2. Social Distance

Social distance (D) can be seen as the composite of psychologically real factors (status, age, sex, degree of intimacy, etc) which together determine the overall degree of respectfulness within a given speech situation. It based on the symmetric relation between the speaker and the hearer. For example, you feel close to someone or you know him well because he is similar in terms of age or sex, then you will get closer to him and the distance rating will get smaller. As a result you will not employ polite utterance when you ask him to do something. On the contrary, you will employ polite utterance when you interact with person whom you have not known well, such as person who is older than you.

3. Size of Imposition

Size of imposition (R) can be seen from the relative status between one-speech act to another in a context. For example, borrowing a car in the ordinary time will make us feel reluctant, but in urgent situations it will natural. Thus, in the first context we will employ polite utterance. Meanwhile, in the second context it is not necessary to employ polite utterance because the situation is urgent.

2.5 Previous Studies

Before presenting the object will be analyzed in this proposal paper, it is important to look up the previous researches relate to this research.

The first previous research is "An Analysis on Politeness Principles Used in "Spartacus" Movie" (UIN Maulana Malik Ibrahim Malang, 2010) written by Ayu Jamilah Achmad. This research aims to investigate language phenomena occurs in "Spartacus" movie. The research focuses on the concepts of pragmatics and politeness. This study is designed to find out the kinds of politeness strategies used by Spartacus and David and to find out the functions of using those kinds of politeness strategies in their conversation. The research design of this study is descriptive-qualitative since the data are collected and analyzed. The data are taken from the movie script of Spartacus. After obtaining the data, the researcher classifies them into different strategies of politeness. The next are analyzing them and making general conclusion based on the theory of politeness strategies. The

results of this study show that the main characters (Spartacus and David) use four kinds of politeness strategies to invite other slaves to fight against the Oppression of Rome as being proposed by Brown and Levinson (1987), they are: Bald on Record, Positive Politeness, Negative Politeness, and Off Record. The function of using Bald on Record is to achieve the maximum efficiency of their utterance. Positive Politeness is used by the main characters to satisfy the hearer's positive face by approving or including them as friend or the member of the group. Negative Politeness is used in the situation in which the main characters have the main focus on assuming that they may be imposing and intruding on hearer's face. Off Record is used in the condition in which the main characters have to take some pressures off of the hearer. Since this study only discusses about the main characters in using politeness strategies, so the researcher suggests to the next researchers to conduct further researches and use various characters, not only the main characters of the movie.

The second previous research is "Politeness Strategies used by the Main Character (Marcus) in Get Rich or Die Trying Movie" (UIN Maulana Malik Ibrahim Malang, 2008) written by Anita Nuri Rachmawati. This study focuses on politeness strategies used by main character in Get Rich or Die Trying movie using Brown and Levinson's theory. Get Rich or Die Trying movie is the acting debut of rapper 50 Cent. This research is conducted to answer the problems concerning politeness strategies used by Marcus in Get Rich or Die Trying movie, and which politeness strategies mostly used by Marcus in Get Rich or Die Trying movie? This research was conducted by using descriptive qualitative, the data

were in the form of transcribed utterances from VCD of Get Rich or Die Trying movie. After obtaining the data, the researches classified the data into four parts of politeness strategies: Bald-on record, Positive politeness, Negative politeness, off record, and then analyzed them into four parts of politeness strategies and made the general conclusion based on the theory and research finding about the politeness strategies. The researcher found the politeness strategies used by the main character of Get Rich or Die Trying movie are Bald on record such as in an emergency. The strategies found are mostly positive politeness such as attend to the hearer, avoid disagreement, assume agreement, and hedge opinion. Negative politeness such as minimizing imposition, and be indirect. The last is off record such as in give hints, be vague, and be sarcastic. Based on the findings of this research, the researcher hopes this research gives contributions to the researcher herself and the readers, for someone who is interested in analyzing movie, especially get rich or die trying movie. The spectators of this movie are not only suggested to focus more on the usage of language and understand the moral value of this movie. But they are also hoped to be able to apply good sides of this movie in their daily life.

The last previous research is "Politeness Strategies Used by Mia and Her Grandma in "Princess Diaries" (UIN Maulana Malik Ibrahim Malang, 2007) written by Anang Fatkhurozi. This research was designed by using sociolinguistic approach because the researcher tried to study a language phenomenon used by the speaker and the hearer. The data were the utterances of Mia and grandma, the main characters of "Princess Diaries" film, which contain the politeness strategies.

They were analyzed inductively through the observation done by the researcher himself. The approach for analyzing the politeness strategies is based on the Scollon and Scollon's Theory of Politeness. As the result, the researcher found out that both Mia and her grandma used two kinds of strategies based on Scollon and Scollon's Concept of Politeness, they are involvement and independent strategies. There were twenty politeness strategies used by Mia: four involvement strategies (notice and attend to hearer, exaggerate when says to the hearer, and giving voluble) and sixteen independent strategies (showing apology, being pessimistic, using the hearer's nicknames, and minimizing threat to the interlocutor, etc). Meanwhile, there are fifteen politeness strategies used by her grandma: twelve involvement strategies (showing attend or notice to the hearer, giving voluble, showing sympathy, using the hearer's language and claim common point of view, opinions, and empathy, etc) and three independent strategies (state general rules, giving apology, and calling the hearer by using his/her nicknames).

Those previous researches show that there has not been any analysis about *The Hunger Games* movie using positive politeness strategies as the subject. Thus, this present research defines to analyze *The Hunger Games* using positive politeness strategies under titled "Positive Politeness Strategy Used by Katniss Everdeen in *The Hunger Games* movie. The first and second researches have some additions to this research since the used of theory is the same.