

CHAPTER II UNDERLYING THEORY

A. Notion of Socio-Pragmatic

Socio-pragmatic derives from sociolinguistic and pragmatic. Leech (in Trosborg, 1995: 6) states that pragmatic is the study of how utterance has meaning in such situation. While sociolinguistic is a term including the aspect of linguistics applied toward the connection between language and society and the way we use it in different social situation (<http://logos.uoregon.edu/explore/socioling/index.html>).

According to Leech (in Kwate, 2003: 1), socio-pragmatics is “the sociological interface of pragmatics” involving speaker’s and hearer’s belief built on relevant social and cultural values. Thus, socio-pragmatic competence is the ability to adjust speech strategies appropriately according to different social variables such as the degree of imposition, social dominance and distance between participant of conversation, and participants’ right and obligation in communication. While Oatey gave the notion of Socio-pragmatic as follows:

Socio-pragmatic as socio culturally based principles and the interpretative, scalar in nature that guide or influence people use of language. The participants are typically value linked, so that in given culture and situational context, there are norms or preferences regarding the implementation of the principle and the failure to implementation of the principles are expected may result in mind to strong evaluative judgment.(2001: 2)

Salmani (2007: 2) argues that socio-pragmatics refers to the way conditions of language use, is derived from the social situation. A number of social factors that influence the language used by him are: 1) the situation (for normal or informal), 2) who is talking (status relationship), 3) aim or purpose of conversation, 4) how well do they know each other, 5) what is the topic of the conversation.

Based on the explanation above, the researcher concludes that socio-pragmatic is the study of language meaning influenced by cultural and social context.

B. Notion of Speech Act

People use language to have communication with other. Through the language people can do several things, such as making request, asking question, giving order, making promises, giving thanks, offering apologies, and others. The use of language can be separated from the use of speech act. Speech act is a speech of an intended act that is used by the speaker to interpret their intention.

Speech act theory can be directly attributed to two philosophers, John Austin (1962) and John Searle (1962; 1969). Searle (in Leech 1999:73) states that speech acts is developed from basic belief that language is used to perform actions. Viewing speech acts as the basic unit of communication. Searle explicitly associate speech acts with the study of language. Thus this

connection what the speaker means, what the sentence (language element), uttered means, what the speaker intends, what the hearer understands, what the rule governing the linguistics elements are.

According to Austin (in Leech, 1983: 199), speech act divided into three types. They are as follows:

1. Locutionary Act (Locution)

Locutionary act is the utterance of a sentence which determines sense and reference.

Example:

INT. HOTEL- DAY

The conversation is happens between the Bride and Karen Wong. Karen Wong is the sister of Lisa Wong, the person that becomes the Bride target. Karen Wong comes to the Bride hotel room. They are face to face now with guns in their hands.

BRIDE : Can you shoot me?

Karen Wong : No at this range, but I can dissect you with this gun.

Bride : I am better than Austin Oaklay. I have shot you.

Karen Wong : **I can blow your head.**

Bride : No if I shot you between your eyes. Let's talk.

They stare each other

Here the locutionary act is to inform that the speaker comes to the addresser and wants to blow the addresser's head.

2. Illocutionary Act

Illocutionary act is what the speaker is doing by uttering those words, for example: commanding, offering, promising, threatening and thanking.

Example:

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The utterance above is direct illocution because the speaker said to the hearer to kill him/her, and the function of the utterance is threatening.

3. Perlocutionary Act

Perlocutionary act is the actual result of illocution. It is the effect of utterances toward the hearer.

Example:

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Bride : No if I shot you between your eyes. Let's talk.

They stare each other.

Here the perlocutionary act is that the hearer giving response to the speaker's utterance that the hearer denies to be killed by saying to the speaker that she can not be killed if she shot the speaker between her eyes.

Searle (in Levinson, 1983: 240) has set up the following classification of illocutionary speech acts:

- a. Representative is speech acts that commit a speaker to the truth of the expressed [proposition](#). The speaker is representing world as she/he believes it, for example: asserting, informing, affirming, etc.
- b. Directive is a speech act that is used by the speaker to get someone does something. For example: requesting, commanding and warning, etc.
- c. Commissives

- 1) Notion of Commissive

A speech act that commits the speaker to some future course of action is called commissive utterance.

- 2) Kinds of Commissive Utterance

- a) Offer

Offer is an expression of intention or willingness to give or do something if desired.

- b) Volunteering

Volunteering is as offering to undertake or perform (a task) or to give/supply (a thing).

- c) Threat

Threat is an utterance that contains statement of an intention to punish or harm somebody.

d) Warning

It is an utterance that asks other to be careful, not to do something.

It can be expressed by using verb like warn, suggest, advice, etc.

- d. Expressive is speech acts that expresses psychological statement such as feeling and attitude. For example: congratulating, excusing and thanking.
- e. Declaratives is speech acts which effect immediate changes in the institutional state of affairs and which tend to rely on elaborate extra-linguistic institution. For example: declaring, appointing, and pronouncing.

According to Renkema (1993, 21-23), in speech act theory, language is seen as a form of acting. This theory has had a strong influence on the field of discourse studies as this theory focuses on the question of what people are doing when they use language. In general speech acts are acts of communication. As act of communication, a speech act succeeds if the audience can identify the speaker's intention.

From some definitions above it can be seen that speech act is communicative acts which is performed through speech in particular context.

C. POLITENESS STRATEGY

1. Notion of Politeness Strategy

Politeness is related to the study of "face" between the speaker and the hearer utterances. According to Mills (2003: 6), politeness is the

expression of the speaker's intention to mitigate "face" threats carried by certain face threatening act toward another. Being polite, therefore, consist of attempting to "save face" for another.

According to Brown and Levinson, positive and negative face, exists universally in human [culture](#). Brown and Levinson (in Pecei 1999: 64-65) have developed a frame work of politeness. In their analysis, politeness involves us showing an awareness of other people's face wants. In social interactions, face-threatening acts (FTAs) are at times inevitable based on the terms of the conversation. A face threatening act is an act that inherently damages the face of the [addressee](#) or the speaker by acting in opposition to the wants and desires of the other. Most of these acts are verbal, however, they can also be conveyed in the characteristics of speech (such as [tone](#), [inflection](#), etc) or in non-verbal forms of [communication](#). At minimum, there must be at least one of the face threatening acts associated with an [utterance](#). It is also possible to have multiple acts working within a single utterance.

2. Kinds of Face Threatening Act

According to Brown & Levinson (1978: 66) politeness strategies are developed in order to save the hearer's "face". Face refers to the respect that an individual has for him or herself, and "self-esteem" in public or in private situations.

Politeness strategies are used to formulate messages in order to save the hearer's face when face-threatening acts are inevitable or desired. Brown and Levinson (1978: 96) outline four main types of politeness strategies: bald on-record, negative politeness, positive politeness, and off-record (indirect).

a. Bald On-Record

Bald on-record strategies usually do not attempt to minimize the threat to the hearer's face, although there are ways that bald on-record politeness can be used in trying to minimize FTAs implicitly. Often using such a strategy will shock or embarrass the addressee, and so this strategy is most often utilized in situations where the speaker has a close relationship with the audience, such as family or close friends. The speaker may perform an act explicitly either with some mitigation directed to the face or badly with no mitigation at all. The speaker does not effort to reduce the impact of FTA. Brown and Levinson outline various cases in which one might use the bald on-record strategy.

Example: Inviting someone to enter the house. "Come in, serve your self."

b. Negative Politeness

Negative politeness strategies are oriented towards the hearer's negative face and emphasize avoidance of imposition on the hearer. These strategies presume that the speaker will be imposing on the

listener and there is a higher potential for awkwardness or embarrassment than in bald on record strategies and positive politeness strategies. Negative politeness also involves more frequent use of other mitigating devices, expression that “soften the blow”, like: please, possibly, might, I’m sorry but...etc.

Example: To give an argumentation. “I ‘m sorry but you might listen to my explanation.”

c. Positive Politeness

Positive politeness strategies seek to minimize the distance between the speaker and the listener. They are used to make the hearer feel good about himself, his interests or possessions, and are most usually used in situations where the audience knows each other fairly well. When the people use positive politeness strategy they use speech strategies which emphasize their solidarity with the hearer, such as informal pronunciation, shared dialect or slang expression, nicknames and request which are less indirect. In addition to hedging and attempts to avoid conflict, some strategies of positive politeness include statements of friendship, solidarity, compliments.

Example: Asks to someone. “Hey guys, can you turn off the music?”

d. Off-Record (Indirect)

The final politeness strategy outlined by Brown and Levinson is the indirect strategy. This strategy uses indirect language and removes

the speaker from the potential to be imposing. For example, a speaker using the indirect strategy might merely say “wow, it’s getting cold in here” insinuating that it would be nice if the listener would get up and turn up the thermostat without directly asking the listener to do so. Here the speaker try to use more polite utterances as if it does not intend to whom the speaker speak, but it depends on what the listener get the message of him or her.

D. Linguistic Form

Linguistic form deals with the linguistic units, such as word, phrase, clause and sentence.

1. Word

Srijono (2001: 51) states that words are the smallest free forms found in language. While according to Katamba (1994: 19) “word can be seen as representation of a lexeme that is associated with the certain morpho-syntactic properties”. Word can stand by itself. So, word is the smallest meaningful unit that can be used in language.

2. Phrase

Phrase is often defined as a group of related words without a subject and predicate (de Boer in Lestari, 2004:16). While Hornby (1974: 64) states that a phrase is a group of word (often without a finite verb) forming part of sentence.

Brewton (1962: 238) also states that phrase is a group of related

words that does not have a subject and a predicate. A phrase performs the function of a single part of speech. While Srijono (2001: 65) states that phrase is a group that has no subject and predicate element. A phrase usually has a head and one or more modifier/ specifies.

It can be concluded that phrase is a group of related words without a subject and predicate.

3. Clause

According to Hornby (1995: 204) a clause is a group of words that includes a subject and a verb, forming a sentence or a part of sentence.. Moreover Frank (1972: 224) states that classification a clause in two prominent types, namely independent and dependent clause:

- a. Independent clause is a full predication that may stand alone as a sentence.
- b. Dependent clause has a special introductory word that makes the predication “depend” on an independent clause.

4. Sentence

a. Notion of Sentence

According to Frank (1972: 220) sentence is a full predication containing a subject plus a predicate with a finite verb. It can be inferred that sentence is a group of words that have subject and predicate. Sentence is arranged as follows: subject + predicate + object; noun + verb + noun; noun phrase + Verb phrase (NP + VP).

b. Classification of Sentence

The classifications of sentence in generally are divided into two categories; classification by type and classification by predication (Frank, 1972: 221).

1) Classification sentence by type in English version

a) Declarative sentence

Declarative sentence is a sentence that the subject and predicate have normal word order. In declarative sentence, the sentence ends with a period or full stop.

Example: The woman kills the traitor.

b) Interrogative sentence

Interrogative sentence is a sentence which the subject and the predicate are often reserved. Here the sentence is sometimes started by auxiliary, question word and modal. Interrogative sentence is used a question mark in written form.

Example: Have you finished your mission?

c) Imperative sentence

Imperative sentence is a sentence which the predicate is only expressed. In imperative sentence, the sentence has function to make a request, invitation or offer. Imperative sentence also can be used as a negative sentence when it is

used to give a clear order.

Example: Don't waste your time by keep talking!

d) Exclamatory sentence

Here the sentence is used to express a strong feeling. Exclamatory sentence is started with exclamatory phrase consisting of "what" or "how" plus a part of predicate. Usually in written form it ends with exclamatory mark.

Example: What a mean woman you are!

2) Classification of sentence by type in Indonesian version

a) Declarative sentence

In Indonesian language, declarative sentences also called *Kalimat Berita*. Declarative sentence is a sentence which used by the speaker or writer to convey information or news or make a statement directly addressed to the second person or listener or reader (Alwi, 2003: 353).

Example: I look the bus in Ciliwung this morning.(English)
Saya lihat bus itu di Ciliwung pagi ini.(Indonesia)

b) Interrogative sentence

In Indonesian language interrogative sentences is also called *Kalimat Tanya*. In oral speaking or writing, this sentence commonly needs the answer yes or no, and the information about something from some one as interlocutor or a reader

(Alwi, 2003: 358). Moreover, Ramlan (1987: 357) emphasizes about the characteristics of interrogative sentence. First, informally interrogative sentence is signed by the interrogative words: *apa, siapa, berapa, mengapa, kenapa, bagaimana, kapan, mana*. Second, in writing form, this sentence is signed by interrogative sign (?) in the end of sentence while in oral speaking this simple sentence is ended by increased intonation.

Example: What does the farmer brings? (English)
 Apa yang dibawa petani itu? (Indonesian)

c) Imperative sentence

Imperative sentence is called *Kalimat Suruh* or *Kalimat Perintah* in Indonesian language. Imperative sentence is a sentence which contents of the command from the speaker has an authority to command the second person to do something (Ramlan, 1987: 45). In writing, the command intonation signaled by exclamation sign (!).

Example: You, be quiet! (English)
 Diam kau! (Indonesia)

d) Exclamatory sentence

Exclamatory sentence is a sentence which used to express “hard feeling” or suddenly.

Example : What a clever student he is. (English)

Bukan main pandainya murid itu! (Indonesia)

3) Classification sentence by predication in English version

a) Simple sentence

Frank (1972: 223) defines simple sentence is a sentence which only has one full predication in the form of an independent clause

Example: My daughter is kidnapped.

b) Compound sentence

Frank (1972: 223) defines that compound sentence is a sentence which has two or more full predication in the form of independent clause.

Example: I will come after you and I'll kill you.

c) Complex sentence

Frank (1972: 223) defines complex sentence is a sentence which has two or more full predication. One of these is an independent clause (main clause) that is similar to the form of simple sentence, and one or more of these are dependent clause (subordinate clause).

Example: The woman who talking with him is a murderer.

d) Compound- complex sentence

This sentence has two or more independent clause and

one or more dependent clause. Frank (1972: 223)

Example: The woman hunted the kidnapper and the woman killed him because he refuses to hand the kid over.

4) Classification of sentence by predication in Indonesian version

a) Simple sentence

In Indonesian language, simple sentence is called “*Kalimat Tunggal*” or “*Kalimat Sederhana*” which means the sentence has one subject and one predicate. In other word, it can call as main clause (*induk kalimat*) without sub-clause (*anak kalimat*). The pattern of simple sentence is S + P (Subject + predicate).

M. Ramlan (1987: 49), in his book “*Ilmu Bahasa Indonesia Syntaksis*” says that “The sentence which contains of one clause called simple sentence”. While, Hasan Alwi (2003: 338), in his book “*Tata Bahasa Baku Bahasa Indonesia*” says that “Simple sentence is a sentence which contains of one clause.”

Example: Vernita menyanyi (Vernita sing)

b) Complex sentence

Complex sentence in Indonesia called “*Kalimat Majemuk*”. It is mean the sentence consist of two or more

simple sentence which has connection coordination or subordination.

Example: Wanita itu tidak hanya dirampok tetapi juga dibunuh dengan kejam. (The woman not only robbed but she also cruelly murdered)

5. Notion of Utterance

An utterance is a natural unit of speech bounded by breaths or pauses. (<http://www.sil.org/linguistics/GlossaryOfLinguisticTerms/WhatIsAnUtterance.htm>)

E. Translation

1. Notion of Translation

Translation is the action of interpretation of the meaning of a text, and subsequent production of an equivalent text, also called a translation, that communicates the same message in another language. The text to be translated is called source text, and the text it is to be translated is called the target language.

Sadtono (1985: 2) said, “translation is as re-expressing the message in one language in such a way that the content of the translated materials as close as possible to the original one”. While, Catford in Nord (2001: 7) defines that “Translation is the replacement of textual material in one language (SL) by equivalent textual material in another language (TL).”

2. Process of Translation

Nida (1964) and Suryawinata (1982) (in Nababan, 2004: 14) illustrate the stages of translation as:

- a. Analysis of the source language text
- b. The transfer of content or meaning or message
- c. The restructuring in the target language

3. Principle of Translation

Savory (1968) (in Nababan, 2004: 15) for instance suggested ten apparently contradictory principles that could be used to assess the quality of a translation.

- a. A translation must give the words of the original.
- b. A translation must give the idea of the original.
- c. A translation should read like an original work.
- d. A translation should read like a translation.
- e. A translation should reflect the style of the original.
- f. A translation should possess the style of the translator.
- g. A translation should read as contemporary of the translator.
- h. In a translation, a translator must never add or leave out anything.
- i. In a translation, a translator may, if need be, add or leave out something.

4. Translation Shift

- a. Level shift

It occurs when a SL item has TL translation equivalent at a different linguistic level from its own (grammatical, lexical, etc).

b. Category shift

It is a generic term referring to shift involving any of the four categories of class, structure, system, and unit. This category shift may involve:

- 1) Class shift, when a SL item is translated by means of TL item belonging to a different grammatical class.
- 2) Structure shifts, involving a change in grammatical structure between source text and target text.
- 3) Unit shifts, where a strict rank-for-rank correspondence between SL and TL sentences, clauses, groups, words, and morphemes are not observed.
- 4) Intra-system shifts, which occurs when translating involves selection of a non-corresponding term in the TL system which approximately correspond formally.

5. Translation Equivalence

The relation with the source language text is problematic. According to Hervey, Higgins, and Haywood (1995: 14) there are three main reasons why an exact equivalence or effect is difficult to achieve. The first is impossible for a text to have constant interpretations even for the same person on two occasions. Second, translation is a matter of subjective

interpretation of translation of the source language text. Third, it may not be possible for translators to determine how audiences responded to the source language text when it was first produced.

Munday (2001: 47) describes five different types of equivalences as follows:

- 1) Denotative equivalence is related to equivalence of the extra linguistic content of a text.
- 2) Connotative equivalence is related to the lexical choices, especially between near-synonyms.
- 3) Text-normative equivalence is related to the text types, with texts behaving in different ways.
- 4) Pragmatic equivalence is oriented towards the receiver of the text or message.
- 5) Formal equivalence is related to the form and aesthetics of the text, includes word plays and the individual stylistics feature of the source text.

6. The Accuracy of Translation

The rate of the translation accuracy determines the quality of translation. Larson (in Sutopo 2001, 123) proposes the following ways to test the translation quality:

- a. Comparison with the source language
- b. Back translation into the source language

- c. Comprehension checked
- d. Naturalness test
- e. Readability test
- f. Consistency check

F. Key Terms Used in Films Manuscript

1. Slug Line

Slug line is used to proceed the scene is inside or outside of the location and whether it is day or night.

e.g.: **EXT. JAZZ CLUB – DAY**

INT. JAZZ CLUB – DAY

2. Scene description Lines

Scene description lines occur directly after the slug line. The scene description tells more about the setting, who is in the scene, even sometimes where they are located and also what they do. The important information is placed here. The scene description often instruct about essential physical.

a. Terms

There are several technical terms applied in a master scene script. They are dissolve, fade in and fade out.

1) Dissolve

This term is used to show that the time has elapsed. This means the ending scenes, or shot, fades out while the next fades in. more, it is written in the right margin.

2) Fade in and Fade Out

Fade in maybe written at the beginning of the script and fade out the end of the script. If it is needed to feed to black, write fade out at the right margin. Characters sometimes talk when they are not in the camera range or at the phone, radio, etc. When this happens, you write the character name and dialogue as usual. But next to the character name, write (O.S) to show that they are off the screen. When the voice is dubbed or reproduced (voice over), you can write (V.O).

In order to make the data source easier to conduct, the researcher abbreviates the title of film manuscript “*American Gangster, Kill Bill vol 1* and *Kill Bill vol 2*” into “AG, KB1, and KB2”. Then the writer writes “Q” as Quotation and the number of the quotation. For example: (AG Q2) which means *American Gangster, Quotation two*