

## CHAPTER 2

### REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

#### 2.1 Previous Studies

Ainaul Mardiyah, a student of Udinus Semarang did the analysis in this particular genre of mood and speech function in 2014. Her research which entitled *Interpersonal Meaning of Interview between Damon Weaver and US President Barrack Obama* aims to present the mood types and the speech function in each clause of the utterances expressed by both speakers, then describing the role relationship conveyed by the speakers in the interview. The research used descriptive qualitative and took the data from the internet. The method she used in analyzing the data is reading the interview transcript, identifying and categorizing the clauses into the mood types and speech function. The last is interpreting the mood types and speech functions analysis. Among 206 clauses, she found that Obama as the interviewee produced mostly declarative than Damon in order to provide more information to the audience. Meanwhile Damon produced most of interrogative clause because his role as the interviewer who tried to dig the information much more. The difference of Ainaul's research and this mood and speech function study is on the purpose. Ainaul's research focuses on the interpersonal aspects between both interview speakers seen from the mood and speech function inside the utterances. Hence, this study discusses the function of mood and speech type presented in the interview.

One of studies that has also examined the linguistic features of this scope of study mood and speech function is *An analysis of Mood Types in the interview between George Negus and Jim Rogers* by Yunias Rena Milandani from UDINUS University in 2012. She considered that the interview reflects the interpersonal meaning that draws relationship between speaker and hearer, and the clause as exchanges. The research which used descriptive qualitative was aimed to describe the type of mood used in each clause in the conversation

between George Negus and Jim Rogers held on March 3<sup>rd</sup> 2009. The data that was taken from <http://www.ign.com/interview> found that there are 281 clauses in the interview transcript. The mood types used in the conversation transcript consist of declarative (87.09%) as the dominant mood types, interrogative (8.48%), and imperative (4.43%). Yunias' research is dissimilar with this study because this discusses not only mood types, but also the speech functions theory as well applied on *Sarah Sechan TalkShow* interview to analyze the data. This study considers how the exchange of the clause may effects the respond of a speech role's utterance.

The other previous researches used theory related to Systemic Functional Linguistic, and concern for speech function is the thesis of Catur Wahono Martanto entitled *The Speech Functions Analysis in Utterances used by Alex Hitches and Sara Mendes in 'Hitch' Movie* from Dian Nuswantoro University in 2014. Descriptive qualitative and the library research methods were used in analyzing the data to find the kinds of speech function applied in movie conversation, and find the interpersonal roles created by Alex Hitches and Sara mendes. The result showed that there are 10 kinds of speech function occurs in the movie. They are statement, answer, question, acknowledgment, contradiction, commend, offer, disclaimer, rejection, acceptance, with no refusal and compliance. However, the dominant speech functions expressed by two characters are statement and question. The difference between Catur's research and this study is on the object. Catur used the movie, yet this study used the Talkshow on Net TV Program.

Another previous research that discussed such mood and speech function feature is *Mood and Speech Function realizations of Rights and Responsibilities in "Twitter's Terms Of Service"* by Siska Fauzi in 2013 from UDINUS Semarang. This thesis considered the mood types applied in rights and responsibilities of "Twitter's term of service", and the speech functions realizations of rights and responsibilities in each clause of "Twitter's terms of service". Through descriptive research method, the finding presented that Rights

of Terms mostly used declaratives as mood types and statements as the speech function. Meanwhile, Responsibilities were commonly contains declaratives as mood types and statements as the speech function. However, the difference between Siska's research and this study is on the object. Siska used the Social Media written transcript, while this study used the spoken Talkshow on Net TV Program on October 3<sup>rd</sup>, 2013.

## **2.2 Theoretical Review**

### **2.2.1 Systemic Functional Grammar**

In our ordinary everyday lives, we are constantly using language. Therefore, the most commonly application of Systemic Functional Linguistics is to understand the quality of texts, why a text means what it does, and why it is valued as it is. Based on Eggins (2004:3), a systemic functional linguistics is an approach of language which focused on how people use language to the others to accomplish everyday social life. This interest leads systemic linguist to advance four main theoretical claims about language:

1. That language use is functional
2. That its function is to make meanings
3. That these meanings are influenced by the social and cultural context in which they are exchanged
4. That the process of using language is a *semiotic* process, a process of making meanings by choosing

According to Linda Gerot and Peter Wignel in "*Making sense of Functional Grammar*" (1994: v), it is stated that grammar is theory of language, on how language is put together and how it works. Functional grammar focuses on the purposes and the use of language which means people wanted to use language to achieve goals. Systemic Functional Grammar orientation as a system of grammar is represented by means of system networks that can be used in text analysis of a wide range of languages context as educational, social, literary, political, legal, clinical, and so on (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014: 56).

In systemic functional interpretation, the entire architecture of language is arranged along three functional lines, which is termed as metafunctions

(Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014: 15). Halliday calls these three metafunctions the ideational, interpersonal and textual metafunctions. The ideational metafunction provides resources for construing human experiences. This is realized through naming things, modelling our experience of the world into categories and so on. It can be distinguished into two parts, with the experiential metafunction encoding the experiences and the logical metafunction showing the relationships between these experiences.

The interpersonal metafunction provides resources for enacting roles and social relationships. This is typically realized through encoding ideas about obligation and inclination and expressing attitude. As Halliday and Matthiessen point out, if the ideational function of the grammar is '*language as reflection*', interpersonal function is '*language as action*' (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014: 30). The textual metafunction provides resources for constructing a text. This is realized by presenting ideational and interpersonal meanings as information and organizing these meanings into a coherent and linear text.

It is important to note that meanings are simultaneously organized along the three functional lines. At the same time, as an integral component within the overall SFL theory, metafunctionality applies to lexicogrammar systems at all ranks. At the clause rank, the three metafunctions generate three distinct structures combined into one. At the group rank, in comparison, the metafunctionality is represented in a single structural line with each element in the structure making partial contributions to one or more metafunctional meanings. Most clause constituents are playing two and often three different functional roles. Each constituent is thus considered a maximum of three types of meaning: a meaning about the interaction (an interpersonal meaning), a meaning about reality (an experiential meaning), and a meaning about a message (a textual meaning) (Eggs, 2004:213).

Specifically, these three sets of options together determine the structural shape of the clause since the three structures serve to express three largely

independent sets of lexicogrammatical choice (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014: 361) :

1. Transitivity structures defines representational meaning: what the clause is about, which is identically some process, with relating to participants and circumstances:
2. Modal structures identifies interactional meaning: what the clause is doing, as a verbal exchange between speaker or writer and audience;
3. Thematic structures describes the organization of the message: how the clause connects to the surrounding discourse, and to the context of situation where it is being produced.

### **2.2.2 Interpersonal Meaning**

We use language to make sense of our experience, and to carry out our interaction with other people. In communication, particularly in a conversation, people use language interpersonally, interacts with other people, and control their behavior. The interpersonal derived the use of language as a means in which the speaker involves in the speech situation. There are two points of Interpersonal meaning. First, one concerns the types of interaction taking place and the kind of commodity being exchanged, and second, it concerns the way speakers take a position in their messages. Interpersonal metafunctions means enacting social relationships where the clause works as exchange and the system of grammar used is mood (Halliday, 2014: 85).

An interpersonal fundamental is related to elements of information as given or demanded, persons and attitudes that enactment of social process. It is a part of exchange information between speaker and addressee, where commodities are given and demanded, where it creates the interpersonal relationship as part of the interaction conversation core. Through the interaction in conversation, then the speaker implies a role, a set of roles and also provides roles to others speakers. It may in the form of accepting or rejecting. The expression that is aroused is the speaker's own judgment, their own attitudes, personality, responds that gives certain effects on the hearer. The addressee or the hearer then in turn understand how to adopt and assign

the roles, take the position as a channel and as a model for social interaction in which the context of situation they are involved in.

Based on the statement about the conversation and interpersonal meaning, it is figured out that conversation has a function to define the interpersonal relationship among speakers of language. It focuses on the achievement of the interaction with involving the exchange of speech functions, overlapping, the discourse purposes, and the change of moods to describe the process of negotiation between the speakers. The social role relations in conversation that are done through talk, open communication, taking turn, closing, and the attitudes expressed towards each other, or what kinds of things they find funny together indicates the intimacy of the speakers.

### **2.2.3 Speech Function**

Halliday (2014: 523) stated that there are two types of specific role, they are giving and demanding. The commodity exchange can be either goods and services, or information. The fundamental of speech role and a commodity can be identifies as follows:

1. The basic types of speech role;
  - (a). Giving
 

The speaker is giving something to the listener for example a piece for information. Giving means 'inviting to receive'.
  - (b). Demanding
 

The speaker is demanding something from listener. Demanding means 'inviting to give'
2. Commodity exchange
  - (a). Good and Service
 

The speaker says to hearer with the purpose of getting to do something or give some object.
  - (b). Information
 

The speaker says to hearer with the purpose of getting to tell something

The combination of the speech role and the commodity exchanged make four speech functions to initiate a conversation:

**Table 2.1. giving or demanding, goods & services or information based on Halliday' theory (2014: 136)**

Role in Exchange	Commodity exchanged	
	(a) Good & Services	(b) Information
(i) Giving	'Offer'; <i>Would you like this teapot?</i>	'Statement'; <i>He's giving her the teapot.</i>
(ii) demanding	'Command'; <i>Give me that teapot!</i>	'Question' <i>What is he giving her?</i>

These two variables, when taken together, define the four primary speech functions into offer, command, statement and question. Then in turn, are put along with a set of desired responses, like accepting an offer, carrying out a command, acknowledging a statement and answering a question.

**Table 2.2 Speech functions and responses (Halliday, 2014:136)**

	Initiation		Response	
			Expected	Discretionary
<b>Give</b>	<b>Goods &amp; services</b>	<b>Offer</b> Shall I give you this teapot?	<b>Acceptance</b> Yes, please, do!	<b>Rejection</b> no, thanks
<b>Demand</b>		<b>Command</b> Give me that teapot!	<b>undertaking</b> here you are	<b>refusal</b> I won't
<b>Give</b>	<b>Information</b>	<b>Statement</b> he's giving her the teapot	<b>Acknowledgement</b> Is he?	<b>contradiction</b> no, he isn't
<b>Demand</b>		<b>Question</b> What is he giving her?	<b>answer</b> a teapot	<b>Disclaimer</b> I don't know

According to Gerot and Wignell (1994:22), there are options of speech functions:

a. **Offer**

The speaker gives the hearer some goods or services and the speaker inherently invites the hearer to receive those goods and services, for example: *Would you mind opening the window?*

b. **Command**

The speaker demands the hearer some goods and services and the hearer are thereby invited to give that service or provide the goods, as in: *see the notification tab of setting for more.*

c. **Statement**

The speaker gives the hearer some information and the speaker inherently is inviting the hearer to receive that information for example: *the types and extent of advertising by twitter on the services are subject to change.*

d. **Question**

The speaker demands the hearer some information and the speaker inherently is inviting the hearer to give that information for example: *do you agree about this term?*

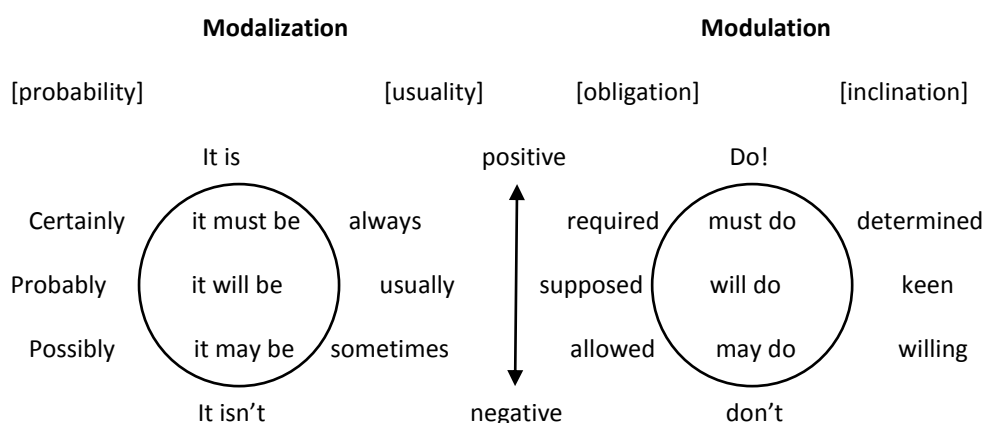
#### 2.2.4 Mood and Residue

Mood is the major interpersonal system of the clause. It provides intertants involved in dialogue with the resources for giving and demanding a commodity, either information or goods-&-services-in other words, with the resources for enacting speech functions (speech acts) through the grammar of the clause; statements (giving information), offers (giving goods-&-services), and commands (demanding goods-&-services) (Halliday, 2014: 97).

In the discussion about interpersonal, then mood is the main thing of the systemic structure. This kind of grammar relates to how the clause is structured to allow people in expressing interpersonal meanings. Interpersonal system explains how the relationship between functional constituents and their configurations in clauses of distinctive mood types. It concerns for the role of



modality in interaction. Mood structures of the clause involve exchanging goods and services, the concepts of modalization (connected to the probability or frequency of propositions) and modulation (connected to the obligation or inclination of proposals) (Fontaine, 2012:121), as it is drawn in this following figure:



**Figure. 2.1 Relation of modality to polarity and mood (Halliday and Matthiessen, 2004:619)**

Related to the case of verbs, modality is manifested in two ways:

1. Modalisation concern about probability (involves certainty), or usuality, as in *they may have sought for the ring everywhere* (probability), *she goes to school at seven every day* (usuality).
2. Modulation concern for obligation (including permission) or inclination. *You should study hard to pass the final exam* (obligation). *She can play all the time she wants* (permission). *She hardly tried to study even in midnight* (inclination)

A clause is derived into Mood + Residue. Eggins (2004:150) said that the grammar of the clause as exchange is related to two functional constituents: a Mood element, which functions to carry the argument, and a residue, which can be left out or unused. Based on Gerot and Wignell (1994: 25), the mood component is divided into two parts. They are *subject*, which is considered as a nominal group, can be a noun, or pronoun, and *finite element*, which is part of the verbal group. The rest of the verbal group is the predicator, which part of the

residue. The *Mood* element consists of two parts: (1) the *Subject*, which is a nominal group, and (2) the *Finite* operator, which is part of a verbal group (Halliday, 2014: 140). The example of mood construction is as this following:

<b>You</b>	<b>Know</b>	
Subject	Finite	Predicator
Mood	Residue	

#### 2.2.4.1 Subject

Subject is usually labeled with S. It commonly appears in the form of noun or pronoun, yet a noun is not always become the subject. Gerot and Wignell (1994: 28) stated that the subject is that upon which the speaker rests his case in exchanges of information, and the one responsible for insuring that the prescribed action is or is not carried out in exchange of goods and services. Meanwhile, Eggins (2004:151) explained that subject is something by reference to which the proposition can be affirmed or denied. As Halliday (2014: 83) said,

The subject function in the structure of the clause is as an exchange that means a transaction between speaker and listener; the subject is the guarantee of the exchange. It is the element the speaker makes responsible for the quality of what he is saying.

Subject specifies as the responsible element which provides the person or thing in whom is vested the success or failure of the proposition, what is “held responsible”. The example of Subject is as this following:

**The fans**            are            incredible

<b>Subject</b>	Finite	Residue
Mood		

#### 2.2.4.2 Finite Element

Finite labeled as F and belongs to the verbal group which encodes primary tense or the speaker’s opinion. There is no difficulty in identifying the finite for it will always be the first of the verbal elements (Eggins, 2004:152). Gerot and Wignell (1994: 25) stated that the finite element is one of the small

numbers of verbal operators described tense, modality and polarity. It consists of two main interpersonal roles in the verbal group. It can be form of a sign of Time in relation to the speaker, and a Modal sign of the speaker's opinion. The example of this statement is as the following:

1. As sign of time
  - *She is writing the letter*; F (is) means in present time
  - *She wrote the letter*; F (wrote) means in the past
  - *She will write the letter*; F (will) means the event of will takes place sometime after doing her homework
2. As sign of opinion
  - *She could write the letter*; F (could) means opinion about ability

Related to the presence in a clause, finite is considered if only there are some of these following points (Fontaine, 2012: 116):

- a. The clause includes a Finite verbal element that can be shown as an inflection for past or present tense (e.g. *he walks vs. he walked or he is walking or he was walking*)
- b. The clause includes a Finite verbal element in the form of a modal auxiliary verb (e.g. *can or should*, as in *I can swim*)
- c. The clause includes a verbal operator that can be shown to be inflected for grammatical mood (e.g. indicative mood vs. imperative mood, as in *you are happy vs. be happy*)

The example of Subject and Finite application:

This **is** My first solo trip

Subject	<b>Finite</b>	Residue
Mood		

It **has** **gone** very well

Subject	<b>Finite</b>	Predicator	Circ. A
Mood		Residue	

Meanwhile, according to Halliday (2014:145), finite consist of two kinds, they are Finite verbal operator Temporal and modal. *Temporal Finite Verbal operators* referred to reference of time. They facilitated tense to the Finite, either past, present or future. *Finite Modal Operators* involves the words anchor the proposition not by reference to time, they are rather reference to Modality. The table below shows the Finite verbal operators, positive and negative which is either temporal or modal. Some of the negative forms, such as mayn't, are rather infrequent; if they occur in a negative clause, the negative is usually separated (*may not, used not to*). In certain cases, the *not* can be analysed as part of the Residue; yet it is emphasized that this is an oversimplification, sometimes it belongs functionally with the *Finite*, as these examples:

- *You may not leave before the end (means 'are not allowed to'),*  
not is part of Finite
- *You may not stay right to the end (means 'are allowed not to'),*  
not is part of Residue

**Table 2.3 Finite verbal operators:**

	<b>temporal operators</b>		
	<b>Past</b>	<b>Present</b>	<b>Future</b>
Positive	did, was, had, used to	does, is, have	will, shall, would, should
Negative	Didn't, wasn't, hadn't, didn't + used to	Doesn't, isn't, hasn't	Won't, shan't, wouldn't, shouldn't
	<b>modal operators</b>		
	<b>Low</b>	<b>Median</b>	<b>High</b>
Positive	can, may, could, might, (dare)	will, would, should, is/was to	must, ought to need, has /had to
Negative	Needn't, doesn't/ didn't + need to, have to	Won't, wouldn't, shouldn't, (isn't/wasn't to)	Mustn't, oughtn't to, can't, couldn't, (mayn't, mightn't, hasn't/hadn't to)

*(Halliday, 2014:164)*

### 2.2.4.3 Residue

The remainder of the clause is referred to as the residue element of the clause but it does not directly contribute as an element to the expression of interpersonal meaning in the same way as the mood element does (Fontaine, 2012:122). Residue consists of functional elements of three kinds: predicator, Complement, and adjunct (Halliday, 2014: 170). There can be only one predicator, one or two Complements, and an indefinite number of adjuncts which can be about seven. This following table is the example of Residue's components:

They	Have	Been	Here	Since this morning
Subject	Finite	Predicator	Complement	Circ.Adjunct
Mood	<b>Residue</b>			

#### 2.2.4.3.1 Predicator

Predicator is regarded as a verbal group without the temporal or modal operator (Halliday, 2014: 151). Predicator conducted the action or process involved in the clause. It provides content to verbal element of the proposition, conveys listeners what process was actually going on. Gerot and Wignell (1994: 31) explain that the predicator is the verb part of the clause. It means the little information which tells what's doing, happening or being. It is better to know that there are also non-finite (to+verb and verb+ing) clauses containing a Predicator but without Finite element. The definition of the predicator then, is that it fills the role of specifying the actual event, action, or process being discussed (Eggins, 2004: 155). This following table is the example of Predicator element:

I                      **enjoyed**                      it

Subject	Finite	<b>Predicator</b>	Complement
Mood		Residue	

#### 2.2.4.3.2 Complement

The Complement element is labeled for what are known as objects (direct and indirect objects) in traditional grammar (Fontaine, 2012:124). Any

participants which are not functioning as Subject will be conflated with complement. It is identically by a nominal group. It is an element within the residue that has the potential of being Subject but is not (Egins, 2004:157). It is an element that has the potential for being given the interpersonally elevated status of modal responsibility (Halliday, 2014: 153). Complement is a participant which is somehow indicated in the proposition. The complement responds the questions *'is/had what', 'to whom', 'did to what'*.

<b>I</b>	<b>Start</b>		<b>My UK and Ireland tour</b>
Subject	Finite	Predicator	<b>Complement</b>
Mood	Residue		

### 2.2.4.3.3 Adjunct

Circumstances elements conflate with an adjunct element (Fontaine, 2012:124). Egins stated that an adjunct is an element that can be defined as clause elements which contribute some additional (but non-essential) information to the clause. it has not got the potential of being subject: that is, it cannot be elevated to the interpersonal status of modal responsibility. An adjunct is usually realized by an adverbial group or a prepositional phrase (Halliday, 2014: 155). It defines certain opinion or argument cannot be built structured around those elements that serve as Adjuncts; in experiential terms, they cannot be constructed around circumstances, but they can be constructed around participants, either actually, as Subject, or generally, as Complement. Basically, the types of adjuncts are derived into three; circumstantial, interpersonal and textual.

#### 1. Circumstantial adjuncts

It is kind of adverbs or prepositional phrases which express meanings referred to when, where, how, why, or with the proposition occurred.

<b>I</b>	<b>Have</b>	<b>Been</b>	<b>on twitter</b>	<b>For some years now</b>
Subject	Finite	Predicator	Complement	<b>Circ.Adjunct</b>
Mood	Residue			

## 2. Interpersonal adjuncts

Modal adjunct consist of mood adjunct located in mood, and comment adjunct, located not in mood structure (Halliday, 2014:157). The distinction into mood adjunct and comment adjunct is made on this interpersonal basis. Mood adjuncts concerns for the meaning of the finite verbal operators in specific terms, expressing probability, usuality, obligation, inclination or time. Meanwhile, Comment Adjuncts express the speaker's comment on what he or she is saying. Comment Adjuncts include such items as 'apparently', 'hopefully', 'actually', 'basically. They show interpersonal better rather than textual meanings.

<b>It</b>	<b>'s</b>	<b>Going</b>	<b>Good</b>	<b>Actually</b>
Subject	Finite	Predicator	Complement	Comment Adjunct.
Mood	Residue			

<b>This</b>	<b>Is</b>	<b>My obvious going to Indonesia</b>	<b>Quite a lot</b>
Subject	Finite	Complement	Mood Adjunct
Mood	Residue		

**Table 2.4 List of Mood Adjunct Types**

<b>Type</b>	<b>Meaning</b>	<b>Example</b>
Polarity		Not, yes, no
Probability	"How likely?"	Probably, possibly, certainly, perhaps, maybe
Usuality	"How often?"	Usually, sometimes, always, never, ever, seldom, rarely
Readiness	"I want to"	Willingly, readily, gladly, certainly, easily
Obligation	"You must"	Definitely, absolutely, possibly, at all cost, by all means
Time		Yet, still, already, once, soon, just
Typicality	"How typical?"	Occasionally, generally, regularly, mainly
Obviousness	"How obvious?"	Of course, surely, obviously, clearly

Intensity		Just, simply, merely, only, even, actually, really
Degree		Quiet, almost, nearly, scarcely, hardly, absolutely, totally, utterly, entirely, completely

*(Halliday, 2014: 189)*

### 3. Textual adjuncts

Textual is conjunctive adjunct located not in mood structure (Halliday, 2014:157). They set up a contextualizing relationship obtaining between the clause as a message and some other are preceding portion of text.

<b>And</b>	<b>It</b>	<b>‘s</b>	<b>Gone</b>	<b>Very well</b>
Conj.A	Subject	Finite	Predicator	Complement
Residue		Mood		

<b>Because</b>	<b>They</b>	<b>Knew</b>		<b>You were coming</b>
Conj.A	Subject	Finite	Predicator	Complement
Residue		Mood		

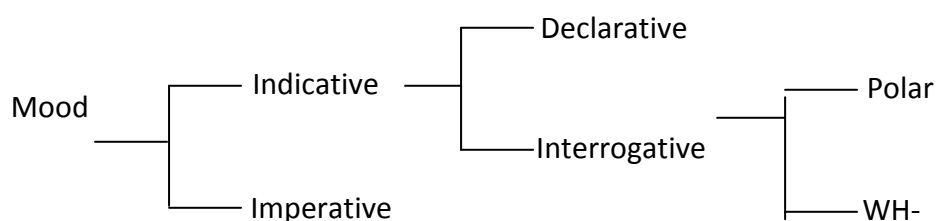
Eventhough Halliday stated three adjuncts only, but there is another element figures in the structure of the clause as exchange, but outside the scope of MOOD and RESIDUE (Halliday, 2014: 159) called Vocative Adjunct. It is enacting activities by the speaker over the participation of the addressee or addresses in the exchange. This is formed in identifying the particular person being addressed or to call for that person’s attention.

<b>Hi,</b>	<b>Shane!</b>
Minor clause	Vocative adjunct



### 2.2.5 Mood Types

The mood structure of the clause refers to the organization of a set of functional constituents including the constituent subject (Egins, 2004:147). The mood type can be identified by analyzing the element of mood, subject and finite. Gerot and Wignell (1994:38) stated that mood in English is referred to the position of the subject and finite in the clause. The mood types are shown as figure 2.1 below:



**Figure 2.2 Mood Types Based on Gerot and Wignell 1994 :38.**

Mood has seven types, namely declarative, polar interrogative, tagged declarative, WH-Interrogative, imperative, exclamatives, elliptical clause Egins and Slade (1997: 85)

#### a. Declarative

Declarative clause can be identified as clauses in which the structural element of subject occurs before the finite element of the clause. For example, all the following clauses are declaratives. The subject has been underlined; the entire finite element is shown in *italics*:

Brad : He *plays* the double-bass

Brad : I *think* therefore I am.....

Brad : Exactly, so..... if they *can* administer fish, they *can* administer bloody school kids.

He	Plays		the double-bass
Subject	Finite	Predicator	Complement
Mood	Residue		

I	Think	therefore I am.....
Subject	Finite	Predicator Complement
Mood	Residue	

If	they	Can	administer	Fish
Conjunctive Adjunct	Subject	Finite	Predicator	Complement
	Mood	Residue		

They	Can	Administer	bloody school kids
Subject	Finite	Predicator	Complement
Mood	Residue		

#### b. Polar Interrogative

Polar interrogatives, also known as yes-no interrogatives. It is usually identified as clauses in which the finite element position preceded the subject. Here are some examples:

Jo : **did** she **see** the photos in her room?

Ana : yes!

Mavis : **Is** there **a men's store and women's store?**

Ana : No !

Did	She	See	the photos in her room?
Finite	Subject	Predicator	Complement
Mood	Residue		

Is	There	A men's store and women's store?
Finite	Subject	Complement
Mood	Residue	

As the example show, in order to construct a polar interrogative in English, the Finite element “*did*” in the first question is separated by the subject “*she*” from the predicator “*see*”. The similar pattern happened also in second question in which the Finite element “*is*” was preceded the subject “*a men’s store and women’s store*”. Full polar interrogatives are typically used to initiate an exchange by requesting information from others. They thus construct the speaker as dependent on the response of other interactants. Because they directly encode an information imbalance, they are not common in casual conversation among close friends or family members, where much of the information circulating is already shared.

### c. Tagged Declarative

Egins and Slade (1997:85) state this clause type falls midway between the declarative and polar interrogative. Commonly, it has the order of a declarative, with the subject structured preceded the finite element. However, unlike the simple declarative, the tagged declarative has called a “Mood tag”. The following are all examples of tagged declaratives: (Subject underlined, Finite in *italic*, Mood tag in **bold**)

Fran : Like, they*'re coming up the hill, **are they?***

Dave : You know, you *can’t just do languages, **can you?***

These examples show that when the finite is picked up in the tag, it often has its polarity reversed. The effect of Mood tag is to turn a declarative into a kind of polar interrogative.

They	're	Coming	up the hill
Subject	Finite	Predicator	Complement
Mood		Residue	

Are	they ?
Finite	Subject
Mood Tag	

You	Can't	just	Do	Languages
Subject	Finite	Adjunct	Predicator	Complement
Mood		Residue		

Can't	you ?
Finite	Subject
Mood Tag	

#### d. Wh-Interrogative

According to Eggins and Slade (1997:86) Wh-Interrogatives are derived into a wh-question word, such as *who*, *what*, *which*, *when*, *why*, *how*, *in what way*, *for what reason*, etc. The goal of the wh-word is to confirm a missing element of clause structure. For example, *when* probes for a circumstantial adjunct; *who* probes for a subject; *what* probes for the either the subject or the complement of a clause. Wh-interrogatives prepares an expectation that the answering clause will respond in completing (give content to) the missing element of clause structure. The following are all examples of wh-Interrogatives: (wh-word in *italic*, subject underlined):

Dave: *when* are you gonna do your General studies?

Dave: *what* are your General Studies?

The order of constituents in a wh-interrogative depends on which element of clause structure is being probed. When the element probed for is the Subject, and then the wh-word occurs before the Finite element. The structure is thus just like the declarative clause. However, when the wh-word probes any other element of clause structure, then a separate finite element must be used, with the Finite element position is preceded the Subject, as the examples of the following order:

Wh-word	Finite	Subject	Predicator	Complement
When	Are	You	gonna do	Your general studies?
What	Have	Fish	gotta do	With education?

Full wh-Interrogatives are typically used to develop additional circumstantial information. This may be in initiatory role (e.g. when are you gonna do Your general studies?) When it comes in repeating the clause, it will make the speaker sound like an interrogator. They may also be used by respondents to challenge first talk. However, wh-interrogatives can also be used to achieve commands, (e.g. *Where's the cigarettes?*). In this indirect or incongruent function, they provide a means of disguising the dependency relation created by the need to have a command complied with.

Where	's	<i>the cigarettes?</i>
wh-Complement	Finite	Subject
Residue	Mood	

What	Are	<i>Your general studies?</i>
wh-Complement	Finite	Subject
Residue	Mood	

#### e. Imperative

Imperative usually do not involves the elements of subject or finite. It only consists of predicator along with any the non-core participants of Complement and Adjunct (Egins and Slade, 1997:88). The following are the examples of imperatives (the predicator is shown in *italics*):

Dave : *Look* at the man coming up the hill

Look	at the man	coming up the hill
Predicator	Complement	Adjunct
Residue		

Imperatives often function to make commands, i.e. to demand that someone does something, as for example when the people say *Look*. However, in casual talk imperatives are often used to negotiate action directly, that is they function to encode advice. For example:

Dave : *Get yourself a degree and go and work for the soil Con.*

The example above shows that Dave's imperatives encode his advice or opinion.

Get	yourself	a degree!
Predicator	complement	Adjunct
Residue		

And	Go	and	Work	for the soil Con!
Conj.A	Predicator	Conj.A	Predicator	Circum.Adjunct
Residue				

#### f. Exclamative

An exclamative clause is rarely rather a word or clause produced with an emphatic or surprised intonation. Exclamative clause has a special structure as shown by the following exclamative clauses:

"How stupid Descartes was!"

"How amazingly he plays the double-bass!"

As the example above, exclamative clauses contains a wh-word joined with one of the clause elements, either Complement or Adjunct. The sequence of the constituents is: first the wh-element, followed by the Subject, and then the Finite, Predicator, and other constituents. For example, with "*what an idiot descartes was!*", the wh-word what becomes part of the complement and idiot, followed by the subject element descartes and then the finite was. Because this is the verb to be, there is no predicator included.

Exclamatives are specifically used to encode a judgment, opinion or evaluation of events. The speakers then must take on the role of opinion, and in

doing the role, other interactants are likely to agree with the judgment. Exclamatives can also be used to challenge as in *'how dare you talk to me like that!'*, in which case they amplify the wrong that could be expressed through either an imperative (*don't talk to me like that*) or should-declarative (*you shouldn't talk to me like that*), while maintaining the inequality of roles.

How stupid	Descartes	Was!
Wh-complement	Subject	Finite
RESIDUE	MOOD	

How amazingly	He	Plays	the double-bass
Wh-complement	Subject	Finite	Predicator
	Mood		
	RESIDUE		

#### g. Elliptical Clauses

Egins and Slade (1997:89) state that all the examples so far have been what we call "full" clauses: clauses where all the elements of structure have been realized. Full clauses are produced when speakers are trying to initiate a new exchange, i.e. when they wish to establish material to be reacted to. However, when interactants react to first talk initiations, they typically do so elliptically, producing clauses which depend for their interpretation on a related full initiating clause. Each of the clause types identified so far would typically be realized elliptically when functioning as a response or reaction to an earlier clause, for examples:

1. A: They are all freaks  
B: *Except you (You are not freak)*
2. A: He plays the double bass  
B: *Does he? (does he play the double bass?)*

Except	You.
Mood adjunct	Subject
Mood	

Does	He?
Finite	Subject
Mood Tag	

- **Minor Clauses**

Mood is the major interpersonal system of the clause. A clause is derived into Mood + Residue. Eggins (2004:150) said that the grammar of the clause as exchange is related to two functional constituents: a Mood element, which functions to carry the argument, and a residue, which can be left out or unused. However, Eggins (2004: 166) stated that sometimes responding moves are short because they typically involve some kind of abbreviation or are categorized in minor clause. It is the clause which have never had a MOOD constituent and it cannot filled out a Subject or Finite, for example *OK ! , well!, Hi!, uh huh! , oh dear! .*

<i>Oh good!</i>
Minor clause

<i>Exactly!</i>
Minor clause

<i>Thanks a lot..</i>
Minor clause

Often the responder will introduce a minor clause as:

*What great books Henry James was writing last century!*

<i>Too right..</i>
Minor clause

### 2.2.6 Sarah Sechan Talkshow

Sarah Sechan is an Indonesian talk show (talkshow) hosted by Sarah Sechan in NET. Each show conveys a particular theme that is combined with jokes. The program usually talk to the guest star and will discuss something that brings entertainment, education, and information aspect. This program will be added interesting items and will involve viewers in the studio and at home. It is



packed in a relaxed concept, full of engaging and humorous atmosphere, yet still providing useful information for the community. This program aired from 27th May 2013. Sarah Sechan TalkShow was ever rewarded by Indonesia Broadcasting Commission in 2014 as one of Best Nomination Presenters of Talkshow, and in 2015 Sarah Sechan was rewarded by Indonesia Broadcasting Commission as Best Winner Presenter Woman in talkshow category. The Talkshow did interviewed Shane Filan on 3 october 2013 on Sarah Sechan Net at 7 pm.