

## **CHAPTER II**

### **REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE**

This research is conducted to find out the mood types and adjuncts. That is why; the researcher needs some theories to accelerate in conducting it. The references are essential for the researcher, to reach the purpose of the study. This study would consist of the following theories:

#### **2.1. Systemic Functional Grammar**

To make a better conversation or a better text, learners need to know the grammar wells, because every sentence have a rule. So it needs to study grammar more specifically in Systemic Functional Grammar.

Gerot and Wignell (1994:6) explain functional grammar views language as a resource for making meaning. This grammar attempts to describe language in actual use and so focuses on text and its contexts. It is concerned not only with the structures but also with how those structures construct meaning.

Systemic Functional Grammar means that it is based on meaning. It tries to view a language as a system for making a semantic system, with other system for encoding the meaning it produces. A language is interpreted as a system of meaning, accompanied by form through which the meaning can be realized. In fact, the meanings are realized through which wording : grammatical sequence, the word and their order that are used to express

something or the way in which something is expressed. Wordings are characterized such as they are able to explain meaning (Gerot and Wignell, 1994:7).

Interpersonal meanings are meanings which express a speaker's attitudes and judgements. They are meanings for acting upon with others. Meanings are realized in wordings through what is called mood and modality. Meanings of this kind are most centrally influenced by tenor of discourse (Gerot and Wignell, 1994:13). Interpersonal meanings construing Tenor are realized lexico-grammatically by systems of mood and modality, with the mood element further analyzed into subject and finite. This meta-function is about the social world, especially the relationship between speaker and hearer, and is concerned with clauses as exchange.

## **2.2. Mood**

Mood is the part of Systemic Functional Grammar. Mood is indicated with the interpersonal meanings of the text. The central aspect of the grammar of exchange is MOOD (Matthiessen, 1995:391).

Eggins (1994:152) states that the mood structure of the clauses refers to the organization of the set of functional constituents including constituent subject. The mood system at the clause encodes the relationship between the participants in an interaction as well as the speaker's or writer's attitude and comment. Included here, for example, are indicative, imperative, and

interrogative instructions. The mood system also includes choices in modality, such as expression of probability and obligation.

From the theory above, it can be concluded that mood is the central aspect of the grammar of exchange and its elements including subject have a function to construct a role of clause exchange in dialogue.

### **2.2.1. Mood Elements**

The mood element consists of two parts:

1. The subject, which is realized by nominal groups.
2. The finite element, which is part of the verbal groups.

In the interpersonal meaning analysis, the mood element consists of the subject and finite. The subject and finite are important because through the subject and finite from the clause, it can be determined if the clause is a declarative clause, an interrogative clause or imperative clause.

#### **2.2.1.1. Subject Element**

Gerrot and Wignell (1995:28) explain that the subject is that upon which the speaker rest his case in exchanges of information, and the one responsible for insuring that the prescribed action is or is not carried out in exchanges of goods and services.

On the other hand, Halliday (1995:76) says that subject is something by reference to which the proposition can be affirmed or defined. The subject when it first appears may be any nominal group. If it is personal pronoun like

*he* in the rhyme, it is simply repeated each time. If it is anything else like *the duke*, then after the first occurrence it is replaced by the personal pronoun corresponding to it. So *the duke* becomes *he*, and *my aunt* becomes *she*, *the teapot* becomes *it* (Halliday, 1994:72).

### 2.2.1.2. Subject Element

The finite element is one of the small numbers of verbal operators expressing tense, modality and polarity. These can be seen below:

#### Finite Verbal Operators

##### Temporal :

**Past**  
Did, was, had,  
used to

**Present**  
Does, is, has

**Future**  
Will, shall,  
would, should

##### Modal :

**Low**  
Can, may, could,  
might (Dare)

**Median**  
Will, would, is  
to, was to

**High**  
Must, ought to,  
need, has to, had  
to

(Source: Halliday 1994:76)

These finite verbal operators also have negative counterparts, e.g. didn't, won't, can't, wouldn't, mustn't.

Sometimes the finite element and the lexical verb are fused. This happens when the verb is in:

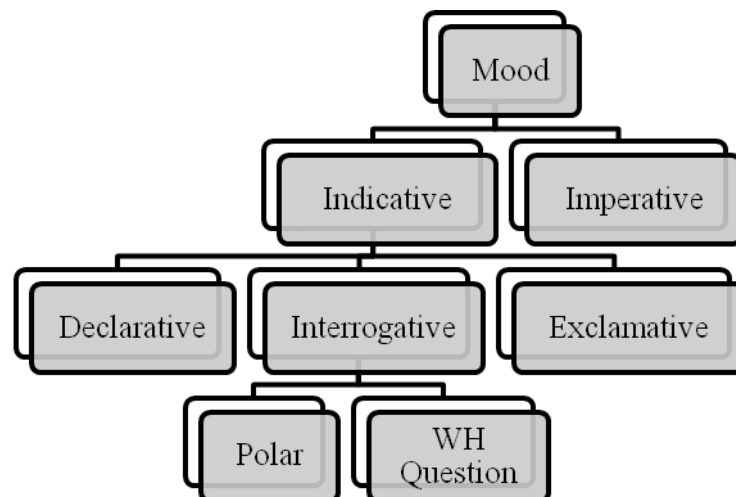
- a. Simple past or simple present: *ate = did eat: eats = does eat*
- b. Active voice: *they eat pizza = they do eat pizza VS pizza is eaten*

- c. Positive polarity: *they eat = they do eat VS they don't eat*
- d. Neutral contrast: *go away = do go away*

Gerrot and Wignell (1995:27) give statement that the finite elements has the function of anchoring or locating an exchange with reference to the speaker and making a proposition something that can be argued about.

### 2.2.2. Types of Mood

Gerrot and Wignell, (1994:38) state that, “Mood in English is realized by the position in the clause of the subject and finite”. The mood types are shown as figure below



**Figure 1. Mood Types**  
(Source : Gerrot and Wignell 1994:38)

#### 2.2.2.1. Indicative Mood

Indicative mood is realized by the feature of subject and finite. The order of subject and finite is realized declarative and interrogative clause. Declarative and interrogative clauses are indicative mood. Declarative clauses express the

statement, which cover past, present, and future. Then, interrogative clause express question.

### 2.2.2.1.1. Declarative

Mattheissen (1995:412) states that, “The option declarative is unmarked one in the mood system. It is the most frequent choice and it serves to express a wide spectrum of speech functional meanings. Indicative clauses are typically used to negotiate propositions – i.e., to exchange information. The system indicates type is the choice between giving information, declarative, and demanding information, and interrogative.” Declarative is realized by: Subject + finite. Its sentence conveys the information.

#### **Unmarked : \ Subject + Finite**

It is declarative clause which is using the usual structure of subject and finite.

<b>Sigit</b>	<b>Had</b>	<b>Four bicycles.</b>
Subject	Finite	Complement
Mood		Residue

#### **Marked : \ Finite + Subject**

It is declarative clause which is using the unusual structure of subject and finite.

<b>Then</b>	<b>Came</b>	<b>The production line.</b>
Pred.	Finite	Subject
Residue	Mood	

According to Eggins and Slade (1997:85) there are types of declarative mood that can be classified as follows :

#### **2.2.2.1.1.1. Full declarative**

Full declarative clauses can be identified as clauses in which the structural element of subject occurs before the finite element of the clause. The subject has been underlined, and the finite element is showed in bold.

Example : “He **plays** the double-bass”

#### **2.2.2.1.1.2. Elliptical declarative**

Elliptical declarative clauses are informational significant components of the structure will depend on the context for elliptical declaratives. Its mean when the second speaker responded first speaker by cooperatively adding some information and the production of elliptical declaratives, the respondent reacts not by adding to the prior clause, but modifying it in some way, in the process, ellipsing, some elements.

Example : “Except you”

“Every body has to be thought”

### **2.2.2.1.1.3. Tagged declarative**

This clause type falls between the declarative and polar interrogative. Structurally it has the sequence of a declarative, with the subject, with the subject occurring before the finite element.

Example : “You know a lot of funny people don’t you Brad”

The tagged declarative appears to encode its ambiguous function in dialogue. Both claims the status role of the giving of information, and at the same time recognizes the role of given information.

### **2.2.2.1.2. Interrogative**

#### **2.2.2.1.2.1. Polar Interrogative**

Polar is used to initiate an exchange by requesting information from others. This is construct the speaker’s request depend on the response of the other interact. Eggins (1994:173) states the structure of polar interrogative involves the positioning of finite before subject; for example, we can drive a polar interrogative.

In line with Eggin’s statement, Gerrot and Wignell (1994) explain, Polar interrogative is realized by finite + subject. It is about yes/no questions. It is used to initiate an exchange by requesting information from other.



### 2.2.2.1.2.2. WH- Interrogative

It is different from polar interrogative, because it has Wh-element preceding the finite. The Wh-element e.g.: who, what, where, which, why, etc. stands for the missing piece of information that the speaker wants the listener to supply.

<b>Who</b>	<b>Are</b>	<b>You</b>
WH-	Finite	Subject
Residue	Mood	

<b>What</b>	<b>Is</b>	<b>That thing</b>
Subject/WH-	Finite	Complement
Mood		Residue

<b>What</b>	<b>Happened</b>	<b>One Morning in May 1896</b>
Subject/WH-	Finite	Pred. Adjunct
Mood		Residue

According to Eggins and Slade (1997:85) there are types of WH-interrogative mood that can be classified as follows:

#### 2.2.2.1.2.2.1. Full WH- Interrogative

Full WH- interrogative consist of WH- question word, e.g. who, what, which, where, why, how, in what way, for what reason and many others. The function of the WH- interrogative is to probe for a missing element of clause structure.

Example : “And **where** are you going to do your general studies”

Full WH- interrogative elicits additional circumstantial information. Thus may be initiatory role, in which case repeated use will make the speaker sound like an interrogator.

#### 2.2.2.1.2.2.2. Elliptical WH- Interrogative

Any or all elements except the key WH- question word may be ellipses from WH- interrogative.

Example : “He plays the double-bass”

Any of the following elliptical reactions would be positive.

“Who?”	“When?”
“Where?”	“Why?”

#### 2.2.2.1.3. Exclamative

Exclamative structures, which are used in interaction to express emotions such as surprise, disgust, worry, etc., are blend of interrogative and declarative pattern. Like the WH- interrogatives, they require the presence of a WH-element, conflated (mapped onto, fused together) with either a complement or an adjunct (Eggin, 1994:177).

From Eggin’s statement, in the exclamative clauses, there is a WH-element that conflates with a complement or an adjunct. The normal order in exclamative is subject followed by finite as seen in the example below.

<b>Who</b>	<b>Killed</b>	<b>Cock Robin</b>	
Subject/WH-	Finite	Pred.	Complement
	Mood		Residue

WH- element conflated with complement

<b>What big eyes</b>	<b>You</b>	<b>Have</b>
Complement WH-	Subject	Finite
Residue	Mood	

WH- element conflated with Adjunct

<b>Where</b>	<b>Have</b>	<b>All the Flower</b>	<b>Gone</b>
Adjunct/WH-	Finite	Subject	
Residue	Mood		

According to Eggins and Slade (1997:85) there are types of exclamative mood that can be classified as follows:

#### 2.2.2.1.3.1. Full Exclamative

Full exclamative clause are used in interaction to express emotions such as surprise, disgust, worry, judgement, or evolution, are kind of interrogative and declarative patterns. Exclamative clauses involve a WH- word combining with one of the clause elements of either complement or adjunct. The order of the constituent is first the WH- element, followed by the subject, and then the finite predicator.

Example : “*What an idiot Descrates was!*”

### 2.2.2.1.3.2. Elliptical Exclamative

The subject or complement, typically both subject and verbal elements are ellipses.

Example : “what an idiot Descrates was!”

Can became: “What an idiot”

### 2.2.2.2. Imperative Mood

Imperative clauses are the mood typically used for exchanging goods and services and do not contain element of the subject of the finite, but imperative subject consists of a predicator. The tag of imperative clauses is either *will you* or *won't you*. This is way of testing whether a clause is in fact in imperative or not.

Imperative clause are divided into unmark and mark imperative clause. The unmark imperative clause is imperative clause that is not marked by person as a subject. The marked imperative clause is imperative clause that is marked by a person as a subject or polarity, negative polarity or positive polarity.

Below is the example of unmarked clause.

<b>Don't</b>	<b>Tell me</b>
Finite	Residue
Mood	

Imperative clause can be marked for person by including the subject “You” in imperative clause, as example below.

<b>Don't</b>	<b>You</b>	<b>Do that again</b>
Finite	Subject	Residue
Mood		

According to Eggins and Slade (1997:85) there are types of imperatives mood that can be classified as follows:

#### **2.2.2.2.1. Full Imperative**

Imperative mood typically not contain the elements of subject or finite but consist of only of predicator, plus any of the non-core participants of complement and adjunct.

Example : “Get your self a degree and go and work for the soil car”

Imperative often use to make commands i.e. to demand that someone does something. Imperative set up expectations of a compliant response which may will be non-verbal but however in casual conversation imperative mood often used to negotiate action indirectly, that is they function to encode.

#### **2.2.2.2.2. Elliptical Imperative**

All elements in an imperative expect the predicator can be ellipses, giving a typical elliptical imperative structure.

Example: “Look”

### **2.3. Element of Residue**

Halliday (1985:78) says that the residue consist three kinds of functional elements, they are predicator, complement and adjunct. There can be only one predicator, one or two complements, and an indefinite number of adjuncts up to, in principle, about seven. According to the theory that is suggested by Halliday above the elements of residue consist of predicator, complement and adjunct that can be presented are by one or presented in a sentence.

#### **2.3.1. Predicator**

Gerot and Wignell in **Making Sense of Functional Grammar** (1994:31) give statement that the predicator is the verb part of the clause, the bit which tells what's doing, happening, or being. Eggins and Slade (1997:78) state that predicator encodes the action or process involved in the clause. It gives content to verbal element of the preposition, telling listeners what is or was happening.

#### **2.3.2. Complement**

A second component of the residue is the complement. A complement is defined as a non-essential participant in the clause. A participant is somehow affected by the main argument of the preposition. Complement answers the question 'is/had what', 'to whom', 'did to what'.

According to Eggins (1994:163), a complement is an element within the residue that has the potential of being subject but is not.

A complement is typically realized by a nominal group. So, in the “*duke gave my aunt that teapot*” there are complements, “*my aunt*” and “*that teapot*”. Either of this could function as subject in a clause related to this one.

### **2.3.3. Adjuncts**

The final constituent of residue is adjuncts. Adjuncts can be defined as clause elements which contribute some additional (but non-essential) information to the clause. Halliday (1985:80) explains that an adjunct is an element that has not got the potential of being subject. It is typically realized by an adverb and adverbial group, a prepositional phrase or a conjunction.

There are several types of adjuncts, the writer will only give a brief explanation about the types of adjuncts, and the following are the explanation.

#### **2.3.3.1. Circumstantial Adjunct**

Circumstantial adjunct adds an experiential content to the clause, by expressing some circumstance relating to the process represented in the clause. Circumstantial meanings may refer to time (when), place (where), cause (why), matter (about what), accompaniment (with whom), beneficiary (to whom), agent (by whom). The following are the examples:

**TIME : when**

<b>They</b>	<b>Can't</b>	<b>Do</b>	<b>That</b>	<b><u>These days</u></b>
Subject	Finite	Predicator	Complement	Circ. Adjunct
Mood		Residue		

**CAUSE : what for**

<b>You</b>	<b>Read</b>		<b>Books</b>	<b><u>For fun</u></b>
Subject	Finite	Pred.	Comp.	Circ. Adjunct
Mood		Residue		

**MATTER : of what, about what**

<b>Henry James</b>	<b>Writes</b>		<b><u>About women</u></b>
Subject	Finite	Pred.	Circ. Adjunct
Mood		Residue	

Circumstantial Adjuncts are usually expressed by either propositional phrase or by adverb of time, manner, place, etc. As circumstantial adjuncts do not contribute meaning which is part of the arguable problem of the proposition, although they are always available for querying, they are treated as part of the residue of the clause, and should be analyzed in the residue box.



### 2.3.3.2. Conjunctive Adjunct

Conjunctive adjunct includes items such as ‘for instance’, ‘anyway’, ‘moreover’, ‘meanwhile’, ‘therefore’, and ‘nevertheless’.

Conjunctive adjunct expressed by conjunctions, functions to provide linking relations between one clause and another. Conjunctive adjunct typically occur at the beginning of the clause, but they can occur at other points. It expresses the logical meaning elaboration, extension, and enhancement.

Example :

<b>So</b>	<b>Poor old Sigit</b>	<b>‘s</b>	<b>Out the shoot</b>	<b><u>too</u></b>
Conj. Adjunct	Subject	Finite	Complement	Conj. Adjunct
	Mood		Residue	

<b>Because</b>	<b>He</b>	<b>Didn’t</b>	<b>Know</b>	<b>Anything about physics</b>
Conj.	Subj.	Finite	Predicator	Complement
Adj	Mood		Residue	

Conjunctive Adjuncts have a textual function and so fall outside analysis of mood. That’s why ‘as’, ‘so as’ and ‘then’ are left unanalyzed.

As in example below:

<b>Then</b>	<b>Men like ford</b>	<b>Started</b>	<b>To use</b>	<b>The production line</b>
Conj. Adj.	Subject	Finite	Pred.	Complement
	Mood		Residue	

Type	Meaning	Example
Appositive	i.e, e.g	That is, in other words, for instance
Corrective	Rather	Or rather, at least, to be precise
Dismissive	In any case	Is any case, any way, leaving that aside
Summative	In short	Briefly, to sum up, in conclusion
Verificative	Actually	Actually, in fact, as a matter of for it
Additive	And	Also, moreover, in addition, beside
Adversative	But	On the other hand, however, conversely
Variative	Insisted	Instead, alternatively
Temporal	Then	Meanwhile, before that, later on, next, soon, finally
Comparative	Likewise	Likewise, in the same way
Casual	So	Therefore, for this reason, as a result, with this in mind
Conditional	(if...) then	In that case, under the circumstance, yet other wise
Concessive	Yet	Nevertheless, despite that
Respective	As so that	In this respect, as far as that's concerned

**Table 1 : The Principal Items Functioning as Conjunction Adjuncts**  
*Source (Halliday: 1994:49)*

### 2.3.3.3. Comment Adjunct

Comment adjuncts typically occur in clause initial position, or directly after the subject, and are realized by adverbs. Comment adjunct function to express an assessment about the clause as a whole.

- a. Admission : *frankly*
- b. Assertion : *honestly, really*
- c. How desirable : *luckily, hopefully*

- d. How constant : *tentatively, provisionally*
- e. How valid : *broadly speaking, generally*
- f. How sensible : *understandably, wisely*
- g. How expected : *as expected, amazingly*

Comment adjunct are considered interpersonal elements in the clause, since they add an expression of attitude and evaluation. However, Halliday (1985:83) argues it because the scope of a comment adjunct is the entire clause (not just the finite element), they should be seen to operate outside the mood / residue structure altogether.

Example :

<b><u>Frankly,</u></b>	<b>I</b>	<b>Can't</b>	<b>Stand</b>	<b>Sigit Sulfiyanto</b>
Comm. Adj.	Subject	Finite	Predicator	Complement
	Mood		Residue	

<b>Type</b>	<b>Meaning</b>	<b>Example</b>
Opinion	'i think'	In my opinion, personality
Admission	'i admit'	Frankly, to be honest, to tell the truth
Persuasion	'i assure you'	Honestly, really, believe me, seriously, without a doubt
Entreaty	'i request you'	Please, kindly
Presumption	How presumable?	Evidently, apparently, no doubt, presumably
Desirability	How desirable?	(un) fortunately, to my delight, distress, luckily, regrettably, hopefully,

Reservation	How reliable?	Provisionally, at first, initially, tentatively, looking back on it
Validation	How valid?	Broadly speaking, in general, on the whole, in principle, strictly speaking
Evaluation	How sensible?	(un) wisely, understandably, foolishly, by mistake, mistakenly
Prediction	How expected?	To my surprise, as expected, amazingly, by chance, predictably, surprisingly

**Table 2 : The Principal Items Functioning as Comment Adjunct**

*Source (Halliday: 1994:50)*

#### 2.3.3.4. Mood Adjunct

Mood adjunct relates specifically to the meaning of the finite verbal operator, expressing ‘probability’, ‘usuality’, ‘obligation’, and ‘inclination of time’.

Halliday (1985:82) explains it is called Mood Adjunct because they are most closely associated with the meaning constructed in the mood system: those polarity, modality, temporality and mood. Mood adjuncts include adjuncts of modality as well as adjuncts of polarity, adjuncts of temporality, and so called mood adjuncts.

Example :

<b>Sigit</b>	<b>Had</b>	<b>Already</b>	<b>Met</b>	<b>Him</b>	<b>Of course</b>
Subj.	Finite	Mood Adjunct	Pred.	Comp.	Mood Adjunct
			Residue		
Mood					

The table below is the principal items functioning as mood adjunct by Gerot and Wignell (1994:36).

<b>Type</b>	<b>Meaning</b>	<b>Example</b>
Polarity		Not, yes, no, so
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, event, actually, really
Degree		Quiet, almost, nearly, scarcely, hardly, absolutely, totally, utterly, entirely, completely

**Table 3 : The Principal Items Functioning as Mood Adjunct**  
*Source (Halliday, 1994:49)*

#### 2.4. Clause

The main units recognized by SFL are : sentence, clause, group, word, and morpheme. Systemic Functional Grammar talks about clause and clause complexes rather than sentences. In traditional grammar, we just learn about written language (sentence) which does not apply, spoken language, such as:

word – phrase – sentence. On the other hand, in functional grammar, we learn both written and spoken language (clause), such as: word – phrase – clause.

A clause can be defined as the largest grammatical unit, and a clause complex is two or more clauses logically connected (Gerot and Wignell, 1994:82). There are three types of clauses, they are elliptical clause, minor clause, and major clause.

#### **2.4.1. Elliptical Clause**

According to Matthiessen (1995:392), clauses can also be classified based on the clausal ellipsis into full clauses. Full clauses are characterized by the presence of all the elements of structure. The clause types under the discussion of indicative and imperative clauses above are all full clauses. Meanwhile, elliptical clauses are characterized by the absence of some elements of the structure through ellipsis. The ellipsed element (s) can be retrieved from the prior context.

Elliptical clause can happen when interactions react to prior initiations, it means producing clauses which depend for their interpretation on a related full initiating clause.

#### **2.4.1. Minor Clause**

Minor clause is a clause which has no predicator. The principal types of minor clause are as follows:

Address (Vocatives)	Rhonda, sweetie cakes
Greeting	Hi! Goodday!
Exclamation	Oh bugger! Streuth!

None of the above has a predicator, and so each one is a minor clause.

Minor clauses generally function either as presides to negotiation, as in the typically reciprocated use of minor clauses in greetings i.e. hi!-hi or as closures i.e. bye-bye, they generally encode following up reactions that is contributions which do not have full negotiation status, as they are not anchored in a subject-finite. Most minor clauses therefore position to the speaker as compliant supporter of prior interaction.

#### 2.4.2. Major Clause

Major clause are clauses which have selected a Subject and a Finite. So far we have only described one kind of major clause: the declarative, in which we have seen that the typical structure is as follows:

Example :

Simon **has been reading** Henry James lately.

#### 2.5. Interview

The definition of the interview is “A somewhat formal discussion between a hirer and an applicant or candidate, typically in person, in which information is exchanged, with the intention of establishing the applicant’s suitability for a position.”

The researcher state that interview is such as conversation, or questioning, for the purpose of eliciting information for publication; the published statement so elicited.