

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This part provides previous research and theoretical review relating to interpersonal meaning on English teacher utterances in EFL classroom.

A. Previous Research

There are three previous researches related to this study. The first is the research under the title “The Analysis of Interpersonal Strategies of Hotel and Apartment Advertisements in NOW! JAKARTA Life in the Capital Magazine” written by Goldy Pratiwi Sinaga, 2012. The data of the research are the advertisement texts from NOW! JAKARTA Life in the capital magazine. The research uses a descriptive qualitative method, in which the data analyzed are only complex clauses. It has three objectives; the first is to find out the mood types used in hotel and apartment advertisements of NOW! JAKARTA Life in the Capital magazine, the second is to find out the elements of interpersonal meanings that the copywriters use in the advertisements to influence the customers and the last is to examine how those elements of interpersonal meanings used by the copywriters influence the customers of the hotel and apartment advertisements. Systemic and functional grammar as proposed Halliday (1994) is used as the framework theory. This research classifies clauses of all seven advertisements in NOW! JAKARTA Life in the capital magazines. Generally, clauses divided into two: complex clauses and simplex clauses and here this present research will analyze only complex

clauses. Then, every complex clause in the sentences is classified based on appropriate elements of Mood and Residue using table of analysis. Those elements will help this present research to capture the mood type of each complex clause. The research found that the mood types used in the research are indicative mood and imperative mood. The indicative mood used in the research is declarative mood, whereas the other elements of interpersonal meanings that the copywriters use in the advertisements to influence the customers are modal, and pronoun¹⁷.

Another research which is considered has correlation to the current research and to the Metafunctions is “The Ideational Meaning Realized in the Notes of Social Networking Facebook” by Arniar Hepy Ratnasari (2012). The topic of this study is the ideational meaning realized in the notes of social networking *Facebook* (FB notes). In this study, the discussion was limited by finding out the answer of these two questions: how are the ideational meanings realized in the FB notes? And what topic is mostly used in the FB notes? Qualitative descriptive research was used in this study. The data of the study are from three FB notes of English Department Students of Semarang State University that were gained from <http://facebook.com>. The techniques are choosing, documenting, and then analyzing the data to draw conclusion. The field found in the three FB notes was realized through transitivity system. They were

¹⁷ Hilga Salita Agnestiya, *Students Perception on English Interpersonal Behavior in Teacher-Student Interaction*, Bandung: Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia, 2011

elicited by randomly choosing the FB notes which were written since December 2011 until March 2012. This research found that Ideational meanings are grammatically realized through transitivity system with the three functional constituents such as participant, process, and circumstance, and the material process is dominant than other Process in which it reached 38.79%¹⁸.

The difference between this research and the previous research is, this research focuses on interpersonal meaning on teacher's utterances while conducting teaching learning to figure out the mood types and its component, while the previous research is to find out the mood types used in hotel and apartment advertisements of NOW! JAKARTA Life in the Capital magazine, the second is to find out the elements of interpersonal meanings that the copywriters use in the advertisements to influence the customers and the last is to examine how those elements of interpersonal meanings used by the copywriters influence the customers of the hotel and apartment advertisements.

B. Theoretical Framework

1. Metafunction

Human beings are social creature that interact with other using language rather in spoken or written form. When people

¹⁸ Arniar Hepy Ratnasari, *The Ideational Meaning Realized In The Notes Of Social Networking Facebook (A Descriptive Qualitative Study at English Department of Semarang State University)*, English Department Faculty of Languages and Arts Semarang State University 2012

interact with others they attempt to use language to convey some purposes; they may want to influence other's attitude or behavior, to provide information that the other do not know, to explain their own attitudes or behavior, to get person to take some actions, and so on¹⁹. Regarding to those kinds of exchange, Halliday assumes that the most fundamental purposes of any exchange are giving (and taking) or demanding (and being given) a commodity²⁰.

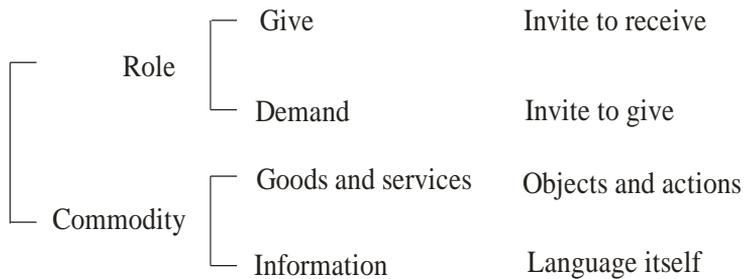


Figure 1.1 Roles and Commodity of an Exchange

The figure above describes that language they use to communicate doesn't merely express one function (e.g. questioning or giving information), but also it can play more than one functional role at a time (to give command even to give reinforcement)²¹. Thus we need to consider language as meaning

¹⁹ Geoff Thompson, *Introducing Functional Grammar* (London: Arnold, 1996), p. 38

²⁰ M.A.K. Halliday and Matthiessen, C.M.I.M. *An Introduction to Functional Grammar* 3rd Edition (London: Arnold, 2004), p. 107

²¹ Suzanne Eggins, *An Introduction to Systemic Functional Linguistics 2nd Edition* (New York: The Tower Building, 2004), p. 212

potential which is able to construe experience and enact social relationship²².

Moreover Grammarians like Halliday, Thompson, Matthiesen and Gerot & Wignell also introduce the concept of Metafunction to explain language based on its function. They state that the clause is a combination of three different kinds of meanings²³. Moreover Halliday explains that when person uses language, there are three possible meaning that will be realized; first, language is to talk about the experience, the imagination and the description of an event or situation. Second, language is used to interact, to preserve relationships, to express attitudes, and to give an opinion. Third, the language used to organize message which appropriate to the context²⁴.

Those three kinds of meaning are called Metafunction which comprise three functions or strands of meaning; they are respectively Ideational Meaning (the resources for construing our experience of the world), Interpersonal Meaning (the resources for enacting our social relations), and Textual Meaning (the resources for managing the flow of information as we interact)²⁵.

It can be exemplified as follow:

²² M.A.K. Halliday & Jonathan J. Webster, *Continuum Companion to Systemic Functional Linguistics* (New York: 2009), p. 5

²³ Suzne Eggins, *An Introduction to Systemic Functional Linguistics 2nd Edition* (New York: The Tower Building, 2004), p. 2

²⁴ M.A.K. Halliday, *Learning How to Mean, Explorations in development of Language* (London, Edward Arnold: 1975), p. 17

²⁵ Alice Caffarel, J. R. Martin, Christian M. I. M. *Language Typology, a functional perspective* (Amsterdam: John Benjamin. 2004), p. 26

I caught the first ball

Theme		
Subject		
Actor		

Where the element *I* functions as Theme in the analysis of textual meaning (clause as a message) and *caught the first ball* is as Rheme. In the interpersonal meaning (clause as an exchange) it functions as Subject and as an Actor in the ideational meaning (clause as exchange and presentation / representation)²⁶.

a. Ideational Meaning

Ideational Meaning is the function for construing human experience²⁷. It relates to meaning about phenomena; about how we represent experience in language²⁸. This meaning is realized in wording through participants, processes, and circumstances²⁹. Meaning of this kind are most certainly influenced by the field of discourse (specify what is going on with reference to what)³⁰, hence it investigates about things, about what they are or do and also the circumstance

²⁶ M.A.K. Halliday, *An Introduction to Functional Grammar 2nd Edition* (London: Edward Arnold 1994), p. 34

²⁷ Alice Caffarel, J. R. Martin, Christian M. I. M. *Language Typology, a functional perspective* (Amsterdam: John Benjamin. 2004), p. 26

²⁸ Suzanne Eggins, *An Introduction to Systemic Functional Linguistics 2nd Edition* (New York: The Tower Building, 2004), p. 206

²⁹ Linda Gerot and Peter Wignell, *Making Sense of Functional Grammar* (Sydney: Great Stabler, 1994), p. 52

³⁰ Linda Gerot and Peter Wignell, *Making Sense of Functional Grammar* (Sydney: Great Stabler, 1994), p. 11

surrounding this happening and doing. The analysis of Ideational Metafunction can be exemplified as follow:

We buy only the pick of the crop

We	Buy	only the pick of the crop
Participant: Actor	Process: Material	Participant: Goal

Polar bears are expert hunter

Polar bears	Are	expert hunter
Participants: Carrier	Process: Attributive	Participant: Attribute

b. Textual Meaning

Textual meaning expresses the relation of language to environment. The environment here include verbal environment which is what has been written or said before and non-verbal environment deals with the situational environment (context)³¹.

Eggins stated that this meaning are about what we are saying hangs together and relates to what was said before and to the context around us³². This meaning deals with the choices of Theme and Rheme. Theme expresses what

³¹ Linda Gerot and Peter Wignell, *Making Sense of Functional Grammar* (Sydney: Great Stabler, 1994), p. 14

³² Suzne Eggins, *An Introduction to Systemic Functional Linguistics 2nd Edition* (New York: The Tower Building, 2004), p. 12

someone is talking about, while Rheme express about this is what someone is talking about it³³.

This system views that each clause in a text has meaning as message where speakers or writers provide information to present the message. It relates to *mode* which tells how language functions in interactions; the participants' expectation for language purposes in that situation³⁴. It can be analyzed as follow:

I think

I	Think
Theme	Rheme

There wouldn't be any law

There	Wouldn't be any law
Theme	Rheme

c. Interpersonal Meaning

The last is Interpersonal Meaning, which becomes significant part to be analyzed in the present research. Interpersonal Meaning relates to the aspects of *tenor* which comprises three component areas: the interlocutor's persona, social distance, and relative social status³⁵. Thus the

³³ Linda Gerot and Peter Wignell, *Making Sense of Functional Grammar* (Sydney: Great Stabler, 1994), p. 102

³⁴ M.A.K. Halliday and R. Hasan, *Language, Text, and Context: aspect of language in a social-semiotic perspective* (Victoria: DeginUniversity Press, 1989), p. 12

³⁵ Linda Gerot and Peter Wignell, *Making Sense of Functional Grammar* (Sydney: Great Stabler, 1994), p. 11

interpersonal focus on the dialogue analysis which is essentially interactive and collaborative process³⁶.

Interpersonal function refers to the activity that conducted between speaker, or writer and audience in interaction which is largely determined by the mood system³⁷. It is related to social function of language which expresses speaker's judgments and attitudes³⁸. The analysis of interpersonal meaning can be exemplified as follow:

Yanti buys a book

Yanti	buys	a book
Subject	Finite/Predicator	Complement

The special order may come tomorrow

The special order	May	Come	Tomorrow
Subject	Finite	Predicator	Complement

2. Interpersonal Meaning

Interpersonal Meanings are meanings which express a speaker's attitudes and judgments and personality which enable speaker participates in the speech situation³⁹. These are meaning for acting upon and with others which are realized in wording that

³⁶ J. R. Martin, Christian M. I. M Matthiessen and Clare Painter, *Working with functional grammar* (New York: Arnold, 1997), p. 58

³⁷ M.A.K. Halliday, *An Introduction to Functional Grammar 2nd Edition* (London: Edward Arnold 1994), p. 68

³⁸ Linda Gerot and Peter Wignell, *Making Sense of Functional Grammar* (Sydney: Great Stabler, 1994), p. 13

³⁹ M.A.K. Halliday, *Learning How to Mean, Explorations in development of Language* (London, Edward Arnold: 1975), p. 17

is called Mood and Modality⁴⁰. Meanings of this kind are most centrally influenced by tenor of discourse, which refers to the social relationships between those taking part⁴¹.

In the Interpersonal Metafunction, one of the things we are doing with it is establishing a relationship between us: between the person speaking now and the person who will probably speak next⁴². To establish this relationship, we take turns at speaking, we take on different roles in the exchange. The basic speech roles we can take on are: giving and demanding. Giving means ‘inviting to receive’, and demanding means ‘inviting to give’⁴³. We also choose commodity, where the choice is between exchanging information, goods or services. While exchanging commodity speakers involve 4 basic move types of statement, question, offer and command which are called speech acts or speech functions⁴⁴. Statements and questions involve exchange of information are

⁴⁰ Linda Gerot and Peter Wignell, *Making Sense of Functional Grammar* (Sydney: Great Stabler, 1994), p. 13

⁴¹ M.A.K. Halliday and R. Hasan, *Language, Text, and Context: aspect of language in a social-semiotic perspective* (Victoria: DeakinUniversity Press, 1989), p. 12

⁴² Suznne Eggins, *An Introduction to Systemic Functional Linguistics 2nd Edition* (New York: The Tower Building, 2004), p. 144

⁴³ M.A.K. Halliday, *An Introduction to Functional Grammar 2nd Edition* (London: Edward Arnold 1994), p. 68

⁴⁴ Lock, G. *Functional English Grammar, An introduction for second language teachers*, (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1996), p. 174

called propositions while offers and command are exchanges of goods and services called proposals⁴⁵.

Commodity Exchange Speech Exchange	a) Goods and services	b) Information
a) Giving	Offer Would you like this teapot?	Statement He is giving her the teapot
b) Demanding	Command Give me that teapot	Question What is he giving her?

Figure 1.2 Giving or demanding, goods-&services or information

The giving of information often takes the form of a statement, realized by a declarative, while the demanding of information and the giving of goods and services (offer) is expressed by a question which is realized by an interrogative. And a command demanding goods-and-services take the imperative⁴⁶.

The principle grammatical system here is the Mood system, which the choice is between imperative and indicative. If indicative is chosen, there is a choice between declarative and interrogative. The order is affected by the position and the existence of both Subject and Finite therefore indicates whether a

⁴⁵ J. R. Martin, Christian M. I. M Matthiessen and Clare Painter, *Working with functional grammar* (New York: Arnold, 1997), p. 58

⁴⁶ Geoff Thompson, *Introducing Functional Grammar* (London: Arnold, 1996), p. 40

clause is declarative (statement), interrogative (question, offer) or imperative (command).⁴⁷

It can be exemplified as follow;

We inspect the growing plant every week	Declarative
Brock, get those plants inspected right now!	Imperative
Brock, do you really expect me to believe this crop?	Interrogative

3. Constituents of the Mood

Mood is a system belongs to interpersonal meanings which realized within a conversation as a resource of interactive move in the dialogue⁴⁸. Eggins stated that mood is:

Mood refers to variables such as the types of clause structure (declarative, interrogative), the degree of certainty or obligation expressed (modality), the use of tags, vocatives, attitudinal words which are either positively or negatively loaded (the 'purr and snarl' words mentioned above), expressions of intensification and politeness markers of various kinds⁴⁹.

Moreover Eggins states that Mood is part of the clause carrying the argument that cannot disappear when the responding speaker takes up his/her position. As cited in Eggins (2004), to discover which part of the clause is the Mood, Halliday adds a tag. A tag is

⁴⁷ J. R. Martin, Christian M. I. M Matthiessen and Clare Painter, *Working with functional grammar* (New York: Arnold, 1997), p. 114

⁴⁸ J. R. Martin, Christian M. I. M Matthiessen and Clare Painter, *Working with functional grammar* (New York: Arnold, 1997), p. 57

⁴⁹ Suzanne Eggins, *An Introduction to Systemic Functional Linguistics 2nd Edition* (New York: The Tower Building, 2004), p. 110

what we can put at the end of any declarative to turn it into a question. We often do this to temper what we are saying. When we add a tag to a positive declarative, we usually change the tag to a negative form (using *not*). When we tag a negative declarative, we typically make the tag positive⁵⁰. E.g. *they eat pizza, don't they?* Halliday states that Mood consists of two essential constituents, they are Subject and Finite⁵¹.

a. Subject

Subject is an element which the assertion is claimed to have validity, that it functions to realize the thing by reference to which the proposition can be affirmed or denied⁵². It provides the person or thing who responsible for the success of the proposal and for functioning of the clause as an interactive event⁵³.

The principle of responsibility can be seen easily in a proposal, where the subject specifies the one that is actually responsible for realizing the offer or command. It can be exemplified in *I'll open the gate, shall I?* (Offer), the opening depends on me. In *Stop shouting, you over there!* (Command), it is desist for you or otherwise. The Subject of an offer is the

⁵⁰ Suzne Eiggins, *An Introduction to Systemic Functional Linguistics 2nd Edition* (New York: The Tower Building, 2004), p. 149-150

⁵¹ M.A.K. Halliday, *An Introduction to Functional Grammar 2nd Edition* (London: Edward Arnold 1994), p. 76

⁵² M.A.K. Halliday, *An Introduction to Functional Grammar 2nd Edition* (London: Edward Arnold 1994), p. 76

⁵³ Suzne Eiggins, *An Introduction to Systemic Functional Linguistics 2nd Edition* (New York: The Tower Building, 2004), p. 151

speaker itself while that of command is the person being addressed⁵⁴.

b. Finite

Meanwhile finite is another mood element which makes the proposition definite, to bring the proposition down to earth that we can argue about it⁵⁵. Finite, shows the time of speaking and the judgment of speakers which in grammatical term respectively called primary tense and modality. Primary tense tells whether past, present, or future, at the time of speaking, while modality tells the speaker's judgment of the probability or obligation⁵⁶.

Thus finite can be expressed by means of temporal and modal operator. Temporal Finites anchor the proposition by reference to time, they give tense to the Finite-either past, present or future⁵⁷. E.g. I learnt English language from this guy.

⁵⁴ M.A.K. Halliday, *An Introduction to Functional Grammar 2nd Edition* (London: Edward Arnold 1994), p. 76

⁵⁵ M.A.K. Halliday and Matthiessen, C.M.I.M. *An Introduction to Functional Grammar* 3rd Edition (London: Arnold, 2004), p. 115

⁵⁶ M.A.K. Halliday, *An Introduction to Functional Grammar 2nd Edition* (London: Edward Arnold 1994), p. 75

⁵⁷ M.A.K. Halliday, *An Introduction to Functional Grammar 2nd Edition* (London: Edward Arnold 1994), p. 75-76

Temporal Finites

	Past	Present	Future
Positives	Did, was, had, used to	Does, is, has	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

Meanwhile Finite Modal Operators anchor the proposition not by reference to time but by reference to Modality. E.g. Henry James could write.

Modal operators

	Low	Medium	High
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, cant, couldn't, (mayn't, hasn't/hadn't to)

Figure 1.3 Finite Verbal Operators

As well as expressing primary tense and modality, finite element also realize polarity feature which provide choices between positive and negative. Each of operators appears in both positive and negative form: did/didn't, can/can't and so on⁵⁸.

⁵⁸ M.A.K. Halliday, *An Introduction to Functional Grammar 2nd Edition* (London: Edward Arnold 1994), p. 75

In a certain situation finite elements and lexical verb are sometimes fused. First is in simple past or simple present for example: ‘ate’ is the fusion of ‘did eat’, and ‘eats’ is the fusion of ‘does eat’. Secondly is in active voice ‘they do eat pizza’ Third is in positive polarity, for example: they go (they do go). And the last is in Neutral Contrast, for example: go away (do go away)⁵⁹.

This fusion of the finite element and lexical verb becomes clear when we add the mood tag⁶⁰. Example: they eat pizza ‘they do eat pizza’ - they eat pizza, don’t they?

Rudi	Speaks	English	doesn’t	he?
Subject	Predicator	Complement	Finite	Subject
Mood	Residue		Mood Tag	

Included in the Mood is the word ‘not’, it attaches to the Finite to signal negative form, but there are some negative forms that rarely happened such, as *mayn’t*. In a negative clause, the negative is usually separated such as, *may not, used not to*. In this case, *not* can be analyzed as part of the residue⁶¹.

E.g.: you may not leave before the end

(Are not allowed to’): part of Finite/Mod

⁵⁹ M.A.K. Halliday and Matthiessen, C.M.I.M. *An Introduction to Functional Grammar* 3rd Edition (London: Arnold, 2004), p. 111

⁶⁰ Linda Gerot and Peter Wignell, *Making Sense of Functional Grammar* (Sydney: Great Stabler, 1994), p. 26

⁶¹ M.A.K. Halliday, *An Introduction to Functional Grammar 2nd Edition* (London: Edward Arnold 1994), p. 75

: You may not stay right to the end
 (Are allowed not to'): part of Residue

4. Mood Types

Mood is divided into two parts, the imperative mood and the indicative mood, which the indicative mood is differentiated into two types of moods, declarative and interrogative⁶². Below notes how these two elements move around depending on the mood;

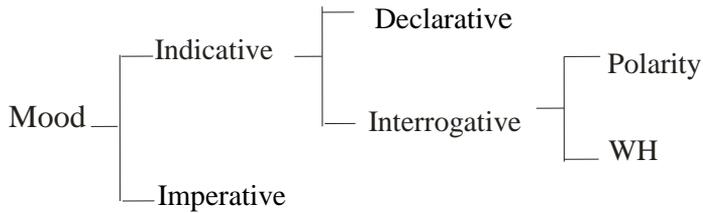


Figure 1.3 Mood Types

The giving of information often takes the form of a statement / a declarative with the order Subject-Finite⁶³.

E.g: I wrote a letter

I	Wrote		a letter
Subject	Finite 'past'	Predicator 'write'	Complement
Mood		Residue	

⁶² J. R. Martin, Christian M. I. M Matthiessen and Clare Painter, *Working with functional grammar* (New York: Arnold, 1997), p. 61

⁶³ M.A.K. Halliday, *An Introduction to Functional Grammar 2nd Edition* (London: Edward Arnold 1994), p. 74

The demanding of information is expressed by a question realized by an interrogative⁶⁴. English offers two main structures for asking questions: Polar interrogatives (yes/no questions) or Wh-interrogatives (questions using who, what, which, where, when, why and how)⁶⁵. The order finite precedes subject, realizes polar or ‘yes/no interrogative’⁶⁶. It can be exemplified as below:

E.g: Did Henry Ford build his first car in the back yard.

Did	Henry Ford	Build	His fist car	In the back yard
Finite	Subject	Predicator	Complement	Adjunct
Mood		Residue		

The word *did* in the example above precede *Henry Ford*

E.g. are you the man?

Are	You	the man?
Finite	Subject	Complement
Mood		Residue

The word *are* in the example above precedes *you*

E.g. did you make those biscuit?

Did	You	Make	Those biscuit
Finite	Subject	Predicator	Complement
Mood		Residu	

⁶⁴ Linda Gerot and Peter Wignell, *Making Sense of Functional Grammar* (Sydney: Great Stabler, 1994), p. 24

⁶⁵ HallidCay, M.A.K, *An Introduction to Functional Grammar 2nd Edition* (London: Edward Arnold 1994), p. 74

⁶⁶ Linda Gerot and Peter Wignell, *Making Sense of Functional Grammar* (Sydney: Great Stabler, 1994), p. 39

In other hand wh-interrogatives function to determine something that the question wishes to have supplied. The Wh-element is always conflated with one or another three functions subject, complement or adjunct. If it is conflated with the subject, it is part of the mood element, it must be Subject^{finite}⁶⁷.

E.g: who killed Cock Robin?

Who	Killed		Cock Robin
Wh-Subject	Finite	Predicator	Complement
Mood		Residue	

Who, is as the subject in part of the mood element. If in other hand the wh-element is conflated with complement or adjunct it is part of the residue, the finite preceding the subject. Look at the example below⁶⁸.

E.g: Who did Ricardo kill?

Who	Did	Ricardo	Kill
Wh-Complement	Finite	Subject	Predicator
		Mood	
Residue			

There is another structure named Exclamative. Exclamative structures are used in interaction to show emotion such as surprise, disgust, worry, etc. they need the presence of

⁶⁷ M.A.K. Halliday and Matthiessen, C.M.I.M. *An Introduction to Functional Grammar* 3rd Edition (London: Arnold, 2004), p. 134

⁶⁸ M.A.K. Halliday and Matthiessen, C.M.I.M. *An Introduction to Functional Grammar* 3rd Edition (London: Arnold, 2004), p. 134

Wh-element *what* or *how* conflated whether with complement or adjunct. Structurally, the clause has the Subject^Finite-ordering⁶⁹. For example:

- a. *What*, conflates with a Complement in nominal or adverbial group.

What tremendously easy riddles you ask

What tremendously easy riddles	you	ask	
Wh-complement	Subject	Finite	Predicator
	Mood		
Residue			

- b. *How*, conflates with an Adjunct

How fast we're going

How fast	We	Are	Going
Wh-complement	Subject	Finite	Predicator
	Mood		
Residue			

Another mood type is imperative. It is rather different from indicative. Since the imperative is the mood for exchanging goods and services, its subject is 'you' or 'me' or 'you and me'⁷⁰. In the imperative, the mood element may consist of subject only (*you*), finite only (*do*, *don't*), or finite followed by subject (*don't you*), but there always be a

⁶⁹ M.A.K. Halliday and Matthiessen, C.M.I.M. *An Introduction to Functional Grammar 3rd Edition*, p. 137-138

⁷⁰ M.A.K. Halliday and Matthiessen, C.M.I.M. *An Introduction to Functional Grammar 3rd Edition* (London: Arnold, 2004), p. 138

predicator. They can be followed by mood tag (*will you, won't you*) to show that the clause is finite⁷¹.

E.g: come into my office, will you?

Come	into my office	will	you?
Predicator	Adjunct	Finite	Subject
Residue		Mood tag	

E.g: do take care, won't you

Do	take	Care	won't	You?
Finite	Predicator	Complement	Finite	Subject
Mood	Residue		Mood tag	

E.g: don't you believe it

Don't	You	Believe	It
Finite	Subject	Predicator	Complement
Mood		Residue	

E.g: let's go home, shall we?

Let's	Go	Home	Shall	We
Subject	Predicator	Complem.	Finite	Subject
Mood	Residue		Mood tag	

The meaning of 'let's' always includes 'you' because it is interpreted as form of the subject 'you and I'. The anomalous form is in its responses, they are *Yes, let's! No, let's not!* which on this analysis has Subject and no-Finite, but in each case there is an alternative form with the Finite Element in it, *Yes, do*

⁷¹ M.A.K. Halliday and Matthiessen, C.M.I.M. *An Introduction to Functional Grammar* 3rd Edition (London: Arnold, 2004), p. 138

let's!, No, don't let's! Which also suggest that *let's* is felt to be a Subject⁷².

E.g. let's go home

Let's	Go	Home	Shall	We
Subject	Predicator	Adjunct	Finite	Subject
Mood	Residue		Mood Tag	

5. Constituents of Residue

Eggs defined the Residue as part of clause which is somehow less essential to the arguably of the clause than is the Mood component⁷³. It contains a number of functional elements: a Predator, one or more Complements, and any number of different types of Adjuncts⁷⁴.

E.g. Henry built his first car in his backyard

Henry	Built		his first car	in his backyard
Subject	Finite	Predicator	Complement	Adjunct
Mood		Residue		

a. Predicator

Predicator is part of the clause containing the verbal group which tells the process – the action, happening and state which is expressed by the rest of the verbal group apart from

⁷² M.A.K. Halliday, *An Introduction to Functional Grammar 2nd Edition* (London: Edward Arnold 1994), p. 87

⁷³ Suzanne Eggs, *An Introduction to Systemic Functional Linguistics 2nd Edition* (New York: The Tower Building, 2004), p. 155

⁷⁴ M.A.K. Halliday and Matthiessen, C.M.I.M. *An Introduction to Functional Grammar* 3rd Edition (London: Arnold, 2004), p. 121

the Finite⁷⁵. Predicator has fourfold function. First, it specifies the time of speech vents, i.e. past, present and future. Second, it specifies various other aspects and phases like seeming, trying, hoping. Third, it specifies the voice; active or passive. The last, it specifies the process (action, event, mental process) that is predicated by the Subject⁷⁶.

The predicator realize in verbal group excluding the temporal or modal operator which functions as Finite in the Mood element. It can be exemplified as *was reading, has been working* which the parts functioning as predicator is *reading* and *been working*⁷⁷.

In a clause, sometimes residue merely contains predicator and no finite element⁷⁸. For example: So as to give Henry more room

to give	Henry	more room
Predicator	Complement	Adjunct
Residue		

⁷⁵ Geoff Thompson, *Introducing Functional Grammar* (London: Arnold, 1996), p. 50

⁷⁶ M.A.K. Halliday, *An Introduction to Functional Grammar 2nd Edition* (London: Edward Arnold 1994), p. 74

⁷⁷ M.A.K. Halliday, *An Introduction to Functional Grammar 2nd Edition* (London: Edward Arnold 1994), p. 79

⁷⁸ Linda Gerot and Peter Wignell, *Making Sense of Functional Grammar* (Sydney: Great Stabler, 1994), p. 31

b. Complement

Complement is an element of the Residue considered as a non-essential part in the clause⁷⁹. This element is typically realized by nominal group which could have been chosen as Subject⁸⁰. A Complement can get to be Subject through the process of making the clause Passive since the complement answer the question ‘is/had what’, ‘to whom’, ‘did to what’⁸¹.
E.g. Henry ford built his first car in his backyard

Henry	Built		his first car	in his backyard
Subject	Finite	Predicator	Complement	Adjunct
Mood		Residue		

His first car from the clause above answers the question: did to (build) what?

c. Adjunct

Adjunct is clause elements which contribute some additional information to the clause. It can be identified as elements which do not have the potential to become Subject—i.e. they are not nominal elements, but are adverbial, or prepositional phrase which answer the questions ‘how’, ‘when’, ‘where’, ‘by whom’⁸².

⁷⁹ Geoff Thompson, *Introducing Functional Grammar* (London: Arnold, 1996), p. 51

⁸⁰ Suznne Eggins, *An Introduction to Systemic Functional Linguistics 2nd Edition*, (New York: The Tower Building, 2004), p. 157

⁸¹ Linda Gerot and Peter Wignell, *Making Sense of Functional Grammar* (Sydney: Great Stabler, 1994), p. 32

⁸² Suznne Eggins, *An Introduction to Systemic Functional Linguistics 2nd Edition*, (New York: The Tower Building, 2004), p. 158

E.g. Henry Ford built his first car in his backyard

Henry ford	Built		his first car	in his backyard
Subject	Finite	Predicator	Complement	Adjunct
Mood	Residue			

In his back yard in the clause above answers the question 'where'

6. Types of Adjunct

Further step after identifying Mood-Residue elements is distinguishing types of Adjunct. Generally all types of Adjunct is included in the circumstantial adjunct since they tell about when, or how, or where, or why the event happened⁸³. For example: '*Henry Ford built his first car **in his backyard***'. Above those which are in the italics are Circumstantial Adjunct, showing *where* an event happened.

There are two types of Adjunct which one of these is centrally relevant to the Mood analysis, while the other two fall outside of Mood Structure, they are Conjunctive Adjunct and Comment Adjunct⁸⁴.

a. Conjunctive Adjunct

Conjunctive adjuncts typically have a textual function and operate as part of Theme⁸⁵. Thus they exclude from the

⁸³ Linda Gerot and Peter Wignell, *Making Sense of Functional Grammar* (Sydney: Great Stabler, 1994), p. 34

⁸⁴ Linda Gerot and Peter Wignell, *Making Sense of Functional Grammar* (Sydney: Great Stabler, 1994), p. 34

⁸⁵ M.A.K. Halliday, *An Introduction to Functional Grammar 2nd Edition* (London: Edward Arnold 1994), p. 83-84

analysis of Mood and Residue⁸⁶. They are quite similar with Mood Adjunct especially those of Comment. Both of them function for constructing context of the clause. In the case of time they have a different significance. A modal Adjunct of time, like *just*, *yet*, *already* relates closely to primary tense. Meanwhile conjunctive Adjuncts of time such as *next*, *meanwhile*, locates the clause in time with respect to the preceding textual environment⁸⁷.

E.g. unfortunately however they were too late

Unfortunately	However	They	Were	too late
Comment Adj.	Conjunct -ive Adj.	Subject	Finite	Complement
	Mood			Residue

b. Modal Adjunct

Modal Adjunct clearly belongs to Interpersonal function. It is divided into two main groups, Mood Adjunct and Comment Adjunct⁸⁸.

1. Mood Adjunct

Mood Adjunct is closely associated with the meaning constructed in the mood system. They tend to occur in a clause near the Finite verbal operator. It has

⁸⁶ M.A.K. Halliday, *An Introduction to Functional Grammar 2nd Edition* (London: Edward Arnold 1994), p. 84

⁸⁷ M.A.K. Halliday, *An Introduction to Functional Grammar 2nd Edition*, p. 84

⁸⁸ M.A.K. Halliday, *An Introduction to Functional Grammar 2nd Edition* (London: Edward Arnold 1994), p. 82

three basic positions; initial (thematic), medial (neutral), and final (afterthought)⁸⁹.

Example:

1. Usually they don't open before ten (thematic)
2. They usually don't open before ten (neutral)
3. They don't usually open before ten (neutral)
4. They don't open before ten usually (afterthought)

These are list of principle items functioning as Mood Adjunct⁹⁰:

Adjuncts of Polarity and Modality

- a) Polarity : not, yes, no, so
- b) Probability : probably, possibly, certainly, perhaps, maybe
- c) Usuality : usually, sometimes, always, never, ever, seldom, rarely
- d) Readiness : willingly, readily, gladly, certainly, easily
- e) Obligation : definitely, absolutely, possibly, at all costs, by all means

Adjuncts of temporality

- f) Time : yet, still, already, once, soon, just

⁸⁹ M.A.K. Halliday and Matthiessen, C.M.I.M. *An Introduction to Functional Grammar* 3rd Edition (London: Arnold, 2004), p. 126

⁹⁰ M.A.K. Halliday, *An Introduction to Functional Grammar 2nd Edition* (London: Edward Arnold 1994), p. 82

g) Typicality : occasionally, generally, regularly,
mainly, for the most part

Adjuncts of Mood:

h) Obviousness : of course, surely, obviously, clearly

i) Intensity : just, simply, merely, only, even,
actually, really, in fact

j) Degree : quite, almost, nearly, scarcely, hardly,
absolutely, totally, utterly, entirely,
completely

2. Comment Adjuncts

Halliday states that Comment Adjuncts are used to express speaker's attitude to the proposition as a whole⁹¹. There are no clear differences between these and Mood adjunct because these are very like of probability⁹². Comment Adjuncts include following items; unfortunately, frankly, apparently, hopefully, broadly speaking, understandably, to my surprise⁹³.

Unfortunately however they were too late

Unfortunately	They	Were	too late
Comment Adj.	Subject	Finite	Complement
Mood			Residue

⁹¹ M.A.K. Halliday, *An Introduction to Functional Grammar 2nd Edition* (London: Edward Arnold 1994), p. 83

⁹² M.A.K. Halliday, *An Introduction to Functional Grammar 2nd Edition* (London: Edward Arnold 1994), p. 84

⁹³ Linda Gerot and Peter Wignell, *Making Sense of Functional Grammar* (Sydney: Great Stabler, 1994), p. 35

7. Modality

Propositions and proposal provide choices between positive and negative, as in ‘*It is,*’ or ‘*It isn’t,*’, ‘*Yes*’ or ‘*No*’. However the choices are not limited merely between yes and no, because there are intermediate degrees which enable them to take another choices, like ‘*Sometimes*’ or ‘*maybe*’. These intermediate degrees between positive and negative poles are known as Modality⁹⁴. Eggins explains that:

Modality is a complex area of English grammar which has to do with the different ways in which a language user can intrude on her message, expressing attitudes and judgments of various kinds⁹⁵.

In propositions, the positive and negative poles in the Mood means asserting or denying what is stated in the Residue, e.g. ‘*It is,*’ or ‘*It isn’t*’⁹⁶. Thus, when modality is used to argue about the probability or frequency of propositions, it is referred to as *Modalization*⁹⁷. There are two kinds of intermediate possibilities. First is degree of probability (possibly, probably, certainly). Secondly is degree of usuality (sometimes, usually, and always).

⁹⁴ M.A.K. Halliday, *An Introduction to Functional Grammar 2nd Edition* (London: Edward Arnold 1994), p. 88

⁹⁵ Suzne Eggins, *An Introduction to Systemic Functional Linguistics 2nd Edition* (New York: The Tower Building, 2004), p. 172

⁹⁶ M.A.K. Halliday, *An Introduction to Functional Grammar 2nd Edition* (London: Edward Arnold 1994), p. 89

⁹⁷ Suzne Eggins, *An Introduction to Systemic Functional Linguistics 2nd Edition*, (New York: The Tower Building, 2004), p. 172

These degrees of probability and usuality which refer to *Modalization* could be expressed through three ways⁹⁸;

- a. Using Finite modal operator. E.g. she will sit there all day.
- b. Using Mood adjuncts, e.g. ‘*probably, usually, possibly*’.
- c. Using both of them. E.g. that will probably john, he usually sit there all day

In proposals, the positive and negative poles mean prescribing or proscribing as in ‘*Do,*’ or ‘*Don’t*’⁹⁹. When modality is used to argue about the obligation or *inclination* of proposals, it is referred to as *Modulation*¹⁰⁰. There are two kinds of intermediate possibility; command and offer. In a command, the intermediate points represent degree of obligation: allowed to/ supposed to/ required to. In an offer they represent degrees of inclination: willing to/ anxious to/ determined to¹⁰¹. So, these degrees of obligation and inclination refer to *Modulation*¹⁰². It can be exemplified as below to show degrees of obligation e.g. ‘*You should*’ for commands, and degrees of inclination e.g. ‘*should I*’ for offers.

⁹⁸ M.A.K. Halliday, *An Introduction to Functional Grammar 2nd Edition* (London: Edward Arnold 1994), p. 89

⁹⁹ M.A.K. Halliday, *An Introduction to Functional Grammar 2nd Edition* (London: Edward Arnold 1994), p. 89

¹⁰⁰ Suzne Eggins, *An Introduction to Systemic Functional Linguistics 2nd Edition*, p. 172

¹⁰¹ M.A.K. Halliday, *An Introduction to Functional Grammar 2nd Edition* (London: Edward Arnold 1994), p. 89

¹⁰² Suzne Eggins, *An Introduction to Systemic Functional Linguistics 2nd Edition*, (New York: The Tower Building, 2004), p. 172

8. Utterance

Utterance is what is said by any one person before or after another person begins to speak¹⁰³. An utterance can also be defined as a section of spoken speech, separated by pauses or silence. It is related to personal expressions, experiences, thoughts and feelings which can be “associated” with a person. The term utterance refers to the whole spoken “turn” or the words between two pauses. Alternatively, an utterance can be classed as a section of speech between two pauses; this is a more spoken-sentence definition of the term¹⁰⁴. Thus, an utterance can be generally defined as a piece of spoken language.

Due to Human language is creative, we can produce new utterances which others understand; we comprehend new sentences which others have produced. Human utterances, on the other hand, are composed of interchangeable units on two levels. An utterance consists of words in a particular sequence and a word consists of sound-units, or phonemes, in a particular order¹⁰⁵. An utterance is an act of speech; it is a specific event at a particular time and place and involving at least one person, the one who produces the utterance, but usually more than one

¹⁰³ Jack Richards, John Platt, Heidi Weber, *Longman Dictionary of Applied Linguistics*, (UK: Longman. 1990), p. 302

¹⁰⁴ Cliff Goddard, *Cross-Linguistic Semantics*, (UK: University of New England. 2008), p. 294

¹⁰⁵ Kirsten Malmkjær, *The Linguistics Encyclopedia, Second Edition*, (London: Routledge. 1991), p. 42

person. The meaning of an utterance is the meaning of the sentence plus the meanings of the circumstances: the time and place, the people involved, their backgrounds, their relationship to one another, and what they know about one another. All these circumstances we can call the physical-social context of an utterance¹⁰⁶. We have to know how to combine the vocabulary items into utterances that will carry meanings for others and we have to grasp the meanings of complex utterances that others produce. So, for every word that speakers know, for production or recognition, they must know the pronunciation, how it fits into various utterances, and what it means¹⁰⁷.

Utterances in everyday language are, or contain conversational expression that must be used in a certain way¹⁰⁸. Thus in the context of schooling process the utterances have to be somehow situated in the context in which they are produced. Teacher should produce utterances which situated to the students comprehension so that it makes sense to them and instruction being given can be effective and be easily grasped.

¹⁰⁶ Charles W.Kreidler, *Introducing English Semantics*, (London: Routledge. 1998), p.26-27

¹⁰⁷ Charles W.Kreidler, *Introducing English Semantics*, (London: Routledge. 1998), p.7

¹⁰⁸ Malka Rappaport Hovav, Edit Doron, And Ivy Sichel, *Lexical Semantics, Syntax, and Event Structure*, (New York: Oxford University Press .2010), p. 77