

## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW TO RELATED LITERATURE

In this chapter explores mood and speech function in the script of *Black Swan* by Mark Heyman, John McLaughlin, and Andres Heinz. This chapter discusses the related theories solving the problem of the research.

#### 2.1 Systemic Functional Linguistic

Eggins (1994:1) states that Systemic Functional Linguistics explain how meanings are made in everyday linguistics interaction. Systemic Functional Linguistics focuses on the analysis of authentic product of social interaction (texts), considered in relation to the cultural and social context in which they are negotiated.

Systemic functional linguistic is the study of the relationship between language and its functions in social settings (<http://grammar.about.com/od/rs/g/Systemic-Functional-Linguistics-Sfl.htm>)

Systemic functional linguistics treats grammar as a meaning-making resource and insists on the interrelation of form and meaning. From those definitions above the writer conclude that Systemic functional Linguistics is interest in how people use language which each other in accomplishing everyday social life.

SFL is able to reconstruct the context of situation because there is a systemic relationship between text and context. The wordings of the texts

simultaneously encode three types of meaning ideational, textual, and interpersonal meaning (Gerot and Wignell, 1994: 12).

Ideational meaning is meaning involves grammatical resources for constructing people theories of experience and how people construct reality in ways that seems natural to them. These meanings are realized in wordings through participant, process, and circumstances. Meanings of the kind are most centrally influenced by the field of discourse.

The second is called textual meaning which have to do with the problem of organizing what we have to say with respect to what we have said and what we are going to say and making what we have said relevant to the context in which we are speaking. These meanings are realized through patterns of theme and cohesion. Textual meanings are most centrally influence by mode of discourse.

The last is interpersonal meaning are meaning which express a speakers attitude and judgments (Gerot and Wignell, 1995:13). Interpersonal meaning is realized through mood. By mood structure of the clause we would be describing how language is used to enable the expression of interpersonal meanings, through dialog. We can see speakers making meanings about such interpersonal dimensions as the power or solidarity of their relationship, the extent of their intimacy, their level of familiarity which each other, and their attitudes and judgments.

## **2.2 Interpersonal Meaning**

Interpersonal meanings are meaning which express a speaker's attitude and judgments. These are meanings for acting upon with others (Gerot and Wignell,

1995:13). Interpersonal meaning is realized through MOOD. By Mood structure of the clause we would be describing how language is used to enable the expression of interpersonal meanings, through dialog.

### 2.3 Mood

Palmer (2004) says mood is the form of a verb which shows the mode or manner in which a statement is made. The mood of a verb denotes the mood or manner in which it is used.

In short, I conclude mood is the form of verb which shows mood or manner in which it is used.

#### 2.3.1 Mood Elements

Gerot and Wignell (1995: 25) states mood element consists of two part (1) subject is realized by nominal group, and (2) the finite element, which is a part of verbal group.

For example:

The sentences “she doesn’t” can be analyzed as follow:

She	Doesn’t
Subject	Finite
Mood	

##### 2.3.1.1 Subject

Eggins and Slade (1997:1) states that the subject is the pivotal participant in the clause, the person or thing that the proposition is concerned with and without whose presence there could be no argument or negotiation. It provides the person or things in whom is vested the success or failure the proposition, what is “held

responsible”. The definition of subject inherited from classical times was a morphological one: it was that nominal element ‘noun or pronoun’ that is in nominative case.

Example:

**Tina** is beautiful, (isn’t **she**?)  
 Subject                      Subject

### 2.3.1.2 Finite

The second essential element of the mood is FINITE. Halliday in Eggins (1994:157) defines the finite in terms of its function in the clause to make the proposition definite, to anchor the proposition in a way that we can argue about it.

The finite is always a verbal element. It always realized through a verbal group. The verbal group in a clause is the sequence of words which indicate the process, action or state that subject is engaged.

Example:

He **took** him to a policeman.  
 Finite

(The tense is simple past tense and Finite from this clause is **Did**)

### 2.3.2 Residue

Residue is the general term for part of the clause that not the mood. It means that all of the words in the clause are residue, except Subject and Finite (Thompson, 1996: 50). Gerot and Wignell (1995:31) there are three elements in the Residue namely: Predicator, Complement, and Adjunct.

### a. Predicator

Predicator is present in all major clauses, except those where it is displaced through ellipsis. It is realized by a verbal group minus the temporal or modal operators, which as we have seen functions as finite in the Mood elements (Halliday, 1994:121). To differ with Finite, Eggins and Slade (1997: 78) state Predicator is all the constituents of the verbal group minus the finite, which is always the first verbal element. For example:

I swear to God

I	Swear		to God
Subject	Finite	Predicator	Adjunct
MOOD		RESIDUE	

### b. Complement

Eggins (1994:163) state that Complement is defined as a non-essential participant on the clause, a participant somehow effected by the main argument of the proposition. The complement answer question “is/had what”, “to whom”, “did to what” (Gerot and Wignell, 1994:33). For example:

The car had four bicycle wheels

S      F      C

(Four bicycle wheels is a complement, and four bicycle wheels answer question “had what?”)

### c. Adjuncts

Eggins and Slade (1997: 81) state adjuncts are as the label suggest, element, which are additional, rather than essential, to the proposition.

Adjuncts are expressed by prepositional phrases, adverb, and adverbial groups, or conjunction. For example:

He was studying so hard  
S   F   P   A

(So hard is an adjunct, and it is an adverb of manner)

### 2.3.3 Mood Types

Mood has seven kinds types they are declarative, polar interrogative, tagged declarative, WH-Interrogative, imperative, exclamatives, elliptical clause Eggins 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.

#### b. Polar Interrogative

Polar interrogatives, also known as yes-no interrogatives, can be identified as clauses where the finite element occurs before the subject. Here are some examples:

Jo : did she see the photos in her coz?

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

As the example show, in order to construct a polar interrogative in English, the Finite element is separated from the predicator.

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

According to Eggins and Slade (1997:85) states this clause type falls midway between the declarative and polar interrogative. Structurally, it has the sequence of a declarative, with the subject occurring before 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**)

- Dave : You know... You know a lot of funny people **don't you**  
Brad?
- 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, hence their intermediate status

#### d. Wh-Interrogative

According to Eggins and Slade (1997:86) Wh-Interrogatives consist of a wh-question word, e.g. *who*, *what*, *which*, *when*, *why*, *how*, *in what way*, *for what reason*, etc. the purpose of the wh-word is to probe for 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 set up an expectation that the answering clause will fill out (give content to) the missing element of clause structure. The following are all examples of wh-Interrogatives: (wh-word in *italic*, subject underlined):

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

Dave: And *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 being placed before the Subject. In these examples we see the following order:

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

Full wh-Interrogatives are typically used to elicit additional circumstantial information. This may be in initiatory role (e.g. when are you gonna do....all your odds n' sods subjects?), in which case repeated use will make the speaker sound like an interrogator. They may also be used by respondents to challenge prior 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.

**e. Imperative**

Imperative typically do not contain the elements of subject or finite but only consist of predicator, plus any of the non-core participants of Complement and Adjunct (Eggins 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

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.

#### **f. Exclamative**

An exclamative clause is not merely a word or clause produced with an emphatic or surprised intonation. Exclamative clause has a specific structure, exemplified by the following exclamative clauses:

“How stupid Descartes was!”

“How amazingly he plays the double-bass!”

As the example above, exclamative clauses involve a wh-word combining with one of the clause elements of either Complement or Adjunct. The order 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 decartes was! , the wh-word what becomes part of the complement and idiot, followed by the subject element decartes and then the finite was. Because this is the verb to be, there is no predicator involved.

Exclamatives are typically used to encode a judgment or evaluation of events. The speakers must thus take on the role of judge, and in so doing positions other interactants as 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.

#### **g. Elliptical Clauses**

According to Eggins and Slade (1997:89) states 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 attempting to initiate a new exchange, i.e. when they wish to establish material to be reacted to. However, when interactants react to prior 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*

2. A: He plays the double bass

B: *Does he?*

3. A: She is an amazing actress

B: *What?*

## 2.4 Speech Function

Speech Function is the role of language plays in context of society or the individual, <http://digilib.petra.ac.id>. It describe how the interactants negotiate the exchange of meanings in dialogue. Eggins (1994:109) states that speech function involves two components: the choice of speech function and the type of exchange structure. The negotiation which characterizes spoken text is achieved through the sequencing of moves each of which performs a speech function.

Based on those explanation above, I conclude that every speech has different function, the function of speech is based on the context of situation that expressed by mood.

### 2.4.1 Kind of Speech Functions

Speech Function is the role of language plays in context of society or the individual. According to Halliday (1994:68) a dialogue is a process of exchange involving two variables:

1. The basic types of speech role:

a. Giving

The speaker is giving something to the listener for example a piece of information. Giving means “inviting to receive”

b. Demanding

The speaker is demanding something from the listener. Demanding means “inviting to give”

2. A commodity to be exchanged:

a. Good and services

The speaker says to the hearer with the aim of getting to do something or give some object.

b. Information

The speaker says to the hearer with the aim of getting to tell something.

Halliday (in Eggins, 1994: 150) state that these two variables of exchange commodity and exchange role define the four basic moves of speech function: statement, question, offer and command. It can see in table 2.1 below:

**Table 2.1 speech role and commodities interactions**

Speech role in exchange	Commodity exchanged	
	Good and service	Information
Giving	Offer	Statement
Demanding	Command	Question

When speaker takes on role of giving or demanding by the same taken, the speaker assigns a complementary role to the person that the speaker addressing. If the speaker is giving, listener is called on to accept, if the speaker is demanding, listener is called on to give (Eggins and Slade, 1997:181).

From the table above, we can also take a conclusion that if it is giving information, it has the speech function of statement. On the other hand, if it is demanding information, it has speech function of question. When it is offering to give goods and services, it has speech function of offer. If it is demanding good and services, it has the speech function, command.

#### **2.4.2 Speech Function Pairs**

According to Eggins (1994: 109) states “speech function involves two components: the choice of speech function and the type of exchange structure”. The negotiation which characterizes spoken text is achieved through the sequencing of moves each of which performs a speech function. The basic initiating speech functions are: statement, question, offer, and command. Speech function pairs can be summarized as the table below:

**Table 2.2 Speech function pairs (Initiations and responses)**

Initiating speech function	Responding speech function	
	Supporting	Confronting
Offer	Acceptance	Rejection
Command	Compliance	Refusal
Statement	Acknowledgment	Contradiction
Question	Answer	Disclaimer

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

1. Offer

The speaker gives the hearer some goods or some services and the speaker inherently inviting the hearer to receive those goods and services.

For example: “Would you like borrow my copy?”

2. Command

The speaker demands the hearer some goods or some services and the hearer are thereby invited to give that service or provide the goods.

For example: “Take it!”

3. Statement

The speaker gives the hearer some information and the speaker inherently inviting the hearer to receive that information.

For example: “It’s by Henry James”

4. Question

The speaker demands the hearer some information and the speaker inherently inviting the hearer to give that information.

For example: “Have you ever read the Bostonians?”

According to Eggins (1994:151) there are eight speech function classes:

### 1. Acceptance

The speaker gives the hearer some responding goods and services and the speaker inherently inviting the hearer to supporting those responding.

For example: “Well, OK!”

### 2. Rejection

The speaker gives the hearer some responding goods and services and the speaker inherently inviting the hearer to confronting those responding.

For example: “I didn’t read it”

### 3. Compliance

The speaker demand the hearer some responding goods and services and the speaker inherently inviting the hearer to supporting those responding.

Example: “Thanks”

### 4. Refusal

The speaker demands the hearer some responding goods and services and the speaker inherently inviting the hearer to confronting those responding.

Example: “No, Thanks!”

### 5. Acknowledgment

The speaker gives the hearer some responding information and the speaker inherently inviting the hearer to supporting those responding.

Example: “Yeah”

### 6. Contradiction

The speaker gives the hearer some responding information and the speaker inherently inviting the hearer to confronting those responding.

Example: “No, it is not!”

#### 7. Answer

The speaker demands the hearer some responding information and the speaker inherently inviting the hearer to supporting those responding.

For example: “Yes, I have”

#### 8. Disclaimer

The speaker demands the hearer some responding information and the speaker inherently inviting the hearer to confronting those responding.

For example: “I really wouldn’t know”

From the table above, I can conclude that if the speaker offers the listener, the listener has two choices, the first one is supporting the offering and the other is confronting the offering. If the listener supporting the offering, it means that the speech function from the listener is acceptance. On the other hand, if the listener confronting the offering, it means that speech function from the listener is rejection.

### 2.4.3 Speech Function and Typical Mood of Clause

Eggins and Slade (1997: 183) argue that adding speech function to our account now allow us to clarify this relationship between social context and language as each speech function is associated with typical mood structure, as summarized in table below:

**Table 2.3 Speech function and typical mood in clause**

Speech Function	Typical mood in clause
Statement	Declarative
Question	Interrogative
Command	Imperative
Offer	Modulated interrogative
Answer	Elliptical declarative
Acknowledgement	Minor (or non-verbal)
Accept	Minor (or non-verbal)
Compliance	Minor (or non-verbal)

## 2.5 Black Swan Movie

*Black Swan* is a 2010 American psychological thriller movie directed by Darren Aronofsky and starring Natalie Portman, Vincent Cassel, and Mila Kunis. Psychological thriller is a specific sub-genre of the broad ranged thriller with heavy focus on characters.

The plot revolves around a production of Tchaikovsky's *Swan Lake* ballet by a prestigious New York City company. The production requires a ballerina to play both the innocent White Swan and the sensual Black Swan. One dancer, Nina (Portman), is a perfect fit for the White Swan, while Lily (Kunis) has a personality that matches the Black Swan. When the two compete for the parts, Nina finds a dark side to herself.

This movie was the greatest movie in the year of 2010. On January 25, 2011 the movie was nominated for five Academy Awards (Best Picture, Best Director, Best Actress, Best Cinematography and Best Film Editing).

## 2.6 Review of Previous Research

Besides using theories from book, I also use the research from the previous researchers as supporting theories.

The research about speech function has ever done by Salis Qina Ahsana (2011) entitled “speech function found in the script of Twilight Saga Eclipse on Oprah”. This research is conducted to find out the clause moods and speech functions in movie script. The result of this research shows that the typical clause mood are declarative, polar interrogative, W-H interrogative, elliptical, imperative. The speech function expressed are statement, question, command, answer, acknowledgment,, compliance, contradiction, disclaimer, and refusal.

By comparing research above, I find some aspects that are similar and different with my research. Generally, the similarity of research above is the subject of the analysis that is speech function. The difference is data source, Ahsana uses script of talk show Twilight Saga Eclipse on Oprah and here I analyze the script of Black Swan movie.