

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1. Discourse Analysis

In this world, communication has become the important part of human's life. One way of communication is speech which is communication through talking or a talk given to the audience. In speech, it must be found word, clause, phrase and sentence. For the successful communication, people have to see beyond word, clause, phrase and sentence. It can be seen in Paltridge's theory about discourse analysis.

Discourse analysis is knowledge where people can see a language beyond the word, clause, phrase and sentence (Paltridge, 2006:2). It means that in communicating there are some factors which can influence people in arranging words. Those factors are the relationship between language and the social and cultural contexts in which it is used.

In doing communication, people will always be surrounded by social and cultural context, and it will influence how people behave when they are communicating. Discourse analysis can be seen in language, speech, writing, or conversation (Purwako, 2008:1) so the example of discourse analysis can be seen in speech. When the speaker is speaking to the audience, he will design his grammar to

reate connections in his text based on the culture. If he is an American, he will use American way or if he is Indonesian, he will use Indonesian way, and these ways of speaking occur in society.

Discourse analysis also considers the ways people use a language will result different views and understanding (Paltridge, 2006:2). Let see the example in previous paragraph, it can concluded that people have their own way in communicating influenced by cultural context. Because of this difference, there is possibility that the listener will get different view and understanding.

There are some topics that become the central interest to the area of discourse analysis they are (1) The discourse structure of texts, it is about how people organize what they say (2) the relationship between language and context, it is about how people interpret what someone says (3) discourse analysis and pragmatics, it is about the interpretation of the language depends on knowledge of the real world (4) Cultural ways of speaking and writing, it is about language which is used by particular cultural group through the notion of the ethnography of communication (5) communicative competence and discourse, it is about the theoretical background to the ethnography of communication (6) Discursive competence, it is about is about a further way of looking at cultural ways of speaking and writing (Paltridge, 2006:3-8). In this research, the researcher will concern on the discourse structure of texts and discourse analysis and pragmatics

2.1.1. The Discourse Structure of text

The discourse structure of text is about how people organize what they say in the sense of what they typically say first, and what they say next and so on in a conversation or in a piece of writing (Paltridge, 2006:4). It means that people have their own way in organizing what they want to say. As the example. People in America and people in Indonesia have their own way in speech especially when they open the speech. It can be seen when Donald Trump opens his speech where he just straight to the point of what he wants to say. It is different than Indonesian where mostly they will say greeting in opening such as good morning. In this part, the researcher will employ the theory of systemic functional linguistics (SFL) by Suzanne Eggins to analyze Donald Trump's speech on terrorism topic.

1. Systemic Functional Linguistics

Systemic Functional Linguistics or known as SFL is a functionally based theory, developed during the past 45 years, which is developed by Michael Halliday. SFL is an approach to analyze and explain how meanings are made (Eggins, 1994:1). It is systemic, in that it offers sets of options or choices (not conscious) for making meaning; the choices provide a large network of systems of choices, each with an entry condition. By doing this approach, people could know how language works or options which can be chosen in making meaning such as transitivity, interpersonal, and textual. This view involves the examination of real language events to understand the purposes language serves in a variety of contexts, and to understand the way

language itself functions. SFL also concentrates on the teaching of English as a first and second language as well as on discourse analysis of a wide range of discursive events (Young, 2004:1)

There are some topics which can be discussed in SFL such as genre, register, or metafunction. In this research, the researcher will concern on metafunction. There are three types of metafunction they are experiential metafunction, interpersonal metafunction, and textual metafunction, and three of them will be discussed in this research

a. Metafunctions

The ways in which human beings use language are classified in SFL into three broad categories known as metafunctions (Bloor & Meriel, 2004:10-11). It is also discussed in another book that “functions” refers to use of language (Matthiessen, Teruya, & Lam, 2010:101-102). From previous definition it means that Metafunction is one of set of principles which is needed to analyze or explain how language works, and the function itself is to shape and organized the structure of the clause. Metafunction is divided into three they are experiential metafunction, interpersonal metafunction, and textual metafunction. It means that the researcher will analyze the speech from three perspectives.

1) Experiential Metafunction

In this system the meaningful grammatical unit is clause, which expresses what is happening, what is being done, what is felt and what the state is and so on. The transitivity system includes six processes they are:

a) Material process

Material process is clauses that describing processes of doing. The basic meaning of material process is that some entity does something, undertakes some action, and these processes are expressed by an action verb for example verbs eat, give, walk etc (Eggins, 1994:230). The way to know whether it is material process or not is by giving a question “*what + did/do/does + S+ V?* Or *what + have/has/had + S +V3?*”. For example, what does she do? The answer will be *she takes the money* then it can be classified as material process. For passive form, the question will be “what happened to y”?.

An actor is logical subject and the goal of the action is logical direct object, usually a noun or pronoun for example, Jo is playing playstation, in this example the noun “Jo” is the actor and “playstation” is the goal. Material process is process of “doing”. The process is usually indicated by a verb expressing an action, either concrete or abstract. There are usually two participants in the process, actor and goal. Actor is comparable to the subject and goal is comparable to the object and both of them are usually realized by noun phrase. When the participants both exist, the clause can be either in active voice or in passive.

Goal can be divided into two they are goal itself and range. The difference between them is goal is the participants that is impacted by the performance of the process by the actor, and range is it represents the scope of the performance of the process (quotation). For the example of goal is “I polishes the piano (so the piano

becomes bright)”, and the example of range “I listens to the radio (there is nothing happen to the radio).

b) Relational Process

The category of Relational process covers the many different ways in which “being” can be expressed in English clause (Eggins, 1994:255). The examples of relational process are *you are the student here, the teacher is him* and etc. Relational processes can be classified into two types: Attributive and identifying. Attributive is involves establishing a relationship between two terms, where the relationship is expressed by verb *be* (Eggins, 2004:256). In attributive, there is only one independent nominal participant, the carrier, with the attribute, and it makes the clause identified as attributive cannot be reversible or passive form for the example, the original clause: *you are beautiful* becomes passive form: *beautiful are you*. It means that there is no passive form in attributive. The second type is identifying. The meaning of as identifying is that “*x serves to define the identity of y*”(Eggins, 1994:258). The example of identifying is *you are the skinniet one here*”. Another characteristic of identifying is the clause can be reversible or there is passive form for the example, *that man is my father* becomes *my father is that man*. There are two participants in this process they are token (that which stands for what is being defined) and value (that which defines). Token will always be subject in active clause and value will always be subject in a passive clause.

c) Behavioural Process

Behavioral processes refer to physiological and psychological. Physiological process is related to physical activity or behavior such as breathing, coughing, smiling, laughing, and crying. While, the psychological is related to mind and feel which symbolized as angry, sad, happy, and etc. the participant who is behaving, labeled behavior, is typically a conscious being, like the sender, the process is grammatically more like one of doing. The usual unmarked present tense for behavioral process is present in present, like the material (e.g. you are dreaming), however, it also finds a simple present in its unmarked sense, not meaning habitual, for example: why do you laugh? With scarcely any difference between them), which suggests an affiliation with a mental. In other examples: Daniel was foolish not to realize that this was happening to him, that he could possibly have dreamt about it.

d) Verbal Process

verbal processes are processes of verbal action: saying and all its synonyms (Eggins, 1994:251). Verbal processes are those of exchanging information. Commonly used verbs are say, tell, talk, praise, boast describe, etc. In these processes the main participants are sawyer, receiver, verbiage, dreaming, etc. generally there is only one participant behave, which is often a human. This kind of processes is much like the mental process.

e) Existential Process

existential processes represent experience by positing that “there was/ is something (Eggins, 1994:254). From the previous definition, it can be seen that one of the characteristic of existential processes is the use of word *there*. In this process, *there* does not refer to a location. It is present in the clause because all English clause require a subject. The only obligatory participant in an existential process which receives a functional label is called the *existent*. The example of this process is “*there is a fight*”, in this example it can be seen there is word *there* as the subject, and *a fight* is the existent.

f) Mental Process

Mental processes is about what we think or feel (Eggins, 1994:240). For the examples: *I hate that people, I believe on you, I do not know what it is and etc.* Mental processes express such mental phenomena as “perception” (see, look), “reaction” (like, please) and phenomenon. For example Tomi likes chocolate. Mental process is a process of feeling, thinking and seeing. The way to identify mental process is by giving question “what do you think/ feel/ know about x?”. For the example, “what do you think about their performance?” and the answer is “I believe that they are going to be the champion”. In the answer, the speaker tells about his feeling about the performance that they are going to be the champion.

There are two participants in this process, they are senser (the one who feels, thinks, or perceives, and it must be a conscious being) and phenomenon (is that which is thought, felt, or perceived by the conscious senser) (Eggins, 1994). In

phenomena, there are two types of embedded phenomena: acts and facts. The way to distinguish them is by insert the word “that”. For the example “I saw the operation taking place” this example can be identified as act because the sentence will not make sense if it is inserted the word “that” “I saw *that* the operation taking place”. If it is facts, the word “that” will fit to the sentence for the example “I believe *that* they are going to be the champion”.

2) **Interpersonal Metafunction**

Interpersonal metafunction is about our role relationship with other people and our attitudes to each other (Eggins, 1994:12). The Interpersonal Metafunction of a speech represents the way the addresser and the audience interact, the use of language to establish and maintain relations with them, to influence their behavior, to express our own viewpoint on things in the world, and to elicit or change theirs (H. Yang, 2017). From explanation above, it is clear that the one of the functions of interpersonal metafunction is to reveal the way addresser and the audience interact. In this part the researcher concerns on mood, personal pronouns (subject), and (finite)

There are four basic interpersonal rules when people use language, which are giving, information, demanding information, giving goods and services, and demanding goods and services (Yang, 2017). These rules are called speech roles and always happen in every conversation. It is establishing relationship between the addressee and the audience. In the meantime, they come into the four speech functions used to mark themselves, they are Statement (something that you say or

write that gives information or opinion), Question (a sentence, phrase or word that ask for information), Offer (to say that you are willing to do something for or give something to) and Command (an order given to a person or an animal)(Hornby, 2005). In this part, the researcher concerns on these four speech functions to know the relationship between addressee and the audience.

There are two constituents of mood they are subject and finite. Subject is that it realizes the thing by reference to which the proposition can be affirmed or denied (Eggins, 1994:156). In the subject analysis, the researcher concerns on personal pronouns as subject pronouns such as first person: I, you, we, they or third person: she, he, it. It is because they establish a certain relationship between the addressee and the audience. The way to identify subject is achieved by the tag test for example “*he* has a new car *doesn't he?*”, in this example the subject is *he* because in this sentence can be made tag test. If a sentence cannot be made tag test, it means the sentence does not have a subject.

The second constituent of mood is finite. Finite is defined 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 (Eggins, 1994:157). The way to identify finite is by the tag test, the verbal part of the tag tells you which element the finite is, for example “Joni *has* a new car *doesn't he?*” in this example the finite is *has*, it can be proven in the tag test *doesn't*. In other words, finite will always appear after the subject. There are two types of finite they are temporal finite verbal operators and finite modal operators. This following table is lists of personal pronouns.

Table 2.1.Personal Pronouns

No	Personal Pronouns
1	I
2	You
3	We
4	They
5	He
6	She
7	It

Temporal finite verbal operators is the words which contain reference of time(Eggins, 1994:159). In other words, temporal finite verbal operators gives tense to the finite, for the example “I *went* to my friend’s house” temporal finite verbal operators in this example is *went* which is show the tense of past.

The second type of finite is finite modal operators which is these words anchor the proposition not by reference to time but by reference to modality (Eggins, 1994:159). For the example “I *should* help them” in this example the finite modal operators is *should*. Finite modal operators is also important in interpersonal metafunction because it can reveal the speaker’s judgment of the probabilities or obligation involved in what he is saying. In this research, the researcher just concerns on finite modal operators since it is said that the researcher concerns on modality. This following table is the lists of modality

Table 2 2 Modality

No	Modality
1	Will
2	Can

3	Must
4	Should
5	Would
6	Could

3) Textual Metafunction

Textual metafunction is about how what we are saying hangs together and relates to what was said before and to the context around us (Eggins, 1994:13). Textual metafunction is represented by theme and rheme.

a) Theme

Theme is the element which serves as “starting point for the message: it is what the clause is going to be about”. The way to identify theme is based on order, theme always comes in the first clause, for the example “*The stolen car* has been given to the owner”. In this example, the theme is *the stolen car*. there are four types of theme they are topical theme, interpersonal theme, textual theme, and multiple theme.

1)) Topical theme

Topical theme is not the topic of the clause, but it represents a particular focus of a single clause. This type of theme usually represents what the clause is about. for the example “*The students* attend the class at 07:00 am” in this example, the topical theme is *the student*”. An important principle to remember is that every clause must contain one and only one topical theme. Topical theme is divided into two they are unmarked and marked topical theme.

Unmarked topical theme is if the first topical element of a clause is also the subject of the clause. For the example “*John* eats the candy”, in this example the first topical element is John which is the subject of the clause. While marked topical theme is when the first topical theme of clause is not the subject of the clause. For example “one day, I will show you how strong I am” in this example the subject is not *one day* but *I*, so the marked topical theme is *one day*.

2)) **Interpersonal theme**

In interpersonal theme, there are three types they are the finite, wh-element, a vocative, and an adjunct (Martin, J, 1997:25)

1))) **The finite**

The finite, typically realized by an auxiliary verb. its presence in thematic position signals that a response is expected. For the example “*should* I help them?” in this example the word *should* is the finite.

2))) **A Wh-element**

A Wh-element, signaling that an answer is required from the addressee.

For the example “*How* do you know about this news?” in this example the word *how* is the Wh-element.

3))) **A Vocative**

A Vocative, identifying the addressee in the exchange For the example “*Mr. Jo*, may I borrow your car?” in this example “*Mr. Jo*” is the vocative of the clause

4))) **An Adjunct**

An adjunct, typically realized by an adverb. It provides the speaker's comment, assessment or attitude towards the message.

For the example “unfortunately, you cannot go to the next step of this competition” in this example *unfortunately* is the adjunct.

3)) **Textual Theme**

Textual theme almost always constitutes the first part of the theme, coming before any interpersonal themes. They give thematic prominence to textual elements with a linking function. There are three types of linking function they are structural conjunctions, relatives, and conjunctives.

Structural conjunctions is linking two clauses in a coordinating relation, for the example “I wanted to go to your house, *but* it was rain” in this example the word *but* is the structural conjunctions. The second is relatives which is relating a dependent clause to another clause, for the example “The person *who* is sitting there is my uncle” in this example the word *who* is relatives. The last is conjunctives which is providing a cohesive link back to previous discourse, for the example “*furthermore*, this alternative would be far too costly” in this example the word *furthermore*

b) **Rheme**

Rheme is also the representation of textual metafunction which is rheme is the part of the clause in which the theme is developed. The way to identify rheme is everything that is not theme (Eggins, 1994:275). For the example “The stolen car *has*

been given to the owner” in this example the rheme is *has been given to the owner* because the “the stolen car “ is the theme.

2.1.2. Discourse analysis and pragmatics

Discourse analysis and pragmatics is about how the interpretation of language depends on knowledge (Paltridge, 2006:2). It is clear that every person has their own idea when they are reading or listening to something, and it is based on their own knowledge. As the example, if a student of English department listens to a workshop about informatics, surely he or she will be confused because he or she does not understand about informatics. If a student of informatics listens to a workshop about informatics, surely he or she will understand because that is what they learn. So knowledge will influence the understanding.

1. Pragmatics

In order to know what someone meant by what they said, it's not enough to know the meanings of the words (semantics) and how they have been strung together into a sentence (syntax); we also need to know who uttered the sentence and in what context, and to be able to make inferences regarding why they said it and what they intended us to understand (Birner, 2013:1). From the previous explanation, it can be seen that Pragmatics is the study of meaning in relation to the context in which a person is speaking or writing which the meaning will be influenced by social, situational, and textual context. There are some topics which can be discussed in

pragmatics they are co-operative principle, politeness, speech act, and etc. In this research, the researcher only focuses speech act.

a. Speech act

Speech act is how the addressee is able to determine what sort of act the speaker intended to perform (Birner, 2013:175). It means that actions performed via utterance are generally called speech act, and in English, are commonly given more specific labels, such as apology, complaint, compliment, invitation, promise, or request. There are some topics which can be discussed in speech act such as IFIDs, felicity conditions, the performative hypothesis, general function, direct and indirect speech act, and speech events. In this research, the researcher will only focus on general function.

1) General Functions

There are some functions that can be found on utterances to determine why the speakers utter the utterance for. General function is the main meaning in a conversation or speech. The function itself is to list all the possible explicit performatives, and then distinguish among all of them (Yule, 1996:53). There are five types of general functions on utterances that is performed by speech acts: declarations, representatives, directives, and commissives (Yule, 1996:53). It means that there are five general functions that can be used by the researcher to analyze this research.

a) Declaration

the first function is function as declaration. “Declarations are those kinds of speech act that change the world via utterances” (Yule, 1996:53). The quote above means that declarations affect an immediate change of affairs, for example, “*you are fired*”. In the example, there is a change of event that happen to the couple, which they are now a husband and wife after marriage.

b) Representatives

the second function as function as representatives “Representatives are those kind of speech act that state what the speakers believe to be the case or not.” (Yule, 1996:53). The quote above means that representatives commit a speaker to represent the world as what they believe it is, for example, “*I am the president of United States*”. In this example, the speaker believe that he or she is a great singer, but maybe not other people. The representatives can be statements of fact, assertions, conclusions, and descriptions.

c) Expressives

The third function is function as expressives. “Expressives are those kind of speech acts that state what the speaker feels.” (Yule, 1996:53). The quote above means that expressives are kinds of utterances that express some sort psychological states and they are about the speaker’s experience. The expressives can be statement of pleasure, pain, likes, dislikes, joy, or sorrow. For example, “*It is great to be with you!*”, in this example, the speaker express the feel of guilty to the hearer and that

d) Directives

The fourth function is function as directives. “Directives are those kinds of speech acts that speakers use to get someone else to do something” (Yule, 1996:54). The quote above means that directives are used by the speaker to command someone or the hearer to do something for the speaker. The directives can be a statement of commands, orders, requests, suggestions, and also the statement can be either positive or negative. For example, “*Please do me a favour*”, in this example, the speaker is giving a request to borrow a pen in a positive way to the hearer.

e) Commisives

The last function as commissives. “Commissives are those kinds of speech acts that speakers use to commit themselves to some future action.” (Yule, 1996:54). The quote above means that commissive commit the speaker to express what they intend to do. The commissive can be a statement of promises, threats, refusals, and pledge. For example, “*I’ll be back*”, in this statement, the speaker is going back later on in the future after going away for awhile.

2.2. Previous Research

In this part, the researcher discusses about the previous researches which related with this thesis. The researcher has found three journals which is related to this thesis. The first research is from James P. Donohue, titled “Using systemic functional linguistics in academic writing development: An example from film

studies. In his research, he concerns on the genre acts performed in the process of analyzing film. This study is different with this thesis because in this thesis the researcher takes the data in a speech which just consists of one person.

The second reaserch is from David Banks, titled “the interpersonal metafunction in French from a systemic functional perspective. In his research, David Banks concerns on interpersonal metafunction in French language. The result shows that the French clause is amenable to aMood + Residue analysis, and at the same time English clauses can be analysed in terms of Negotiator + Remainder. It would seem that Caffarel’s suggestion supplies an alternative way of looking at the interpersonal metafunction rather than a structure which distinguishes between English and French.

The third research is from Haviz Ahmad Bilal, titled “Analysis of Thank You Ma’am: Halliday’s Metafunction”. In his research, he concerns on all three metafunctions which are experiential, interpersonal, and textual metafunction. The result of this study is The analysis has shown that the examination of linguistics features of a text not only helps in understanding the structure of the text but also the deep meanings of it. Such an analysis reveals the hidden-self of the characters bringing out their intentions behind the utterances which may appear difficult to grasp for a second language learner.

The fourth research is from Houfei Yang, titled “The Interpersonal Metafunction of Barrack Obama’s Inaugural Address”. In her research, she concerns on interpersonal metafunction on Barrack Obama’s speech. The result shows that the plural forms of the first person are mostly used, declarative clauses have an absolute

advantage, and the medium and low modal auxiliaries appear most frequently in Obama's address.

The fifth research is from Moses Olusanya, titled "An Interpersonal Metafunction Analysis of Some Selected Political Advertisements in Some Nigerian Newspapers". In this research, Moses focuses interpersonal metafunction on advertisement in some Nigerian Newspapers. The result of the research shows that that the differences in the distribution of mood types in the adverts of the two political parties as well as their interpersonal meanings are determined by contextual factors such as the need to reflect the economic and socio-political context/situation of the country

Based on these three previous researches, it can be seen that there is similarity between this research with the previous research above. The similarity is the object of this research is about metafunction. This research also has difference with the previous researches above, the difference is this research concerns on all three types of metafunction and general function while, the previous researches just concerns on several types of metafunction. The data source is also different from these three researches which this research uses Donald Trump's speech as the data. It means that the result of this research is also different from the previous researches above.

2.3. Theoretical Framework

There must exist theoretical framework in every research as guidance for the researcher to do research. The researcher seeks theories related to systemic functional linguistics that support this research.

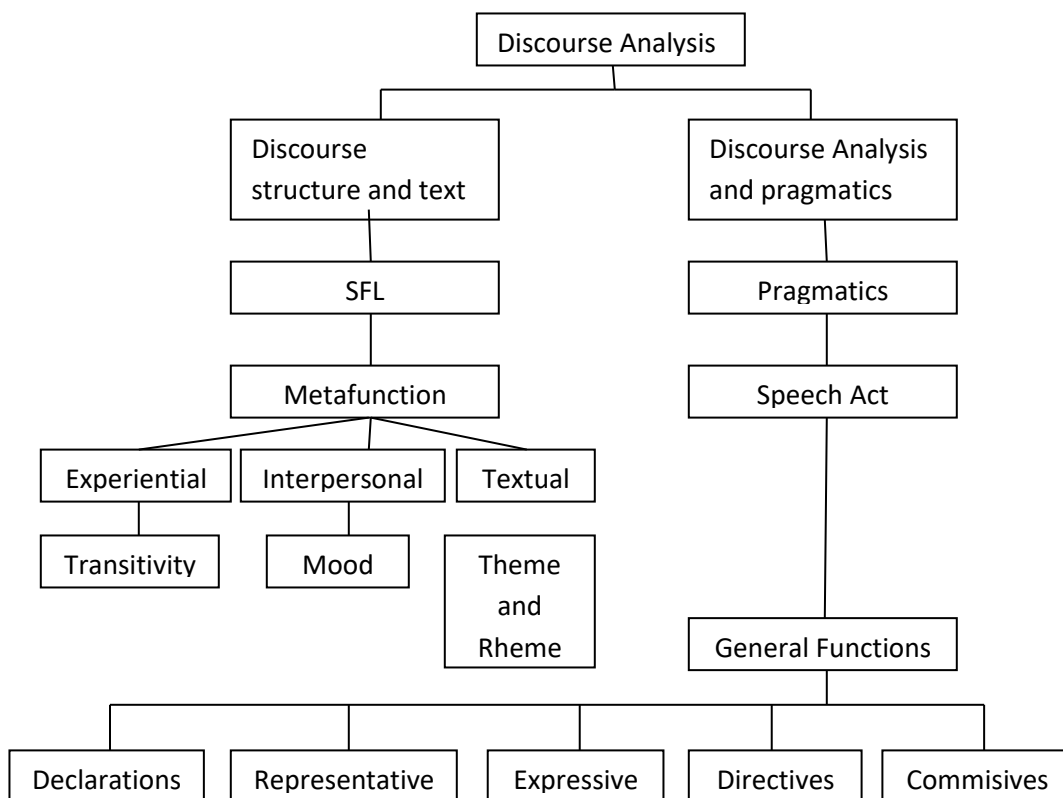


Figure 2.1. Theoretical Framework

In this theoretical framework, it can be seen that the root of this research come from Discourse Analysis. From Discourse Analysis comes down to Discourse structure and text and discourse analysis and pragmatics. In discourse structure and text comes down to metafunction, then metafunction is divided into three they are experiential,

interpersonal, and textual. Experiential is represented by transitivity, interpersonal by mood, and textual by theme and rheme.

For discourse analysis and pragmatics, it comes down to Pragmatics, then comes down to speech act, and at the last comes down to general functions. General function is divided into five they are declarations, representatives, expressive, directives, and commissives. All theories mentioned above are theories used to analyze the Donald Trump's speech. The speech will be analyzed in the IV chapter. Next, the chapter III discusses about method of research