



**LEARNERS' ABILITY TO NEGOTIATE MEANING IN
INTERACTIONAL CONVERSATION: THE CASE STUDY OF
THE CONVERSATION-3 (CV-3) CLASS OF LBPP-LIA
SEMARANG IMAM BONJOL**

a final project
submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of *Sarjana Pendidikam*
in English

by
Nuki Nurazizah
2201411088

**ENGLISH DEPARTMENT
FACULTY OF LANGUAGES AND ARTS
SEMARANG STATE UNIVERSITY
2017**

DECLARATION OF ORIGINALITY

I, Nuki Nurazizah hereby declare that this final project entitled *Learners' Ability to Negotiate Meaning in Interactional Conversation: The Case Study of the Conversation-3 (CV-3) Class of LBPP-LIA Semarang Imam Bonjol* is my own work and has not been submitted in any form for another degree or diploma at any university or other institute of tertiary education. Information derived from the published and unpublished work of others has been acknowledged in the text and a list of references is given in the bibliography.

Semarang, May 2017



Nuki Nurazizah

APPROVAL

This final project entitled *Learners' Ability to Negotiate Meaning in Interactional Conversation: The Case Study of the Conversation-3 (CV-3) Class of LBPP-LIA Semarang Imam Bonjol* has been approved by a board of examiners and officially verified by the Dean of the Faculty of Languages Arts on May 2017

Board of Examiners

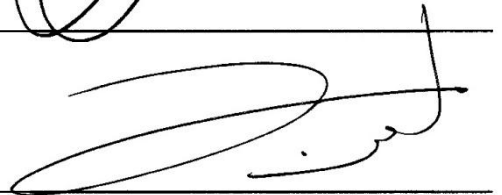
1. Chairman

Dr. Sri Rejeki Urip, M.Hum.
NIP. 19620221 19890120 01



2. Secretary

Arif Suryo Priyatmojo, S.Pd., M.Pd.
NIP. 19830610 20101210 02



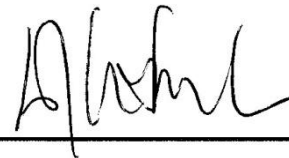
3. Examiner I

Sri Wuli Fitriati, S.Pd., M.Pd., Ph.D.
NIP. 19751026 20050120 01



4. Examiner II/ Advisor II

Dr. Djoko Sutopo, MSi.
NIP. 19540326 19860110 01



5. Examiner III/ Advisor I

Dra. Helena I. R. Agustien, M.A , Ph.D.
NIP. 19530816 19800320 02



Approved by

The Dean of the Faculty of Language Arts



Prof. Dr. Agus Nuryatin, M.Hum.

NIP. 19600803 19890110 01

MOTTO AND DEDICATION

Minds are like parachutes – they only function when open

(Walt Disney)

If you cannot explain it simply, you do not understand it well enough

(Albert Einstein)

To the love of my life, mom and dad

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

In the first instance, I would like to express my deepest gratitude and all praises to Allah SWT, Lord of the universe. Because of His love, protection and blessing, I am able to finish this final project.

My sincere appreciation is for Dra. Helena I. R. Agustien, M.A., Ph.D. and Dr. Djoko Sutopo, MSi., as my advisors. I have had a greatest opportunity to have advisors who always give me guidance. Their patience and advice help me to overcome difficulties and problems in my final project. They make me open my mind by reading a lot of sources so that this final project is not only good but also has advantage for the readers. I also give million thanks to all lecturers of English Department of Semarang State University for giving and sharing magnificent knowledge and precious lessons.

I'd like to show my grateful to my beloved parents, Dalhar and Nurjatmalichah, for their endless love. Their outstanding contribution is encouraging me in my study after all this time; I have finally turned the corner. They give me more strength than anybody else can do. Besides, they are supporting me emotionally and financially for everything I do and always being home for me.

I also have my girls squad, Katherin Permatasari Mumbunan, Natalie Fajar Rosesanti, Natasya Elisabeth Nainggolan, Okky Widya Arintasari, and Putri Mutia Choirina, to thank for being my mood booster and standing right behind me through this final project. And so it is with my special partner, Ery Priyo Prasetyo,

who calms me down and countenances me when I'm stuck with this final project. I am also thankful to all my friends in the English Department '11 especially to Intan Kris Amilia and Medyana Noor for the time to share and the unquestionable friendship ever. I would like to thanks people whose names cannot be mentioned one by one here for the help and support given to me.

Nuki Nurazizah

ABSTRACT

Nurazizah, Nuki. 2017. *Learners' Ability to Negotiate Meaning in Interactional Conversation: The Case Study of the Conversation-3 (CV-3) Class of LBPP-LIA Semarang Imam Bonjol*. Final Project. English Department, Faculty of Languages and Arts, Semarang State University. Advisor I: Dra. Helena I. R. Agustien, M.A., Ph.D. ; Advisor II: Dr. Djoko Sutopo, MSi.

Keywords: negotiation, negotiate meaning, conversation, interactional conversation

Negotiation is one kind of ways to interact with other people. Doing negotiation means that participants are able to reveal what they feel and think. The main purpose of this study is to investigate learners' ability to negotiate meaning in interactional conversation in the Conversation-3 (CV-3) Class of LBPP-LIA Semarang Imam Bonjol. Qualitative studies use a variety of research methods to collect data in order to obtain as many perspectives as possible on the phenomenon being researched. For this study, observation is done before recording. The observation is about the real condition of the class. Audio recording is the primary data. The data is transformed into transcription. After the transcript is made, the data is able to be analyzed. Results indicate that the learners mostly negotiate well. They produce statements in compliance with mood elements. They also have various kinds of mood types in the conversation. The ways that the students negotiate meaning in order to get the meaning across are countering the interlocutors' responses, responding the teacher by giving statement that exactly suit to the teacher's questions, and having equal turns reciprocally to convey their ideas in a conversation. In addition, there are also some grammatical problems hinder the negotiation of meaning. In order to compensate their language problems, the students use some strategies such using minor clause, speaking in their native language, and doing non-verbal communication. This analysis will give clear explanation about how interpersonal meaning work in a discourse especially negotiation of meaning in a conversation.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
DECLARATION OF ORIGINALITY	iii
ABSTRACT	viii
TABLE OF CONTENTS	ix
LIST OF TABLES	xii
LIST OF APPENDICES	xiv
CHAPTER	
1. INTRODUCTION	1
1.1 Background of the Study	1
1.2 Reasons of Choosing the Topic	3
1.3 Statement of Problem	6
1.4 Objectives of the Study	6
1.5 Significance of the Study	6
1.6 Definition of Terms	7
1.7 Outline of the Report	8
2. REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE	10
2.1 Previous Study	10
2.2 Theoretical Review	15
2.2.1 Negotiation	15
2.2.2 Interactional Conversation	17
2.2.3 Grammar	18
2.2.3.1 Traditional Grammar	20

2.2.3.2 Formal Grammar	20
2.2.3.3 Functional Grammar	21
2.2.4 Interpersonal Meaning	26
2.2.4.1 Mood	29
2.2.4.1.1 Elements of MOOD	31
2.2.4.1.2 Meaning of Subject and Finite	38
2.2.4.1.3 Residue	40
2.2.4.2 Polarity	50
2.2.4.3 Modality	50
2.2.5 Text and Context	53
2.3 Theoretical Framework	59
3. METHOD OF INVESTIGATION	61
3.1 Research Approach	61
3.2 Participants of Study	62
3.3 Data	62
3.4 Procedure of Data Collection	63
3.5 Data Analysis	65
3.6 Procedure of Data Analysis	66
3.7 Presentation and Interpretation of the Result	68
4. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS	69
4.1 Findings	69
4.1.1 How Student Negotiate Meaning	70
4.1.2 Grammatical Problems Hindering the Negotiation of Meanings	73

4.1.2.1 The MOOD Elements	75
4.1.2.2 Residue	77
4.1.2.3 Polarity	82
4.1.2.4 Modality	83
4.1.2.5 Declarative	84
4.1.2.6 Interrogative	87
4.1.2.7 Imperative	90
4.1.2.8 Elliptical Clauses	91
4.1.2.9 Minor Clauses	91
4.1.3 Strategies Used by Students to Compensate Language Problems	92
5. CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTION	97
5.1 Conclusion	97
5.2 Suggestion	99
REFERENCES	101
APPENDICES	104

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
2.1 Analysis from the Experiential Perspective	24
2.2 Analysis from the Interpersonal Perspective	25
2.3 Analysis from the Textual Perspective	25
2.4 Speech Functions and Responses	27
2.5 Speech Functions and Typical Mood of Clause	29
2.6 Mood Types and Examples	31
2.7 MOOD Elements	32
2.8 Tag Showing Subject and Finite	34
2.9 Finite Elements in Declarative	36
2.10 Finite in Verbal Element	36
2.11 Finite with the Auxiliary Verb and Verb	36
2.12 Finite Element in Simple Present Tense and Simple Past Tense	37
2.13 Predicator Element	41
2.14 Analysis of Clauses with <i>be</i> and <i>have</i>	42
2.15 Analysis of Complement	44
2.16 Analysis of Circumstantial Adjunct in Clauses	46
2.17 Analysis of Mood Adjunct in Clauses	48
2.18 Analysis of Textual Adjunct in Clauses	50
2.19 Modal Space	51
2.20 Technical vs. Everyday Language	55

2.21 Formal vs. Informal Language	56
2.22 Characteristics Features of Spoken and written Language	57

LIST OF APPENDIX

Appendix	Page
1. Text 1.1 Class Conversations	104

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

This chapter deals with introduction of the study which contains background of the study, reasons for choosing topic, statements of the problems, purposes of the study, significance of the study, definition of terms, and outline of the report.

1.1 Background of the Study

English is one of the foreign language subjects in Indonesia. According to my experiences, when I got my first English lesson in elementary school, I had difficulties in both making meaning of words and pronouncing words. In junior high school, I had my first English course in which I started to learn about using English in daily class conversation. Unfortunately, it did not work well because not only me but also some of my friends sometimes stopped talking. The teacher should give clues in order to guide students to continue their talks. When I joined practice field experience program, it also showed that some students find it difficult to understand English as their foreign language.

Students who do not understand yet about what people say in English will not be able to get people's intention. When it comes to students to take their turn in a conversation, they are just quiet because they run out of words or use their mother tongue to respond their counterpart. Eggins & Slade (1997: 6) argue that negotiation is very helpful in delivering our thoughts and opinions about our feelings. Negotiation also helps us in taking turns when we are in a conversation. Why the researcher uses this definition? Goal of conversation is not always to get

something. Conversation has aims both to build a connection between people and to keep conversation going. So, negotiation is a capability in responding to any statements to get the conversation going.

Brown & Yule (1983) suggest that conversation has two different objectives. It is about exchanging information and focusing on the things being exchanged. On the other hand, the conversation has a purpose in maintaining social relationships and personal attitudes. It relates to speakers' interaction. The first is called transactional, whereas the second is referred to as interactional.

This study is going to investigate the students' ability in negotiating meaning in casual conversation. Process of negotiation refers to a role among students in which they take turns and exchange turns in a conversation to convey their ideas so that the conversation keeps going. The conversation is followed by question and answer, giving opinion, or adding arguments in order to make the conversation alive.

Egins (2004; 150) says when someone has a role in a talk, he/ she assigns their counterparts to take turns. They put their counterparts into a role of responding if they want to interact with him/ her. Thus, she clearly illustrated the turns. In negotiation, it is not only about how the students give their ideas but also how they respond to other speakers.

Negotiation is one kind of ways in order to interact with other people. Doing negotiation means that participants are able to reveal what they feel and think. It gives them chance to share information. The information is that they have but their counterparts do not. Negotiation also helps parties to make a conversation

alive based on topics which they want to discuss. It is because negotiation needs two-way of talking, responds, arguments, and developed way of thinking. When each party could have a good deal and a talk about certain topics, they do not suddenly stop doing a talk in the middle of conversation.

Eggins & Slade (1997: 49) state that interpersonal meaning relates to role relation when we are doing conversation. Also, interpersonal shows participant's attitude to express their idea to each other. It is in line with this study which is going to analyze the negotiation of meaning in order to know the students' ability in negotiation meaning through mood and modality.

1.2 Reasons of Choosing the Topic

This study is going to investigate learners' ability to negotiate meaning based on the following reasons;

First, the researcher found that students suddenly stop a conversation. In negotiation, there is an issue or topic to be discussed in order to have an agreement and a good deal at the end of conversation. Those issues come from speaker's interests – in this case, the speaker is student. Sometimes, the topic given by the students do not interest their counterparts. The counterparts will feel bored with the conversation. Then, they'd prefer not to continue or respond the issue. It deals with logico-semantic relation that is about extension and projection. Both extension and projection can be used in how students give more contribution for the topic. Hence the students give their contribution as much as their interest on the topic given by their counterpart so that negotiation works well without any

stoppage. In addition, some students may dominate the talk and do not give other students chance to give response or add their ideas and arguments. If there is only one party involved in a conversation, it is not a negotiation of meaning.

Secondly, in order to keep negotiations going and more successful, there are some strategies that can be used by the students and they should be aware of them. Long & Clerk (2013) find, negotiation has five strategies dealing with different types of discussion and each strategy has its advantages and disadvantages. First, the competing strategy is the most adversarial. Negotiators see negotiation as competition that has winners and losers. This strategy has advantages. When negotiators need a fast negotiation and there are not any variables and disadvantages, relationship among negotiators might be broken and deadlock occurs. Second, the accommodative strategy is submissive. It is beneficial in maintaining relationship because negotiators are willing to give information and they put relationship as a top priority. Contrary to statement before, negotiation might lead to a less than ideal outcome. Thirdly, the avoiding strategy is a passive of aggression. Negotiators choose to avoid the situation in order to reach agreement or goal. It will work when negotiation is simple or trivial. But, the avoiding strategy has the opportunity to make anger for negotiators and to stop negotiation at a time. Fourth is the compromising strategy. It is good strategy to keep negotiation going because this strategy helps in keeping relationship strong. On the other hand, it is not the most optimal strategies in order to get agreement and good deal for both parties. The last is the collaborating strategy. Negotiators have brainstorming on how to create mutual negotiation and think outside of the

box in collaborating to have a solution. The collaborating is the most consuming and the most mentally exhausting strategies because it requires the most preparation. Preparation is the key behind a successful negotiation. The more knowledge students have about situation of their counterpart, the better position they will be in to negotiate. Good preparation allows negotiators to have good strategy and to make a quick decision or give an answer quickly in the negotiation. The preparation does not only about know yourself and you counterpart. Preparation also understands interests and preferences of the other parties. That information can be used as the ammunition to get in the discussion.

The last but not the least, acts of negotiation of meaning aim to keep conversation going that relate to learners' ungrammatical utterances. An utterance's meaning is composed of semantic meaning and pragmatic meaning. Semantic meaning refers to lexical meaning which can be found in a dictionary, whereas pragmatic meaning refers to meaning in understanding a speaker's intentions and interpreting a speaker's feelings and attitudes. Researcher takes the using of word "you" as a simple example. "You" in sentence *I love you* is grammatically correct. Its semantic meanings are used to refer to the person or people being spoken or written to and people in general. The pragmatic meaning helps students to recognize the different uses of the pronoun in context of language use. Negotiation of meaning helps learners to comprehend input by repeating or elaborating.

1.3 Statement of Problems

In order to focus on the study, I will limit the discussion of the final project by presenting these following problems:

- (1) How do students negotiate meanings to get the meanings across?
- (2) What grammatical problems hinder the negotiation of meanings?
- (3) What strategies do students use to compensate their language problems?

1.4 Objectives of the Study

In line with the problems above, the objectives of the study are:

- (1) to explain how students negotiate meanings to get the meanings across;
- (2) to explain grammatical problems hindering the negotiation of meanings.
- (3) to describe what strategies students use to compensate their language problems;

1.5 Significance of the Study

Theoretically, the result of analyzing in this study will be useful in order to understand deeply about the negotiation of meaning and reveal its elements for readers. Also, the following explanation will make the elements and their function in interpersonal meaning clear and easy to understand.

Practically, learners will increase their abilities on their speaking especially in negotiation of meaning in a conversation to deliver their meaning through grammar properly. For English teachers, this analyzing will be able to help teacher to understand what their students are talking about by negotiating that is the meaning. In addition, by analyzing the students' conversation, the researcher is able to understand about the students' abilities in expressing their meaning b

negotiating through mood and modality. It also can be said that researcher are able to know how it works on the students' conversation with both other students and teacher.

Pedagogically, this analysis will give clear explanation about how interpersonal meaning work in a discourse especially negotiation of meaning in a conversation. It will help teachers to explain it to their student. The readers also will know more about negotiation of meaning deeply by interpersonal meaning such as its function, elements and an explanation how it works in a conversation.

1.6 Definition of Terms

In this research, the three terms are used. Here are three definitions that explain each term.

Negotiation

Negotiation meaning means exchanging meaning in roles between two or more participants in order to convey ideas and give-receive information. In a conversation, there are some participants who take turn in talking so that there is an interaction between participants. Participants understand each purpose and mean by negotiate meaning. Negotiate meaning comes in informal interactions, which includes having a chat with friends, or on other word labeled as casual conversation. Casual conversation is the type of talk which is most relaxed, showing ourselves and constructing social reality.

Interactional Conversation

Conversational interaction is the primary means of communication in everyday life. It serves to coordinate joint activities among individuals. But conversation is itself a species of joint activity that gets coordinated in an ongoing, emergent manner by participants. Participants coordinate on who participates is an interaction, what roles participants will enact, actions to be performed, and their timing and location. They achieve mutual understanding, or common ground, on these aspects by signaling to each other their beliefs about the state of the conversation on a moment-by-moment basis.

Conversation Class

English conversation class can be practiced sessions for casual, informal, gossip, face-to-face and everyday conversation. It has no correction or interruption in a specific lesson review so that the conversation is able to be continued. The development of conversation skills is an important part of socialization. The development of conversation skills in a new language is a frequent focus of language teaching and learning.

1.7 Outline of the Report

There are five chapters in this study. Chapter 1 is Introduction. It gives general understanding about the study which explains about background of the study, reasons for choosing the topic, statements of the problems, objectives of the study, significance of the study, and outline of the report.

Next, Chapter 2 is Review of the Related Literature. This chapter is going to tell theoretical analysis dealing with the study from relevant sources such as

other report of the research, scientific journal, text book, encyclopedia, newspapers, dictionary, and websites that is concrete which is clarified in review of the previous studies, theoretical studies, and theoretical framework.

Then, Chapter 3 is Procedure of Investigation. It describes about the methods and procedure of investigation that reveals in object of the study, role of researcher, procedure of data collection, procedure of data analysis, and triangulations.

After that, Chapter 4 is Results of the Study and Discussion. This chapter presents description, explanation, comparison, discussion, analysis, and everything which relates to the study. On the other words, it is the answers of the questions in introduction on Chapter 1.

Chapter 5 is Conclusion which is about summary of the findings. There is also some suggestions.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

This study is going to analyze the learners' ability to negotiate meaning in interactional conversation. Negotiation is two-way conversation in exchanging good and services about information in order to keep the conversation going and solve problem as a solution. Chapter II provides review of the related study. It consists of previous studies, theoretical background of the study and theoretical framework. Having a better negotiation needs some steps such as assessing the situation, preparing interests and preference, asking and exchanging information, and packaging the talks with gestures.

2.1 Previous Studies

Studies about negotiation of meaning have been conducted several years. Those might help other researchers to enrich their studies and teachers to have appropriate ways in teaching English as a second language for their students.

First, Foster (1998) conducted a study about giving tasks in order to help learners to develop their L2 acquisition. It was to see what the student in the classroom did with the negotiation of meaning through language production, comprehensible input, and modified output.

This study used dyads or small groups for the subject of the study. Tasks also provided this study in order to get the data. Unfortunately, it was looked not

natural. This study should have a real situation in a class daily activity. So, learners did not know that their conversation be recorded. Also, they did not realize that it concerned with someone's research. The real setting should have research as natural as possible. In addition, many students in the small groups did not speak at all, many more in both dyads and small groups did not initiate any negotiated interaction, and very few students in either setting produced any modified utterances.

This study was using dyads and small groups of the students. It is because Foster believed that interacting in a small group was more effective than teacher-fronted activities. Foster said that tasks provided an opportunity both in producing the target language and modifying it by checking and clarifying problem utterances. Clarifying utterances made a comprehensible input for learners by requesting their interlocutor. Requests could be with a repetition, elaboration or simplification of the original utterances.

Foster's paper reported a classroom observation of the language produced by intermediate EFL students engaged in required and optional information exchange task in both dyads and small groups. The results no velar overall effect for task type or grouping, though there was discernible trend for dyads doing a two-way task to produce more negotiated interaction. Such positive results as were obtained seemed to be due to the disproportionate influence of a small number of the students, and so were not typical of the group as a whole.

Both Foster's study and the current study are focusing in negotiation of meaning. Both have learners who study English as a foreign language in a same

class level. The difference is that Foster uses tasks as the way to get students to improve their negotiation of meaning. On the other hand, the present study is analyzing the students' ability to negotiate meaning. In addition, the previous study is divided class into dyads and small group but this study have a class as a whole and let students discuss the topic given by the teacher on their own to show their ability in negotiation of meaning.

The second previous similar study was conducted by Yuliati (2013). This study aimed to reveal the role relationship among the teacher and the students of Senior High School 4 Semarang Year XII and the way the teacher negotiate her interpersonal meaning to the students.

This study pointed out that the authority of the teacher was still paramount and dominating issues. It was shown by the type of clauses used by the teacher. The teacher was very dominant because he/ she were the one who gave the information and at the same time put students as the one who received information. The students used declarative to respond their teacher because many students did not like interpersonal grammar or the complexity of the lexico-grammatical system. Unfortunately, this area of the clause is the one that expresses interpersonal meanings and establishes role relations or tenor. The findings clearly demonstrated that in the foreign language context lexico-grammar cannot be taken for granted. Foreign language learners need to notice the grammar and eventually acquire it. in addition, the use of subject, finite, and modality need to be implemented since the very beginning of the study. Many students

understand the concept of these but fail to use it in their speaking since they are not well exercised

When people are speaking, they do more than talk; they interact with language and use it to express interpersonal meanings. In fact, interpersonal meaning covers two areas. The first concerns the type of interaction which is taking place or commodity being exchange and the second concerns the way speakers take a position in their messages. Yuliati would like to see how the teacher negotiates the interpersonal meaning and negotiate interpersonally with the students. It is so important since this is the point of communication.

Yuliati's study would like to see how the teacher negotiated the interpersonal meaning with the students. This is so important to know how the teacher negotiated with the students. Yet, the study was not only focused on that point. It also showed the type of Mood used by the teacher in interacting with the students.

The difference between Yuliati's study and the present study is that Yuliati's focused on the role relationship among the teacher and the students realized interpersonally and the present study focuses on learners' ability to negotiate meaning in interactional conversation. Also, she used the students of Senior High School 4 Semarang as subject of the study. On the other hand, the current study is having the students' conversation from conversation class in the same level to be analyzed.

Another study, Cook (2015) conducted a research about a level of negotiation for meaning: requests for clarification in terms of communicative

intent that are not generated from linguistic problems or communication breakdowns. It also explores reasons for the emergence of this level of negotiation for meaning from the view of a language user.

Cook's study was about negotiation of meaning that was able to aid as a feedback in order to inference of speaker meaning. This could become one of negotiation strategies. Repetitions, clarification requests, confirmation checks and recasts are examples of negotiation feedback. Feedback of this type was helpful because it occurred when the non-native speaker was unsure whether he/ she had been understood.

With particular reference to the meaning of utterances, the paper discusses whether certain inputs are able to be resolved through negotiation for meaning. This paper explains that negotiation may provide the learner with a chance to acknowledge language use in terms of intentions, rather than solely focus on achieving comprehension. Also, this paper is for negotiation for meaning which is generated for reasons other than linguistic problems or breakdowns of communication. These reasons for this difference have been explored from the language user's point of view.

Key feature of feedback as used in this particular type of meaning negotiation have been discussed, including clarification requests, metalinguistic cues, and exemplification. This discussion may help in finding ways in order to encourage learners' communicative competence as part of their language development, including explicit pragmatics instruction. Additional research, however, will be necessary to further explore to complexities of negotiation for

meaning in relation to second language proficiency and cultural difference and awareness.

The previous study described negotiation of meaning as a feedback. It was different from current study. The current study would observe conversation class activity in order to know learner's ability to negotiate meaning.

2.2 Theoretical Review

The theoretical review gets down the experts' opinions related to the topic because each expert has their own points of view.

2.2.1 Negotiation

Negotiation is a dialogue between two or more people or parties. It is intended to reach an understanding, resolve point of difference, or gain advantage in outcome of a dialogue. Also, the negotiation aims to produce an agreement upon courses of action, to bargain for individual or collective advantage and to craft outcomes to satisfy various interests among the interactants involved in negotiation process. Negotiation is a process where each party involved negotiating tries to gain an advantage for themselves by the end of process. (Čulo & Skendrović, 2012:232)

According to Wells (1987), the negotiation of meaning is two or more people working together to resolve a problem by means of talking, thinking, and acting in collaboration. Not every instance of language use is so obviously undertaken to solve a problem in the external world. But communication itself is inherently problematic and so collaboration is always required – and attempt by each to understand the intention of the other and to respond in terms of that

understanding. Even an argument requires collaboration of a kind. As the saying goes: “It takes two to make a quarrel.” When people talk about conversation – of talking things over or of having a discussion – they often use expressions such as “exchanging meaning” or “conveying their meaning,” or – more formally – of “bringing minds into contact.” What seem to be implied by the use of such phrases is beliefs that, by speaking, a person can cause a listener to come to have the same thoughts as were in his or her own mind at the time of speaking. But, as will become clear from a moment’s reflection, this is altogether impossible.

Negotiation is communication, but it goes much deeper than the fluent, unbroken sequences of message exchange which characterize the usual concept of communication. In fact, it is when the even flow of communication is broken, or is on the verge of breaking down due to the lack of comprehensibility in a message, that we see negotiation arise. When interlocutors negotiate, they engage in any or all of the following activities: 1) they anticipate possible communication breakdowns, as they ask clarification questions and check each other's comprehension, 2) they identify communication breakdowns for each other, and 3) they repair them through signals and reformulations. If they aim for communication in a classroom but they do not need to anticipate, identify, or repair breakdowns, their negotiation is unnecessary. The negotiation processes are relevant and helpful for language learning is unlikely to occur. (Pica, 1996:241)

Negotiation is one kind of ways in order to interact with other people. Doing negotiation means participants are able to reveal what they feel and think, and gives them chance to share information that they have but their counterparts

do not. It also helps parties to make a conversation alive based on topics which they want to discuss because negotiation needs two-way of talking, responds, arguments, and developed way of thinking so that each parties could have a good deal and a talk about certain topic is not suddenly stopped in the middle of conversation. Negotiate meaning means exchanging meaning in roles between two or more participants in order to convey ideas and give-receive information. In a conversation, there are some participants who take turn in talking so that there is an interaction between participants. Participants understand each purpose and mean by negotiate meaning. Negotiate meaning comes in informal interactions, which includes having a chat with friends, or on other word labeled as casual conversation. Casual conversation is the type of talk which is most relaxed, showing ourselves and constructing social reality.

2.2.2 Interactional Conversation

Interactional talk can be defined as talk that is to do with social relationships, where the focus is more about how the speakers relate to each other, or interact, than what they are talking about (Edexcel, 2011)

According to Richard (2016), small talk and conversation are examples of interactional talk, which refers to communication that primarily serves the purpose of social interaction. Small talk consists of short exchanges that usually begin with a greeting, move to back-and-forth exchanges on non-controversial topics, such as the weekend, the weather, work, school, etc. and end with a fixed expression, such as 'nice to see you'. Such interactions are at times almost formulaic and often do not result in a real conversation. Those expressions create

a positive atmosphere and a comfort zone between people who might be total strangers. Topics that are appropriate in small talk may differ across cultures, since topics that are considered private in some cultures can be deemed to appropriate topics for small talk in other cultures. While seemingly a trivial aspect of speaking, small talk plays a very important role in social interaction. Learners who cannot manage small talk often find difficulties in having a conversation with others. They come away from social encounters feeling awkward. Also, they did not make a good impression, and, consequently, may avoid situations where small talk is required. Richards suggested some skills involved in mastering small talk, include:

- a. Acquiring fixed expressions and routines used in small talk
- b. Using formal or casual speech depending on the situation
- c. Developing fluency in making small talk around predictable topics
- d. Using opening and closing strategies
- e. Using back-channeling that involves the use of expressions such as *really*, *mm*, *is that right?* *yeah*; nodding, and using short rhetorical questions, such as *do you?* *are you?* or *did you?* Such actions and expressions reflect the role of an active, interested and supportive listener.

2.2.3 Grammar

Many people think of grammar as a rather boring school subject which has little use in real life. They may have come across the concept in the explanations of teachers as to what ‘good’ or ‘bad’ grammar. So, grammar is often associated in people’s mind with one of the following ideas: learning how to write ‘good

English', or learning how to speak 'properly'. None of these ideas about grammar is completely wrong, but they do not represent the whole picture. The term *grammar* refers to the rules according to how language works when it is used to communicate with other people. We cannot see this mechanism concretely because it is represented rather abstractly in the human mind but we know it is there because it works. One way of describing this mechanism is as a set of rules which allows us to put words together in certain ways but which do not allow others. At some level, speakers of a language must know these rules; otherwise they would not be able to put words together in a meaningful way.

According to Lock (1996), there are many ways of describing the grammar of a language. One approach sees grammar as a set of rules which specify all the possible grammatical structures of the language. In this approach, a clear distinction is usually made between grammatical sentences and ungrammatical sentences. The primary concern is with the *forms* of grammatical structures and their relationship to one another, rather than with their meanings or their uses in different contexts. Persons who study grammar are usually interested in this kind of description. They will often use for analysis of sentences that have been made up to illustrate different grammatical rules rather than drawn from real world sources.

Another approach looks at language first and foremost as a system of communication. Then, it analyzes grammar to discover how it is organized to allow speakers and writers to make and exchange meanings. Insisting on a clear distinction between grammatical and ungrammatical forms, the focus is usually on the feasibility of a particular communicative purpose in a particular context. The

primary concern is with the *functions* of structure and their constituents and with their meanings in context. A grammarian is likely to use data from authentic texts in specific contexts.

2.2.3.1 Traditional Grammar

Gerot & Wignell (1994:5) stated that traditional grammar aims to describe the grammar of standard English by comparing it with Latin. As such, it is perspective. Students learn the names of part of speech (nouns, verbs, prepositions, adverbs, adjectives), parse textbook sentences and learn to correct so-called bad grammar. Writers are taught, for example, not too start sentences with ‘and’, to make sure the subject agrees with the verb (time flies – not time fly – like an arrow), to say ‘I did it’ and not ‘I done it’.

Traditional grammar focuses on mechanism of producing correct sentences. In so doing, it has two main weaknesses. Firstly, the rules it prescribes are based on the language of a very small group of middle-class English speakers. It can be used to discriminate between the language of working class, immigrant and Aboriginal students. Secondly, the rules deal only with the most superficial aspects of writing. Following rules in no way guarantees that written communication will be affective, for the rules say nothing about purpose or intended audiences for writing.

2.2.3.2 Formal Grammar

A formal grammar is a set of rules for rewriting strings, along with a ‘start symbol’ from which rewriting starts. According to Gerot & Wignell (1994), formal grammars are used to describe the structure of individual sentences. Such grammars view language as a set of rules which allow or disallow certain sentence structures. Knowledge of these rules is seen as being carried around inside the

mind. The central question formal grammars attempt to address is: ‘How is this sentence structured?’ Meaning is typically shunted about between the too-hard boxes.

2.2.3.3 Functional Grammar

Lock (1996:10) stated that in order to explore the contribution to meaning of any unit of grammatical structure, it is necessary to consider its function in context. However, the word function has been used in a variety of ways in linguistics and in language teaching and it is necessary to clarify how the term is being used. In the approach to language teaching usually called functional language teaching, functions usually refer to things such as asking for directions, describing people and places, talking about the past, and so on. In contrast, functions refer to the possible uses of language.

Function in this sense is not a very useful starting point for the investigation of grammar. First, there is no current classification list of the total number of such functions. Second, it is not helpful to assign just one function to each sentence or each utterance. As we have seen, each clause simultaneously embodies three kinds of meaning – experiential, interpersonal, and textual – and they all need to be taken into account to understand how clause function in context

Finally, such lists of the functional uses of language are external to language, in the sense that they are arrived at by observing the different things people do with language and then trying to match these with different linguistic expressions. However, in order to explore grammar as a communicative resource,

it is more useful to start from the other end, in other words to investigate how language itself is organized to enable speakers to express different kinds of meaning – experiential, interpersonal, and textual. The first step is trying to interpret the functions of grammatical structures and their constituents. Functions in this sense are sometimes called grammatical functions.

Functional grammars see language as a resource for making meaning. These grammars attempt to describe language in actual use and so focus on texts and their contexts. They are concerned not only with the structures but also with how those structures construct meaning (Gerot & Wignell, (1994:6)

Thompson (1996: 26) said that in functional approaches to grammar, we essentially equate meaning with function. This raises the question of how we can frame a grammatical description which includes an explanation of the meanings of whole messages rather than just individual words. These are probably the kinds of differences in meaning that spring most easily to mind: different things and events in the world. These differences are obviously very important and need to be accounted for in the grammar. The reason why he has appeared to downplay them is that they are sometimes taken to represent the only, or at least the dominant, kind of meaning that needs to be considered; but within Functional Grammar, they represent only one of three broad types of meanings that are recognized. It is important to understand that each of three types contributes equally to the meaning of the message as a whole. It is also important to understand that each of three types of meaning is typically expressed by different aspects of the wording of the clause. If we only take account of the different things or events referred to, we end up with an impoverished one-dimensional view of meaning.

According to Thompson (1996), he summarized the three kinds of meanings that we have so far identified in an informal ways as follows:

- a. We use language to talk about our experience of the world, including the worlds in our own minds, to describe events and states and the entities involved in them.
- b. We also use language to interact with other people, to establish and maintain relations with them, to influence their behavior, to express our own view point on things in the world, and to elicit or exchange theirs.
- c. Finally, in using language, we organize our messages in ways which indicate how they fit in with the other messages around them and with the wider context in which we are talking or writing.

(1) Ideational Meaning

Ideational meanings are meaning about phenomenon – about things (living and non-living, abstract and concrete), about goings on (what the things are or do) and the circumstances surrounding these happenings and doings. These meanings are realized in wordings through Participants, Processes and Circumstances. Meanings of this kind are most centrally influenced by the field of discourse (Gerot and Wignell. 1994).

Ideational meanings are about things and idea. The following table shows the analysis of the clause in experiential terms.

Who	's taken	her calculator?
<i>Actor</i>	<i>Process</i>	<i>Goal</i>

Table 2.1 Analysis from the experiential perspective (Thompson, 1996:30)

Thompson (1996) stated that to label 'Who' as *Actor*, for example, indicates that it has the function of expressing the (unknown) 'doer' of the action expressed in the process: in other words, we are looking at the clause from the experiential perspective of how entities and events in the world are referred to (in crude terms, who did what to whom and in what circumstances).

(2) Interpersonal Meaning

Interpersonal meanings are meanings which express a speaker's attitudes and judgments. The meanings are realized in wordings through what is called mood and modality. Meanings of this kind are most centrally influenced by tenor and discourse (Gerot & Wignell, 1994).

Interpersonal meanings are through which social relations are created and maintained. According to Thompson (1996), when we say that 'Who' is *Subject*, we are looking at the clause from the interpersonal perspective of how the speaker negotiates meanings with the listener. It can be seen on the table as follows

Who	's	taken	her calculator?
<i>Subject</i>	<i>Finite</i>	<i>Predicator</i>	<i>Complement</i>

Table 2.2 Analysis from the interpersonal perspective (Thompson, 1996: 31)

(3) Textual Meaning

Textual meanings express the relation of language to its environment, including both the verbal environment - what has been said or written before (co-text) and the non-verbal, situational environment (context). These meanings are realized through patterns of theme and cohesion. Textual meanings are most centrally influenced by mode of discourse (Gerot & Wignell, 1994).

Textual meanings make language contextually and co-textually relevant through cohesion.

Who	's taken her calculator?
<i>Theme</i>	<i>Rheme</i>

Table 2.3 Analysis from the textual perspective (Thompson, 1996: 31)

Thompson (1996) found that to say that 'Who' is *Theme* which means we are looking at the clause from the textual perspective of how the speaker orders the various groups and phrases in the clause, in particular, which constituent is chosen as the starting-point for the message.

2.2.4 Interpersonal Meaning

Lock's (1996) study found the following: Interpersonal meaning has to do with the ways in which we act upon one another through language – giving and requesting information, getting people to do things, and offering to do things ourselves – and the ways in which we express our judgments and attitudes – about such things as likelihood, necessity, and desirability. (p.9)

Egins (1994) stated that the way that engaging in argument allows the participants in to clarify their relationships with each other is just one specific demonstration of the general function of dialogue: that dialogue is the means language gives us for expressing interpersonal meaning about roles and attitudes. Being able to take part in dialogue, then, means being able to negotiate the exchange of interpersonal meanings, being able to realize social relationships with other language users.

Halliday (1985) pointed out that whenever we use language to interact, 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 next. To establish this relationship we take turns at speaking, we take on different speech roles in exchange. Crossing the basic differences between giving and demanding is another distinction and fundamentalism and relates to the nature of the commodity being exchanged. This may be either goods-&-services or information. If you say something to me with the aim of getting me to do something for you or to give you some object, the exchange commodity is strictly non-verbal: what is being demanded is an object or an action, and language is

brought in to help the process along. This is an exchange of goods-&-services. But if you say something to me with the aim of getting me to tell you something, what is being demanded is information: language is the end as well as the means, and the only answer expected is a verbal one. This is an exchange of information. These two variables, when taken together, define the four primary speech functions of offer, command, statement, and question. These, in turn, are matched by a set of desired responses: accepting an offer, carry out a command, acknowledging a statement and answering a question.

		initiation	expected response	discretionary alternative
Give	Goods-&-services	Offer	acceptance	Rejection
Demand		Command	Undertaking	Refusal
Give	Information	Statement	Acknowledgement	Contradiction
demand		question	Answer	Disclaimer

Table 2.4 Speech functions and responses (Halliday, 1985: 69)

When language is used to exchange information, the clause takes on the form of a proposition – refers to statement or question. The clause not only becomes something that can be argued about, affirmed, or denied, but also also doubted, contradicted, insisted on, accepted with reservation, qualified, tempered, regretted. But we cannot use the term ‘proposition’ to refer to all the functions of the clause as an interactive event, because this would exclude the exchange of goods-&-services, the entire range of offers and commands. Unlike statements and questions, these are not propositions; they cannot be affirmed or denied. Yet

they are no less significant than statements and questions; and, as already noted, they take priority in the ontogenetic development of language.

Interaction is motivated by interpersonal goals which are people chat not just to kill time but rather to clarify and extend the interpersonal ties that have brought them together. Also, these interpersonal meaning can reveal tensions between equality and difference, as interactants enact and constructs relations of power through talk. Eggins & Slade (1997) found in their study about a family group consist of Mom, Dad, and university-aged son that clues to the different social roles can be found in the linguistic choices interactants make. There is an obvious generational difference between the son on the other hand, and the parents on the other. This is suggested by the son's use of colloquial language and intensifying words and the parents' use of more standard, more restrained spoken forms. The ironic teasing by Dad is a clue to his patriarchal position. One indication of gender differences between intractants is the non-verbal behaviors displayed by Dan and son – belching and yawning – which are not matched by Mom and may also have noticed that Mom is more frequently interrupted and she speaks in the most careful or standard way of all three inreactantss. The most significant example of the unevenness of the talk is found in the choice of clause types. While the parents produce a large number of interrogative clauses, the son produces an overwhelming number of declarative clauses. To explore whether this is in fact a pattern rather than an accidental association, we would need to analyze other examples of casual conversation as well. However, in order to undertake such investigations we need to be able to identify reliably features of spoken

discourse such as interrogatives and declaratives, and the various other clause types which are possible in English conversation. We would then qualify the relative proportions of each clause type in a text.

2.2.4.1 Mood

According to Eggin & Slade (1997), mood refers to patterns of clause type, such as interrogative, imperative and declarative. These patterns have to do with the presence and configuration of certain negotiable element of clause structure. Differences between interrogatives and declaratives and other clause types are referred to technically as differences in mood. Each mood type involves a different configuration of a set of basic clause constituents. Full English clauses that are clauses which have not had any elements left out or ellipse, generally consist of two pivotal constituents: a subject and a finite.

Speech function	Typical mood in clause
statement	Declarative Mood
Question	Interrogative Mood
Command	Imperative Mood
Offer	Modulated interrogative Mood
Answer	Elliptical declarative Mood
Acknowledgement	Elliptical declarative Mood
Accept	Minor clause
Compliance	Minor clause

Table 2.5 Speech functions and typical mood of clause (Eggin, 1994: 153)

Based on Eggins (1994), having a basic picture of how dialogue works, we need to ask how this relates to the clause we produce as we interact. In other words, what grammatical structure realizes these meaning? what is particularly interesting to us about these different speech function classes is that we can recognize correlation between the semantic choice of speech function and the grammatical structure which is typically chosen to encode. If you wish to make a statement, you will typically use a clause of a particular structure: a declarative clause (e.g: *It's by Henry James* – statement). If you wish to make a command, you will use an imperative (e.g: *Here, take it!* – command). If you wish to offer something, you are likely to use a “would ... like” interrogative or what we call a modulated interrogative (e.g: *Would you like to borrow my copy?* – offer). And finally, if you wish to ask a question, you will of course use the kind of clause we call an interrogative (e.g: *Have you ever read “The Bostonians”?* – question). There is also a correlation between the different structure of an initiating moved and the structure of a responding move. Most initiating moves are long while most responding moves are short. Responding moves are short because they typically involve some kind of abbreviation or ellipsis or are what we call minor clauses.

Mood type	Example
Declarative: full	<i>He plays the double-bass</i>
Declarative: elliptical	<i>This year</i>
Imperative: full	<i>Look at the man walking up there</i>
Imperative: elliptical	<i>Look!</i>

Wh-interrogative: full	<i>When are you gonna do ... all your odds and sods subject?</i>
Wh-interrogative: elliptical	<i>What?</i>
Polar interrogative: full	<i>Yeah, but that IS it?</i>
Polar interrogative: elliptical	<i>Does he?</i>
Exclamative: full	<i>What rubbish you talk, Brad!</i>
Exclamative: elliptical	<i>What rubbish!</i>
Minor	<i>Right</i>

Table 2.6 Mood type and example (Eggins & Slade, 1997: 75)

2.2.4.1.1 Elements of Mood

Eggins (1994), in her study, she gave an extract from one excerpt as the following:

Di : You can't do that these days.

Si : Can't they?

In these excerpts, the first speaker's clause makes a statement, which is then argued by the second speaker, with the first speaker sometimes coming back again. When we ask how these arguments are carried forward, we can see that the clause appears to have two components. There is one component that gets bandied about, tossed back and forth, to keep the argument going what we call the mood element of the clause; while the second part of the clause disappears one the argument is underway.

Also, Thompson (1996) gave one very distinctive feature of English is the kind of responses illustrated below:

- A : They've all gone.
 B : Have they?
 A : I thought very highly of him.
 B : So you did, didn't you?

It shows that part of the first speaker's message is being picked up and re-used and sometimes slightly adapted in order to keep the exchange going. However, it is not just any part: in each case, the core of the response consists of the same two elements. One is Subject (e.g. *they* in the first example) and the other is traditionally called an auxiliary verb (e.g. *have* in the same example); but this does not identify its function precisely enough, and in our approach the term Finite is used instead. Together, the Subject and Finite make up a component of the clause that is called the Mood.

I didn't
 Who did
 Michael did

subject	finite
Mood	

Table 2.7 Mood Element

a. Subject

The Subject, when it first appears, may be any nominal group. If it is a personal pronoun, it is simply repeated each time. If it is anything else, the *the duke*, then after the first occurrence it is replaced by the personal

pronoun corresponding to it. So *the duke* becomes *he*, *my aunt* becomes *she*, *the teapot* becomes *it* (Halliday, 1985: 72).

Not all nominal groups consist of only a single word. With longer nominal groups (e.g. *one of them*), it is the entire nominal group which is Subject: i.e. the head noun and all the modifying and qualifying words which occur before and after it. One test for the scope of the nominal group involves trying to rephrase the clause using one of the subject pronouns (I, you, he/ she/ it, we, they). All the elements are categorized by the pronouns which have part of the same nominal group. For example, *one of them is alright* could be changed to *it is alright*, which indicates that the entire nominal group *one of them* is the Subject of the clause (Eggins and Slade, 1997: 76).

Most of the Subjects in the examples above are simple but the nominal group functioning as Subject may be more complex than the previous especially in a certain genres such academic articles. For example, there may be a complex group consisting of more than one constituent functioning together as Subject (e.i. *The loss of his father's fortune and his father's subsequent death, along with the general decline in the family's circumstances*, decrease the number of servants in the household [don't they?]). The nominal group may include a postmodifying embedded clause (i.e. *Those who read these stories in the order in which they are printed* will observe the growing proliferation of his style [won't they?]). The Subject function may also be performed

by an embedded clause on its own, functioning as the equivalent of a nominal group (i.e. *To remark of Brooksmith that 'the scaffolding of this tale rests upon the existence of a class-stratified society'* is silli [isn't it?]) (Thompson, 1996: 43).

The Subject, in a declarative clause, is that element which is picked up by the pronoun in the tag. So in order to locate the Subject, add a tag if one is not already present and see what element is taken up. For example, *that teapot was given to your aunt*: here the tag would be *wasn't it?* – we cannot add *wasn't she?*. On the other hand with *that teapot your aunt got from the duke* the tag would be *didn't she?*; we cannot say *didn't he?* Or *wasn't it* (Halliday, 1985: 73).

She	would	shopping in the town	wasn't	she?
Ted	wouldn't	have married her	[would	he?]
Running a hotel	isn't	as easy as it might look	[is	it?]
These two quotes	[<i>present</i>]	exemplify many of the points	[don't	they?]
Subject	Finite		F	S

Table 2.8 Tag showing Subject and Finite (Thompson, 1996: 42)

b. Finite

According to Eggins & Slade (1997), the Finite expresses the process part of the clause that makes it possible to argue about the Subject participant. The Finite is always a verbal element and it is 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 the Subject is engaged in. Verbal groups in clauses may consist of one word only (i.e. He plays the double-bass). They may also consist of more than one word (i.e. They mightn't have had a degree in Biology or anything). Where the verbal group consists of more than one word, the Finite is always and only the first element in this verbal group, and corresponds to what is traditionally called the 'axially verb'. Where the verbal group consists of only one word (as in the case in the simple present or simple past tenses, i.e. *eats, ate*), then the Finite is realized in that single word.

It is in line with Eggins (1994). She stated that where the verbal part of the clause consist of two or more words (e.g. *was reading, will be leaving, has finished, etc.*), you will have no difficulty identifying the Finite: it will always be the first of these verbal elements (*was, will, has*), as the tag test will clearly show you:

I learnt the English language from this guy (didn't I?)

He knew nothing about physics (did he?)

The sentence goes on for a page and a half (doesn't it?)

Where does the "did" in the tag come from? What happens is that with verbs in the simple present or simple past declarative, the Finite element gets fused with another element known as Predicator. In earlier forms of

English, and still emphatic forms of contemporary English, the “did” used to be present in the main part of the clause as well as in the tag

<i>I</i>	<i>did</i>	<i>learn the English language from this guy</i>	<i>didn't</i>	<i>I</i>
Subject	Finite		Finite	Subject

Table 2.9 Finite elements in declarative (Eggins, 1994: 158)

In unemphatic modern English, the *did* Finite has become fused in with the content part of the verb. But technically it is still “there” in the clause, as we see when we add the tag. When the tag test shows you that *did* is the Finite, you simply write Finite under the first half of verbal element as follows:

I	learnt	the English language	from this guy
Subject	Finite		

Table 2.10 Finite of verbal element (Eggins, 1994: 158)

With the verbs to be and to have (in the sense of “possess”), the tag test will show the Finite. We will see below that with these two cases there is no need to write Finite only half way under the verb, as there is no other verbal constituent to be labeled:

<i>He</i>	<i>wasn't</i>	<i>a physicist</i>	<i>(was</i>	<i>he?)</i>
<i>He</i>	<i>has</i>	<i>a copy of "The Bostonians"</i>	<i>(hasn't</i>	<i>he?)</i>
Subject	Finite		(Finite	Subject)

Table 2.11 Finite with the auxiliary verb and verb (Eggins: 1994: 159)

Based on Halliday (1985), the Finite element is one of a small number of verbal operators expressing tenses (e.g. *is, has*) or modality (e.g. *can, must*). Note, however, that in some instances the Finite element and the lexical verb are fused into a single word (e.g. *loves*). This happens when the verb is in simple past or simple present (tense), active (voice), positive (polarity), and neutral (contrast); we say *gave*, not *giver*; *give(s)* not *do(es) give*.

tense	other categories	in body of clause	in tag
simple present	negative (polarity)	(he) doesn't love	Does (he)?
	contrastive (contrast)	(he) does love	Doesn't (he)?
	passive (voice)	(she) is loved	isn't (she)?
	none of above (positive, neutral, active)	(he) loves ['present' + love]	doesn't (he)?
simple past	negative (polarity)	(he) didn't give	did (he)?
	contrastive (contrast)	(he) did give	didn't (he)?
	passive (voice)	(it) was given	wasn't (it)?
	none of above Positive, neutral, active)	(he) gave ['past' + give]	didn't (he)?

Table 2.12 Finite elements in simple

These fused tense forms are in fact the two most common forms of the English verb. When one of these occurs, the Finite *did, do(es)* will then make its appearance in the subsequent tags and responses (e.g. *He*

gave it away, didn't he? Yes, he did). But it is already lurking in the verb as a systemic feature 'past' or 'present', and is explicit in the negative and contrastive forms.

In addition, Thompson (1996) stated that the Finite is drawn from a small number of verbal operators. These can be divided into two groups: those which express tense (e.g. *be, have* and *do*, plus *be* as the marker of passive voice) and those which express modality (e.g. *can, may, could, might, must, will, would, shall, should, ought t*). 'Will' and 'would' can be included in the tense as well as the modality group, because of their particular uses in signaling the future. There are some less central operators (e.g. *used* for tense and *have to* and *needn't* for modality; and a few marginal ones that end to be restricted to semi-idiomatic uses (e.g. *dare* is Finite in *How dare you talk to me like that*). If present, the negative marker *n't* is included as part of the Finite.

2.2.4.1.2 Meaning of Subject and Finite

The Subject and Finite together are essential constituents of a clause from the point of view of dialogue given by Eggins & Slade (1997) as illustrated in the following:

Brad : Look. See that guy. He plays the double-bass

Fran : Does he?

In his first turn, Brad sets up the Subject *he* and the Finite *plays*. Fran accepts Brad's terms for discussion when she reacts with *Does he?*. Fran could also have responded to Brad's proposition by disagreeing (e.g. *No he doesn't*) but again her

disagreement would be clearly anchored in the terms of his proposition. However, if Brad had begun the interaction by just saying *Plays*, then negotiation would have been problematic. Before anyone could have argued about *playing* or *not playing* yhrt would have needed to establish who plays (e.g. the Subject). Similar problems would have arisen if Brad had begun by saying just *He*. Until this Subject become anchored in a Finite, negotiation could not have proceeded intelligibly. Hence we can say that together the Subject and Finite constitute nub – core – of the proposition. In order to interact, we need both something to argue about, and some way in which to argue.

Thompson (1996) stated that the Subject expresses the entity that the speaker wants to make responsible for the validity of the proposition being advanced in the clause. The listener can confirm, reject, query or qualify the validity by repeating or amending the Finite, but the Subject must remain the same: if that is altered, the exchange has moved on to a new proposition. In this sense, the clause is about the Subject from the interpersonal perspective. It is because negotiation is done through the Subject and Finite, and is then taken as given for the rest of the clause, that the Mood is identified as a separate functional element in the clause. The importance and the relative detachability of the Mood within the meaning of the clause in English are shown by the fact that it can be used as a counter for the whole proposition in responses, demands for acceptance of validity through tags, and so on. In interpersonal terms, the Mood is the core of the exchange: the rest of the clause merely fills in the details.

2.2.4.1.3 Residue

The components of the mood element that enable it to carry the nub of the proposition are revealed by examining responding moves in which the responder ellipses the residue (Eggins, 1994: 155).

The reminder of the clause we shall call the Residue. It has sometimes been labelled 'Proposition', but this term is also not very appropriate; partly because, as has been mentioned, the concept of proposition applies only to the exchange of information, not to the exchange of goods-&-services, and partly because, even in the exchange of information, if anything it is the Mood element that embodies the proposition rather than the reminder of the clause. We shall return to the structure of the Residue below (Halliday, 1985: 74).

a. Predicator

According to Eggins (1994), the Predicator is the lexical or content part of the verbal group. The definition of the Predicator is that it fills the role of specifying the actual event, action, process being discussed. The Predicator is identified as being all the verbal elements of the clause after the single Finite element. In analyzing clauses, we align the Finite with one half of the verb, while the other half of the verb, which is carrying the lexical meaning, is labeled as Predicator.

<i>He</i>	<i>knew</i>		<i>nothing about physics</i>
<i>I</i>	<i>am</i>	<i>reading</i>	<i>“The Bohemians”</i>
Subject	Finite	Predicator	
MOOD		RESIDUE	

Table 2.13 Predicator elements (Eggins, 1994: 161)

Halliday (1985) points out that there are two verbs, *be* and *have*, where strictly speaking the simple past and simple present form consist of Finite element only, rather than of a fusion of Finite with Predicator. This is shown by the 0)negatives (e.g. the negative of *is*, *was* is *isn't*, *wasn't* not *doesn't be*, *didn't be*). The pattern with *have* varies with the dialect: some speakers treat *have* as ‘possess’ just like *have* as ‘take’. On the other hand, the Predicator associated with these verbs appears immediately you use the verbs in a different Mood – if you turn them into interrogatives – or if you use the continuous tense.

<i>He</i>	<i>is/was</i>	<i>a physicist</i>	
<i>Simon</i>	<i>has/had</i>	<i>a copy of “The Bohemians”</i>	
Subject	Finite		
MOOD		RESIDUE	

<i>He</i>	<i>was</i>	<i>being</i>	<i>a physicist</i>
Subject	Finite	Predicator	
MOOD		RESIDUE	

<i>Mary</i>	<i>had</i>		<i>a little lamb</i>	<i>Hadn't</i>	<i>she</i>
Subject	'(past) Finite	'have' Predicator	Complement	Finite	Subject
MOOD		RESIDUE		Mood tag	

'as a pet'

<i>Mary</i>	<i>had</i>		<i>a little lamb</i>	<i>Hadn't</i>	<i>she</i>
Subject	'(past) Finite	'have' Predicator	Complement	Finite	Subject
MOOD		RESIDUE		Mood tag	

'for her dinner'

Table 2.14 Analysis of clauses with *be* and *have* (Eggins, 1994: 162 and Halliday, 1985: 80)

He (Halliday, 1985) also stated that the Predicator has four functions in the clause. (i) It specifies time reference other than reference to the time of speech event, it adds time secondary tense. (ii) It specifies various other aspects and phases like *seeming*, *trying*, *hoping*, which color the verbal process without changing its experiential meaning. (iii) It specifies the voice: active or passive. (iv) It specifies the process whether action, event, mental process or relation that is predicated of the Subject. For example, the verbal group *has been trying to be heard* where the Predicator is *been trying to be heard* expresses (i) a complex secondary tense, *been + ing*; (ii) a conative phase, *try + to*; (iii) passive voice, *be + -d*; (iv) the mental process, *hear*.

b. Complement

Egins (1994) found that a Complement is defined as a non-essential participant in the clause, a participant somehow effected by the main argument of the preposition. It is identified as an element within the Residue that has the potential of being Subject but is not. A Complement can get to be Subject through the process of passivizing the clause.

<i>Henry James</i>	<i>wrote</i>		<i>“The Bostonians”</i>
Subject	Finite	Predicator	Complement
MOOD		RESIDUE	

<i>“The Bostonians”</i>	<i>was</i>	<i>written</i>	<i>by Henry James</i>
Subject	Finite	Predicator	Complement
MOOD		RESIDUE	

Clauses in which the Predicator is ‘give’ or a synonym may contain two

Complements:

<i>Simon</i>	<i>gave</i>		<i>George</i>	<i>a book</i>
Subject	Finite	Predicator	Complement	Complement
MOOD		RESIDUE		

The passive test identifies both elements as a Complements, as either could become Subject

<i>George</i>	<i>was</i>	<i>given</i>	<i>a book</i>	<i>by Simon</i>
Subject	Finite	Predicator	Complement	
MOOD		RESIDUE		

<i>A book</i>	<i>was</i>	<i>given</i>	<i>to George</i>	<i>by Simon</i>
Subject	Finite	Predicator	Complement	
MOOD		RESIDUE		

The Complement is typically a nominal group, as in all the examples given above. It may at times be a whole clause, in which case we have an example of embedding:

<i>He</i>	<i>is</i>	<i>a guy that can write</i>
Subject	Finite	Complement
MOOD		RESIDUE

Table 2.15 Analysis of Complement (Eggins, 1994: 164)

In addition, Eggins & Slade (1997) gave definition the Complement as a participant which is somehow implicated in the proportion, but is not the pivotal participant. While the passive test works to identify all Complements which involve a head noun, there are two situations in which the second nominal group is still a Complement but where the test does not work. The first case is with the verb *to be* (e.g. *He is a funny bastard*; since there is no passive form of the verb *to be*, it is not

possible to make a direct passive of such a clause so we cannot say *A funny bastard is beed by him*). The second case concerns related *be* clauses (e.g. *He is funny* and *she is insane*; in these clauses, the second nominal group does not consist of a head noun but instead contains an adjective as the main element). Adjective cannot be made Subject but are still considered to be Complements since they are nominal group (e.g. *He is a funny bastard* or *she is an insane woman*).

c. Adjunct

Eggins & Slade (1994) stated that Adjuncts can be defined as clause elements which contribute some additional (but non-essential) information to the clause. They can be identified as elements which do not have the potential to become Subject because they are not nominal elements; they are adverbial or prepositional. We can differentiate between three broad classes of Adjuncts, according to whether their contribution to the clause is principally experiential, interpersonal or textual. The different classes of Adjuncts are accorded different positions in the Mood or Residue.

1) Circumstantial Adjunct

Circumstantial Adjuncts add experiential content to the clause by expressing some circumstance relating to the process represented in the clause. Circumstantial meanings may refer to time (*when*), place (*where*), cause (*why*), matter (*about what*), accompaniment (*with whom*), beneficiary (*to whom*), agent (*by*

whom). As Circumstantial Adjuncts do not contribute meaning which is part of the arguable nub of the preposition, although they are always available for querying, they are treated as part of the Residue of the clause and should be analyzed in the Residue box.

TIME: *when*

<i>They</i>	<i>can't</i>	<i>do</i>	<i>that</i>	<i>these days</i>
Subject	Finite: mod/ negative	Predicator	Complement	Adjunct: circumstantial
MOOD		RESIDUE		

CAUSE: *what for*

<i>You</i>	<i>read</i>		<i>books</i>	<i>for fun</i>
Subject	Finite	Predicator	Complement	Adjunct: circumstantial
MOOD		RESIDUE		

MATTER: *of what, about what*

<i>Henry James</i>	<i>writes</i>		<i>about women</i>
Subject	Finite	Predicator	Adjunct: circumstantial
MOOD		RESIDUE	

AGENT: *by whom* (can become Subject provided “by” disappears)

<i>George</i>	<i>was</i>	<i>read</i>	<i>“The Bostonians”</i>	<i>by Simon</i>
Subject	Finite	Predicator	Complement	Adjunct: circumstantial
MOOD		RESIDUE		

Table 2.16 Analysis of Circumstantial Adjunct in clauses
(Egins, 1994: 166)

2) Modal Adjunct

Modal Adjuncts are clause constituents which add interpersonal meaning to the clause. They add meanings which are somehow connected to the creation and maintenance of the dialogue. Mood Adjunct and Polarity Adjunct act directly on the Mood element (by adding some qualification to the Subject or Finite) while Comment Adjunct and Vocative Adjunct do not impact directly on the Mood constituent of the clause but effect the clause as a whole. (i) Mood Adjuncts expressing probability meanings are closely related to the Modal Operators and become classified as expression of probability (*perhaps, maybe, probably*), usuality (*sometimes, usually*), intensification or minimization (*really, absolutely, just, somewhat*), presumption (*evidently, presumably, obviously*), inclination (*happily, willingly*). (ii) Polarity Adjuncts have function as *yes* and *no* and conversational alternatives such *yea, yep, na, nope*, etc. (iii) Comment Adjuncts function to express an assessment about the clause as a whole which typically occur in clause initial position after the Subject and realized by adverbs; comment Adjuncts are considered interpersonal elements in the clause since they add an expression of attitude and evaluation. (iv) Vocative Adjuncts do not impact directly on the Mood constituent of the clause but effect the clause as a whole which

typically occur either initially or finally and because their effects is to organize the designation of the clause as a whole, they are not shown as belonging in either the Mood or the Residue box.

<i>Camels</i>	<i>probably/ maybe/ usually/ always/ sometimes</i>	<i>walk</i>		<i>like that</i>
Subject	Adjunct: mood	Finite	Predicator	Adjunct: circumstantial
MOOD			RESIDUE	

<i>Unfortunately</i>	<i>I'</i>	<i>ve</i>	<i>never</i>	<i>read</i>	<i>"The Bostonians"</i>
Adjunct: comment	Subject	Finite	Adjunct: mood	Predicator	Comple ment
	MOOD			RESIDUE	

<i>Everyone</i>	<i>knows</i>		<i>that,</i>	<i>Simon</i>
Subject	Finite	Predicator	Complement	Adjunct: vocative
MOOD		RESIDUE		

Table 2.17 Analysis of Mood Adjunct in clauses (Eggins, 1994:167-169)

3) Textual Adjunct

Textual meanings are meanings to do with the organization of the message itself. There are two main types of Textual

Adjunct. (i) The Conjunctive type, expressed by conjunctions, function to provide linking relations between one clause and another which typically occur at the beginning of the clause but they can occur at other points, also express the logical meanings of elaboration, extension and enhancement; Conjunctive Adjuncts belong neither in the Mood box nor the Residue box. (ii) The Continuity Adjuncts include the continuative and continuity items such as *well, yea, oh* where occur to introduce a clause and signal that a response to prior talk is about to be provided; Continuity Adjuncts do not belong in either the Mood or the Residue boxes as they contribute to the textual organization of the clause rather than to dimension of its arguability.

<i>So</i>	<i>poor old Henry'</i>	<i>s</i>	<i>out the shoot</i>	<i>too</i>
Adjunct: conjunctive	Subject	Finite	Complement	Adjunct: conjunctive
	MOOD		RESIDUE	

<i>Well</i>	<i>what</i>	<i>was</i>	<i>that book you gave me?</i>
Adjunct: continuity	Subject	Finite	Complement
	MOOD		RESIDUE

<i>Oh</i>	<i>now</i>	<i>he'</i>	<i>s</i>	<i>talking</i>	<i>About Henry James</i>
Adjunct: continuity	Adjunct: conjunctive	Subject	Finite	Predicator	Adjunct: circumstantial
		MOOD		RESIDUE	

<i>Yea,</i>	<i>I</i>	<i>know</i>	
Adjunct: textual	Subject	Finite	Predicator
	MOOD		RESIDUE

Table 2.18 Analysis of Textual Adjunct in clauses (Eggins, 1994: 169-170)

2.2.4.2 Polarity

Thompson (1996) stated that polarity has been treated as if it were absolute, and in one sense, of course, it is a message either positive or negative. Any Finite is inherently positive or negative in polarity. It is true that the negative forms have an identifiable added element (i.e. *n't* or *not*) in relation to the positive but this is a reflection of the marked nature of negative meanings in general.

According to Halliday (1985), polarity is the choice between positive and negative, as in *is/ isn't, do/ don't*. Polarity in English is expressed in the Finite element in which each Finite verbal operator has two forms, one positive (e.g. *is, was, has, can*, etc.), the other negative (e.g. *isn't, wasn't, hasn't, can't*, etc.). The Finite element is inherently either positive or negative; its polarity does not figure as a separate constituent. It is true that the negative is realized as a distinct morpheme *n't* or *not* but this is an element in the structure of the verbal group not in the structure of the clause.

2.2.4.3 Modality

Thompson (1996) found that semantically there are also intermediate stages – points between ‘yes’ and ‘no’ such as *maybe* or *sometimes* or *supposedly* – which are expressed by modality. A simple starting definition of modality is that it is the

space between ‘yes’ and ‘no’. the following table illustrates this concept by giving some examples of modality with an informal gloss in the right-hand column indicating the intermediateness of the proposition (note that the ordering of examples in the Modal Space is not intended to suggest that any of the examples are closer to the positive or negative poles).

+	She teaches Latin	
MODAL SPACE	She might teach Latin	Perhaps yes, perhaps no
	She usually teaches Latin	Sometimes yes, sometimes no
	She ought to teach Latin	At present no, but ideally in the future yes
	She’ll teach Latin if you want	At present no, but in the future yes if you want
	She can teach Latin if she wants	At present no, but in the future yes if she wants
	She can teach Latin well	In principle yes, at present maybe yes or no
-	She doesn’t teach English	

Table 2.19 Modal Space (Thompson, 1996: 57)

However, the possibilities are not limited to a choice between yes and no. there is intermediate degrees; various kinds of indeterminacy that fall in between like *sometimes* or *maybe*. These intermediate degrees, between the positive and negative poles, are known collectively as Modality. Note that in a statement the Modality is an expression of the speaker’s opinion (i.e. *that will be John* ‘that’s John. I think’); whereas in a question it is a request for listener’s opinion (i.e. *will that be John?* ‘is that John do you think?’). Note also that even a high value modal (*certainly, always*) is less determinate than a polar form (i.e. *that’s certainly John* is less certain than *that’s John*; *it always rains in summer* is less

invariable than *it rains in summer*). In other words, you only say you are certain when you are not (Halliday, 1985).

According to Halliday (1985) and Thompson (1996), there is more than one way of getting from 'yes' to 'no'. In order to account for this, we need to refer to the distinction between propositions (information i.e. statements and questions) and proposals (good-&-services i.e. offers and commands).

(i) Propositions. In propositions, the meaning of the positive and negative poles is asserting and denying: positive *it is so*, negative *it isn't so*. If the commodity being exchanged is information, the modality relates to how valid the information is in terms of probability (how likely it is to be true) or usuality (how frequently it is true). Some of the basic points on the probability scale are: possible/ probable/ certain/ possibly/ probably/ certainly; on the usuality scale, they include: sometimes/ often/ always/ usually. This term of modality refers to Modalisation. Both probability and usuality can be expressed in the same three ways which are by a finite modal operator in the verbal group (i.e. *that will be John, he'll sit there all day*), by a Modal Adjunct (i.e. *that's probably John, he usually sits there all day*) and by both together (i.e. *that'll probably John, he'll usually sit there all day*).

(ii) Proposals. In proposals, the meaning of the positive and negative poles is prescribing and proscribing: positive *do it*, negative *don't do it*. If the commodity is goods-&-services, the modality relates to how confident the speaker can be in the eventual success of the exchange. In commands, this

concerns the degree of obligation on the other person to carry out the command (the intermediate points represent degrees of obligation: allowed to/ supposed to/ required to/ permissible/ advisable/ obligatory), while in offers it concerns the degree of willingness or inclination of the speaker to fulfill the offer (the speaker may signal: ability/ willingness/ determination/ willing to/ anxious to/ determined to). These types of modality are called Modulation. Both obligation and inclination can be expressed in two ways, by a finite modal operator (i.e. *you should know that, I'll help them*) and by an expansion of the Predicator (typically by a passive verb i.e. *you're supposed to know that* and by an adjective i.e.. *I'm anxious to help them*).

2.2.5 Text and Context

According to Gerot & Wignell (1994) and Eggins (1994), it was suggested that we need a model of language that helps us understand how texts work to make meaning: this in turn enables us to facilitate learners' interpretation and production of texts. Systemic functional grammar can do this. How? Because of the way this model of language explains the connections between context and text. This leads to recognition of the importance of situational and cultural context in understanding why a text means what it does.

Knowing the context of situation makes the utterance intelligible. It is of course easy to recognize that language use varies according to situations. We appreciate that we do not talk in the same way to the Vice Chancellor as we do to our best friends, that we do not talk in the same way about linguistics as we do

about cooking, and that we do not write the same way we talk. Some aspects of situations seem to have an effect on language use, others do not. For example, although the different social statuses held by the interactants do seem to effect language use, it does not seem to matter much what the weather is like, what clothes the interactants are wearing, or what color hair they have. Thus, some dimensions of a situation appear to have a significant impact on the text that will be realized, while other dimensions of a situation do not.

Context of situation was described in terms of three variables which are called Register Variables. The Register describes the immediate situational context in which the text was produced.

(i) Field

When we talk about what a text is about, we are talking about the Field of the text. Field defined as the situational variable that has to do with the focus of the activity which we are engaged in sometimes called topic of situation. A situation described would be characterized by a significant degree of assumed knowledge among the interactants about the activity focus, whereas in an everyday (or commonsense) situation, the only assumed knowledge is common knowledge.

Technical and everyday language: the linguistic implications of Field	
Technical language	Everyday language
Technical terms - Words only insiders understand	Everyday terms - Words we all understand
Acronyms	Full names

Abbreviated syntax	Standard syntax
Technical action process	Identifying process
Attribute (descriptive) process	

Table 2.20 Technical vs. everyday language (Eggins, 1994: 74)

(ii) Tenor

When we talk about the interpersonal relationships between interactants, we are talking about the tenor of the text. Initial definition of tenor was that it referred to the role relationships played by interactants. For example, roles are such as students-lecturer, customer-salesperson, friend-friend. Instinctively you can no doubt recognize that the kind of social role you are playing in a situation will have an effect on how you use language. For example, you do not talk to the greengrocer the same way you talk to your mother. However, we need to get more precise about just what aspects of the Tenor of situations are important, and what ways.

Formal and informal language: the linguistic consequences of Tenor	
Informal language	Formal language
Attitudinal lexis (purr & snarl words)	Neutral lexis
Colloquial lexis - Abbreviated forms - Slang	Formal lexis - Full forms - No slang
Swearing	Politeness phenomena
Interruptions, overlap	Careful turn-taking
First names, nick-names,	Titles, no names

diminutives	
Typical mood choices	Incongruent mood choices
Modalization to express probability	Modalization to express deference
Modalization to express opinion	Modalization to express suggestion

Table 2.21 Formal vs. informal language (Eggins, 1994: 67)

(iii) Mode

When we talk about the role language is playing, we are talking about the mode of the text. The general definition of mode offered above referred simply to the role language is playing in an interaction. Martin (1984) in Eggins (1994) has suggested that this role can be seen as involving two simultaneous continua which describe two different types of distance in the relation between language and situation. (i) Spatial/ interpersonal distance ranges situations according to the possibilities of immediate feedback between the interactants. At one pole of the continuum, then, is the situation of sitting down to a casual chat with friends, where there is both visual and aural contact, and thus feedback is immediate. At the other end of the continuum would be the situation of writing a book, where there is no visual or aural contact between writer and reader(s), and thus no possibility of immediate feedback. (ii) Experiential distance ranges situations according to the distance between language and the social process occurring. At one pole of this continuum, we can put

situations such as playing a game, where language is being used to accompany the activity interactants are involved in. Contrast this with other polar extreme, for example writing a piece of fiction, where language is all that there is. There is no social process going on: language is creating and therefore constituting the social process. In these situations, language is being used to reflect on experience, rather than to enact it. If we combine these two dimensions of mode (by taking the end points of each continuum), we can characterize the basic contrast between spoken and written situations of language use.

Spoken and written language: the linguistic implications of Mode	
Spoken language	Written language
Turn-taking organization	Monologic organization
Context dependent	Context independent
Dynamic structure - Interactive staging - Open-ended	Synoptic structure - Rhetorical staging - Closed, finite
Spontaneity phenomena (false starts, hesitations, interruptions, overlap, incomplete clauses)	“Final draft” (polished) indications of earlier draft removed
Everyday lexis	“Prestige” lexis
Non-standard grammar	Standard grammar
Grammatical complexity	Grammatical simplicity
Lexically sparse	Lexically dense

Table 2.22 Characteristic features of spoken and written language (Eggins, 1994: 57)

Note that the meaning is also culturally situated. Context of culture explores the model developed within a systemic functional approach to describe how people use language to achieve culturally appropriate goals, through the concept of genre. Genre, or context of culture, can be seen as more abstract, more general – we can recognize particular genre even if we are not sure exactly what the situational context is. Genre was used to explain and describe how people use language to achieve culturally recognized goals. Context of culture determines what we can mean through being who we are, doing what we do and saying what we say. Cultural context permits us to make sense of the text: to find a social activity type in which the kinds of meanings realized here would have a purpose. It would be quite difficult for a foreigner to make the same deduction that we have made. However, even if foreigners can correctly deduce, the register of the text, they might still be at a loss to work out the overall function of the text, i.e. its genre. To do that, they need to recognize that stages talks through are the steps in a recognizable cultural activity.

The utterance is meaningful within a context of culture and a context of situation. In order to understand how people use language, we need to consider both the context of situation and the context of culture. It is important to realize that the use of language only make sense when we see it as a purposeful in the culture and situation in which it was produced. Thus, studying how people use language forces us to recognize, first, that linguistic behavior is goal oriented (we can only make sense of talk if we assume it to be purposeful) and, second, that linguistic behavior takes place within both a situation and a culture, in relation to

which it can be evaluated as appropriate in inappropriate. Genres are realized through language. The process of realizing genres in language is mediated through realization of register. One of the ways is filling in the specifics relevant to a particular situation of use that genre and the second is respect of genre potential of a particular culture. Genre potential can be described as the possible configurations of register variables allowed within a given culture at a given time.

2.3 Theoretical Framework

There are three ways to convey meaning in a discourse which are through ideational meaning, interpersonal meaning and textual meaning. Because this study is going to analyze learners' ability in negotiation of meaning, the focus is on interpersonal meaning. Negotiation is not only to get a particular purpose, but also in order to engage each participant's involvement in a conversation. Also, in order to keep the conversations going, interactants should have a topic to be discussed so their counterpart are able to respond whether with offer, command, statement or question. The topic can be revealed by analyzing mood elements in a clause produced by the speakers. Analyzing interpersonal meaning shows how the counterparts receive information from the speakers and response it contradicted the speakers (polarity) and opinions (modality). Besides, we are able to know learner's ability by looking at which one is more dominant - students or teacher – and how learner's use language based on the context of situation and context of culture. Here are the schematic diagram that represent the framework of this study.

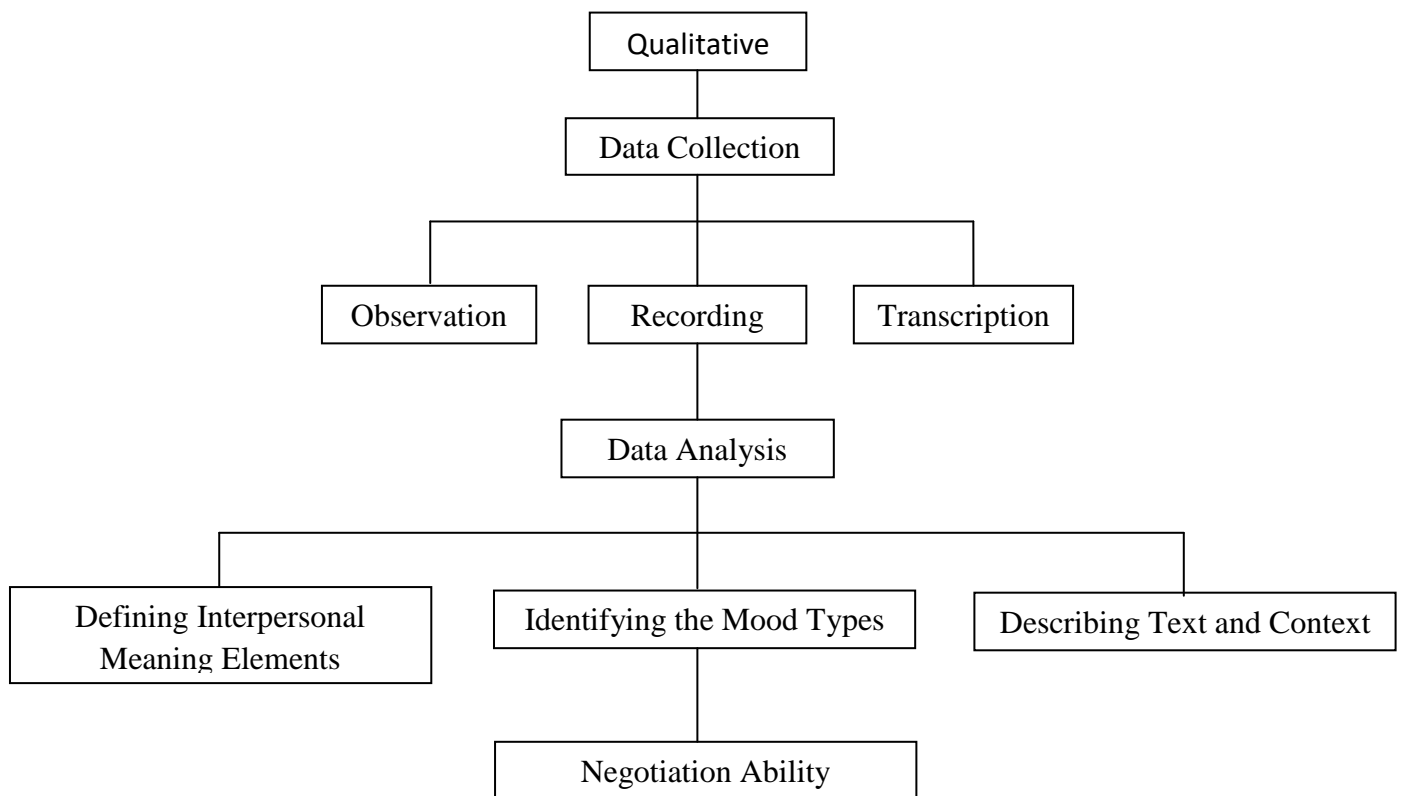


Figure 2.1 Framework of the Study

This study is going to have conversation in a class of an English course as an object. The data is in the form of audio recording of daily class conversation. Figure 2.1 above shows the method used in this research. It uses qualitative research. After having Data Collection, the Data is analyzed into three main parts. The analyzing is about clauses made by both learners and teacher at that time into element of the Mood, Mood types and Text and Context. The result will show how the students' ability in negotiation of meaning.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTION

This is the last chapter presented in this study. It consists of conclusion and suggestion regarding the topic of the study. The conclusion presents the answers for the problem of this study based on the data analysis in the previous chapter. The suggestion is about whom this study gives the benefit of no doubt.

5.1 CONCLUSION

This study investigates learners' ability to negotiate meaning in interactional conversation by analyzing the students' utterance in a class conversation both with their friends and the teacher as their counterpart. In order to answer the research problems, the conclusions are presented based on the data analysis from the previous chapter as follow.

The first research problem is how students negotiate meaning. The way that the students negotiate meaning in order to get the meaning across is countering their interlocutors' responds. At first, the students do not make their own statement. They are just waiting for the others responds and adding them.

Besides, the students respond the teacher by giving statements that exactly suit to the teacher's questions. The ideas and information that the students stated are the same direction as the teacher's questions.

In addition, the students have the equal turns reciprocally to convey their ideas in a conversation. The teacher always helps learners to speak in English. She gives chance to all students to say the words about what they are thinking and

feeling so that the class is alive. Although the students might have such kind of difficulties in conveying their ideas in English, they still keep practicing. It makes the conversation does not stop.

The second research problem is about the grammatical problems hindering the negotiation of meanings. In some cases, the students ellipse a certain element of the clause. They do not put the auxiliary because they are not accustomed to using such term in their native language.

Another grammatical problem is that the students do not use fit correspondence between Finite and other elements. When they are talking about something happened in the past, they do not realize that they are still using Finite that indicates present time. Despite the fact that the students have some grammatical problems, they negotiate meaning well. They produce statements in compliance with elements of interpersonal meaning.

Last but not the least is strategies used by students to compensate communication problems. The students use minor clause such as “umm”, “ooh”, and “yeah”. Those expressions are used by the learners in order to give additional time to them to respond their counterpart.

Also, the students sometimes speak in their native language. When it is difficult to find terms in English, the students prefer speaking in their native language to saying nothing.

Furthermore, the students are doing non-verbal communication. They are making jokes and laughing the most often. Even they doing so, it has a communication purpose which gives the students time to think to make a sentence

in speaking English. Those strategies are used by students in order to help them in negotiation.

5.2 SUGGESTION

Considering the result and significance of the study, there are several suggestions derived from those aspects. This study gives the readers and other researchers who are interested in the negotiation of meaning analysis in a conversation the benefit of no doubt.

Theoretically, the result of analyzing in this study will be useful in order to understand deeply about the negotiation of meaning and reveal its elements for readers. Also, the following explanation will make the elements and their function in interpersonal meaning clear and easy to understand.

Practically, learners will increase their abilities on their speaking especially in the negotiation of meaning in a conversation to deliver their meaning through grammar properly. For English teachers, this analyzing will be able to help the teacher to understand what their students are talking about by negotiating that is the meaning. In addition, by analyzing the students' conversation, the researcher is able to understand about the students' abilities in expressing their meaning in negotiating through mood and modality. It also can be said that researcher is able to know how it works on the students' conversation with both other students and teacher.

Pedagogically, this analysis will give a clear explanation about how interpersonal meaning work in a discourse especially negotiation of meaning in a

conversation. It will help teachers to explain it to their student. The readers also will know more about the negotiation of meaning deeply by interpersonal meaning such as its function, elements and an explanation how it works in a conversation.

REFERENCES

- Brown, G. and G. Yule. 1983. *Discourse Analysis*. Cambridge: University Press.
- Čulo, K. and V. Skendrović. 2012. Communication in the Process of Negotiation. *Communication in Negotiation* 11/2, 323-327.
- Cook, Jiyon. 2015. Negotiation for Meaning and Feedback among Language Learners. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, Vol.6 No.2, March 2015 250-257.
- Edexcel. 2011. Functional Talk: 'Directions' and Electrical Store'. Available at www.teachit.co.uk [accessed 04/02/2016].
- Egins, Suzanne. 1994. *An Introduction to Systemic Functional Linguistics*. London: Covent Garden.
- Egins, S. and D. Slade. 1997. *Analyzing Casual Conversation*. London: Creative Print and Design Wales.
- Egins, Suzanne. 2004. *An Introduction to Systemic Functional Linguistics (2nd Edition)*. London: Continuum.
- Foster, Pauline. 1998. A Classroom Perspective on the Negotiation of Meaning. *Applied Linguistics* 19/1, 1-23.
- Gerot, L. and P. Wignell. 1994. *Making Sense of Functional Grammar*. Sydney.: Gerd Stabler.
- Halliday, M. A. K. 1985. *An Introduction to Functional Grammar*. London: Edward Arnold.
- Heigham, J. and R. A. Croker. 2009. *Qualitative Research in Applied Linguistics: A Practical Introduction*. UK: Palgrave Macmillan.

- Lock, Graham. 1996. *Functional English Grammar*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Long, J. and L. Clerk. 2013. *Effective Negotiation Strategies and Preparation. Association of Corporate Counsel*. Available at <http://www.acc.com/legalresources/quickcounsel/ensp.cfm> [accessed 02/17/16].
- Maksimović, Mlađan. et al. 2013. Negotiation Skills and Non-Verbal Communication. *Economics Management Information Technology*, Vol.2 No.1 33-40.
- Marshall, C. and G. B. Roosman. 2006. *Designing Qualitative Research (4th Edition)*. California: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Pica, Teresa. 1996. The Essential Role of Negotiation in the Communicative Classroom. *JALT Journal* 18: 241-268.
- Rahimian, Mehdi. 2013. Negotiation of Meaning and Modified Output Elicitation across Two Task. *English language Teaching*, Vol.6 No.12, 5th November 2013 114-126.
- Richards, J. C. (n.d) The Official Website of Educator and Arts Patron Jack C. Richards. Available at <http://www.professorjackrichards.com> [accessed 09/03/2016].
- Satori, D. and A. Komariah. 2014. *Metodologi Penelitian Kualitatif*. Bandung: Penerbit Alfabeta.
- Thompson, Geoff. 1996. *Introducing Functional Grammar*. London: Edward Arnold.
- Wells, Gordon. 1987. The Negotiation of Meaning: Talking and Learning at Home and at School. *Home and School: Early Language and Reading*. Noorwood, NJ: Ablex.

Yuliati. 2013. Interpersonal Meaning Negotiation in the Teacher-Student Verbal Interaction. *The International Journal of Social Sciences*, Vol.11 No.1, 30th May 2013 52-60.

Zelditch, Morris. 1962. Some Methodological Problems of Field Studies. *American Journal of Sociology*, 67 566-576.