

CHAPTER 2

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 Intrinsic Aspects

2.1.1. Narrative Aspects

As stated by Abrams, a narrative is a story conveyed in either prose or verse, featuring events, characters, and their actions and dialogues. Certain literary forms, including the novel and short story in prose, as well as the epic and romance in verse, are clear examples of narratives that are presented by a narrator. In drama or movie, the narrative is not told, but evolves by means of the direct presentation on stage of the actions and speeches of the characters (1999:173). Therefore, this study will use intrinsic aspects which include theme, character and characterization, plot, and setting.

2.1.1.1. Theme

The term "theme" is used to refer to a general idea, whether asserted or implied, that is intended to be conveyed and persuaded the reader. The theme of a story can be comprehended when the storyline, characters, setting, point of view, symbols, and other aspects that make up a story are established. Some stories contain universal or common themes, such as love, betrayal, happiness, greed, and hate themes. Readers worldwide may identify with the use of universal or common themes. Some stories may have themes that are specific to the society in which they are told (Abrams, 1999: 170).

2.1.1.2. Character and Characterization

According to Abrams (1999:32), characters are the people portrayed in a narrative

or dramatic work. A character may undergo a transformation, either as a result of a crisis or a prolonged process of growth, or may remain stable or unchanging in disposition and outlook throughout the course of a work (Abrams, 1999:33). This transformation is based on the characterization of the character. Characterization involves the reader's interpretation of a character, informed by both the character's verbal and nonverbal actions. This allows the reader to assess the character's moral, intellectual, and emotional attributes (Abrams, 1999:32-33).

2.1.1.3. Plot

The plot of a dramatic or narrative work is constituted by its events and actions, as they are presented and ordered to achieve particular artistic and emotional effects (Abrams, 1999:224). Because plots are considered an integral part of a narrative story, some plots are designed to achieve tragic effect, comedic effect, satire, romance, and satire, romance, or any other genre. In Abrams' book, Aristotle emphasizes that a story should follow a continuous sequence of beginning, middle, and end. The beginning introduces the main action and creates anticipation for what follows; the middle builds on earlier events and sets up the need for further developments; and the end concludes the preceding events, providing a sense of completion and satisfaction with the plot (Abrams, 1999: 226).

2.1.1.4. Setting

According to Abrams (1999:284), the broader setting of a narrative or dramatic piece encompasses the general environment, historical era, and societal context in which the events unfold. On the other hand, the setting of a specific episode or scene within the work refers to the precise physical location where the action

occurs.

2.1.2. Cinematic Aspects

The analysis was supported by cinema theory. Mise-en-scene, cinematography, and movie semiotics are the three fundamental concepts in movie analysis. The author employed cinematography and mise-en-scene.

2.1.2.1. Mise-en-Scene

Mise-en-Scene means “putting into the scene”, and it was first applied to the practice of directing plays. Mise-en-Scene includes those aspects of movie that overlap with the art of the theater: setting, lighting, costume and makeup, and staging and performance (Bordwell & Thompson, 2013:113).

2.1.2.2. Camera Shots

There are some camera angles as mentioned by Bordwell and Thompson (2013:161) consisting of seven elements as mentioned below,



Extreme Long Shot



Long Shot



Medium Long Shot



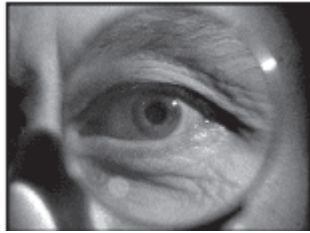
Medium Shot



Medium Close-Up



Close-Up



Extreme Close-Up

Picture 2. 1 Camera shots in *Film Art: An Introduction* by David Bordwell and Kristin Thompson

2.1.2.2.1. The Extreme Long Shot (ELS)

The Extreme Long Shot (ELS), in which one can barely distinguish the human figure, is used to show the setting of the place of the scene and the entire ambience from long distance. This is the framing for landscapes, bird's-eye views of cities, and other vistas (Bordwell & Thompson, 2013:190).

2.1.2.2.2. The Long Shot (LS)

The Long Shot (LS) is a type of camera shot in which the subjects, typically humans, are distinguishable but remain relatively small within the frame, dwarfed by the surrounding environment (Bordwell & Thompson, 2013:190). This shot emphasizes the scale of the background in relation to the subjects, often highlighting vast landscapes, large architectural structures, or expansive interior spaces.

2.1.2.2.3. The Medium Long Shot (MLS)

The Medium Long Shot (MLS) is a type of camera shot where the human subject is framed from the knees up (Bordwell & Thompson, 2013:190). This shot strikes a balance between capturing the subject's details and including a significant portion of the background. The Medium Long Shot allows the viewer to see the subject's body language and movement while still providing enough context of the

environment to understand their spatial relationship within the scene.

2.1.2.2.4. The Medium Shot (MS)

The Medium Shot (MS) is a type of camera shot where the human subject is framed from the waist up (Bordwell & Thompson, 2013:190). This shot provides a closer view of the subject while still including some of the surrounding environment. The Medium Shot is often used to capture more detailed expressions and gestures, making it an ideal choice for dialogue scenes, interviews, and situations where a clear view of the subject's upper body movements and facial expressions is essential.

2.1.2.2.5. The Medium Close-Up (MCU)

The Medium Close-Up (MCU) is a type of camera shot that frames the human subject from the chest up, offering an even closer view than the Medium Shot (MS) (Bordwell & Thompson, 2013:190). This shot is commonly used to capture more nuanced facial expressions and subtle gestures, providing a greater sense of intimacy and emotional connection with the subject.

2.1.2.2.6. The Close-Up (CU)

The Close-Up (CU) is a type of camera shot that isolates a portion of a human subject, most prominently the face, in order to show their expression with maximum clarity and detail (Bordwell & Thompson, 2013:190). This shot provides an intimate view of the subject, focusing closely on facial features such as the eyes, mouth, and expressions, which are crucial for conveying emotions, intentions, and psychological states.

2.1.2.2.7. The Extreme Close-Up (ECU)

The Extreme Close-Up (ECU) is a highly focused type of camera shot that captures a very small and specific portion of the human face, such as a single eye, the lips, or another detail of the subject's face (Bordwell & Thompson, 2013:190). This shot goes beyond the standard Close-Up by zeroing in on a particular feature, emphasizing its significance and drawing the viewer's attention to the minute details and subtleties that might otherwise go unnoticed.

2.1.2.3. Sound

Sound is a powerful cinematic technique for several reasons. Firstly, it engages the senses and influences how we perceive the visual imagery, as explained by Bordwell and Thompson (2013:266). Second, it serves as an intermediary medium that shapes the impressions of those who listen to the auditory elements that accompany it.

2.2. Extrinsic Aspects

Extrinsic elements are elements that affect a work of literature but do not come from within the work itself. According to Wellek and Warren, the extrinsic component refers to the personal subjectivity of the author, such as his or her attitudes, beliefs, and worldview, which form the background for the creation of a fictional work. In other words, the biographical elements of the author can have a significant impact on the characteristics of his or her literary work (1956: 65).

2.2.1. African American Life in 1950

African American life in the 1950 was marked by significant struggles against racial discrimination and segregation, as well as notable progress towards greater

equality. In 1950, Black Americans endured severe racial discrimination that profoundly affected every aspect of their lives. Racial segregation laws, known as Jim Crow laws, mandated the separation of black and white people in public spaces, resulting in black Americans being forced to attend separate, often inferior, schools and being restricted in their use of restaurants, hotels, and other public facilities (Allen & Farley, 1986:278). These laws and customs denied them access to quality education and employment opportunities, relegating them to low-paying, menial jobs and significantly hindering their career advancement.

African Americans also often encountered difficulties in obtaining decent jobs despite having similar or even higher qualifications than their white counterparts. This discrimination economically disadvantaged them and hindered their social progress. Although they could witness a society where Jim Crow racism was not legally enforced, many African Americans still faced significant barriers in finding employment, accessing education, and improving their overall living conditions.

During the mid-20th century, Black Americans faced systemic and institutionalized discrimination in various aspects of life, particularly in education, employment, and voting rights (Allen & Farley, 1986:278). Educational opportunities were severely limited as segregated schools for Black students were underfunded, overcrowded, and lacked adequate resources, resulting in a substandard education compared to that of white students (Dierenfield, 2021:16). In the job market, Black workers were often confined to low-paying, menial jobs with little chance for advancement and faced significant wage disparities even when

performing the same work as their white counterparts (Allen & Farley, 1986:283). Voting rights were also heavily suppressed through discriminatory practices such as literacy tests, poll taxes, and outright intimidation, effectively disenfranchising Black voters and excluding them from the political process.

In 1948, President Harry S. Truman abolished racial discrimination in the military with Executive Order 9981, issued on July 26th. This landmark order declared a policy of equality of treatment and opportunity for all members of the military, irrespective of race, color, religion, or national origin (The Journal of Blacks in Higher Education, 1999:30). Despite this progressive step, the process of military desegregation encountered significant obstacles and resistance, particularly from within the military ranks and in regions where segregation was deeply entrenched. Overcoming these challenges required persistent effort and took considerable time, finally making substantial progress during the Korean War in 1950 when military integration was further enforced. Truman's executive order marked a pivotal moment in civil rights history, setting the stage for broader social changes towards desegregation in American society.

2.2.2. Racial Discrimination

Blacks have been victim of racial injustice, bigotry, and racism within the United States. The tension between the two races was influenced by the supremacy of white settlers from Europe, who gradually formed a government committed to the egalitarian principle of equality, over black Africans, who were enslaved and discriminated against by other ethnic classes. Lois Tyson, in her work *Critical Theory Today*, defines racism as the belief in racial superiority, inferiority, and

purity based on the conviction that moral and intellectual characteristics, just like physical characteristics, are biological properties that differentiate the races (Tyson, 1950:360). This implies that dominant races are expected to be superior, while minorities are thought to be inferior. These dominant races will exhibit a tendency to hate and avoid certain groups of people that belong to different races.

The concept of racism is often associated with discriminatory practices directed towards the minority group. The discrimination based on the race of people is called racial discrimination. It can manifest in various forms, including explicit, implicit, emotional, physical, or verbal. Colorism, which is deeply rooted in African societies, and regional associations in American culture often exhibit differences related to gender and skin tone. Skin tone, like gender, serves as a visible trait that shapes social interactions and judgments. According to Theodorson & Theodorson (1979:115) states that discrimination is every restriction, harassment based on human differences on the basis of religion, race, ethnic group, class, social status, economic status, gender, language, beliefs that lead to aberrations of human rights.

Minority groups are groups that are recognized on the basis of variations in color, faith, or nationality that experience disadvantages as a result of bias or bigotry, according to Theodorson & Theodorson (1979: 258-259). Therefore, the term 'minority' only refers to groups that are small in number and are subject to prejudice or discrimination by most residents of the community. It does not include groups that may be small in number but are dominant in politics. Thus, the term 'minority' refers only to groups that are small in number and are subject to prejudice or discrimination by most residents of the community.

According to Blank (2004:55), discrimination can be classified into four main types. These include Intentional Discrimination, where individuals are deliberately treated unfairly based on certain characteristics, and Subtle Discrimination, which involves covert and indirect actions leading to unfair treatment. Statistical Discrimination occurs when assumptions or stereotypes about a group's statistical tendencies result in unfair treatment, while Organizational Processes involve systemic practices and policies within organizations that unintentionally cause discriminatory outcomes. Each type of discrimination manifests uniquely, contributing to the larger issue of inequality in different contexts.

2.2.2.1. Intentional Discrimination

Intentional discrimination is the deliberate and conscious act of treating individuals or groups differently based on their race or ethnicity. Examples include physical assault, avoidance, segregation, verbal hostility, and eradication, all of which reflect a clear intent to discriminate and marginalize based on racial or ethnic differences (Blank, 2004:56).

2.2.2.2. Subtle Discrimination

This type of discrimination, also known as microaggressions, involves indirect and often unintentional actions or comments that convey negative stereotypes or biases about a particular racial or ethnic group. Examples include questioning someone's competence and expressing indirect prejudice (Blank, 2004:59).

2.2.2.3. Statistical Discrimination

A person or organization decides how to treat a member of a group based on

stereotypes about that group. This form of discrimination, known as statistical discrimination, often occurs in hiring practices. For example, black candidates might not be hired because of the stereotype associating their race with crime. This bias is based on generalized assumptions rather than the individual's actual qualifications, leading to unfair treatment (Blank, 2004:61).

2.2.2.4. Organizational Processes

Organizations often reflect biases rooted in past histories of racism. These rules may appear neutral, but can lead to differential treatment or outcomes, resulting in structural discrimination. This affects both formal aspects, such as hiring practices, and informal aspects, such as workplace culture, that maintain systemic inequality (Blank, 2004:63).

2.2.3. Resistance to Racism

Black Americans' resistance to racism has grown over time. Before the Civil Rights Movement, many people who faced discrimination were unable to challenge it due to a lack of legal protections. Most histories focus on either white or black actions separately, rarely looking at how they interacted. Studies of massive resistance and southern politics often overlook the civil rights movement. However, black resistance was crucial in the struggle against segregation and discrimination (Fairclough, 1990:393).

Many people felt they should stand up to racism but often chose not to do so because it was too costly for them personally (Ellefsen, et al, 2022:443). If any resistance was expressed, it was likely to be covert and the act was unlikely to have a significant impact. They knew different ways to respond and adjusted their

reactions based on the situation and their mood. Ignoring racism was easier and more effective when the racism was less obvious and when they saw the hostile person as socially inferior (Ellefsen, et al, 2022:443). Ignoring racism was important because it made their lives easier by reducing its negative impact (Ellefsen, et al, 2022:443). This approach helped lower the stress of experiencing racism by giving it less attention, especially when the racism was meant to provoke them (Ellefsen, et al, 2022:443).