CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1.1 Theory of Systemic Functional Linguistics

There are many approaches used by linguists in describing varieties of language. There are a modern linguistics by Ferdinand Saussure, a Firthian Linguistics by J R Firth and a Systemic Linguistics by M.A.K Halliday.

Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) is a theory about language as a resource for making a meaning based on a context of situation and context of culture. SFL was developed by Halliday (1985, 1999), a professor of linguistics from university of Sidney, Australia. This theory is based on Firth’s system structure theory. Firth (1935, 1950, and 1951) developed Malinowski’s concepts of context of situation and context of culture. His works were subsequently developed by Halliday, whose theory of language in context is generally known as Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL). The interesting development of SFL theory in Malinowski’s and Firth’s time was the attention paid to the study of the inter-relatedness of language and context in the theory and the practice. Modeling language in context theoretically, describing and applying the model in question in various areas of human activity have been a trade mark of Systemic Functional Linguistics Theory (SFLT).

SFLT works on language in context are available in a grate variety of forms, such as books, journals, and so on. It is used to explore the difference ways of interpreting things theoretically such as text, cohesion, discourse, context,
situación, cultura, y otras manifestaciones. En la General Systemic Functional Grammar Theory (GSFLT), el ‘S’ para ‘Systemic’ implica que la teoría presta atención a la relación sistemática y sus probabilidades en un sistema de relaciones y decisiones que comienzan desde lo general a lo específico, que son paradigmáticos en naturaleza. También implica que los sistemas de significado que están interrelacionados con las manifestaciones estudiadas. El ‘F’ para ‘Functional’ implica que se ocupa de las realizaciones funcionales de los sistemas en estructuras. También implica las funciones semióticas o significados que operan en diferentes niveles semióticos y dimensiones. El ‘L’ para ‘Linguistics’ implica que la teoría deriva de un disciplina llamada ‘Linguistics’. Es una teoría liguística con base en la teoría que se utiliza para investigar las manifestaciones de la lengua.

SFLT se puede usar para analizar el texto como un discurso. Como lo dice Halliday (1994:30) que el objetivo ha sido construir una gramática para fines de análisis del texto: una que haga posible decir las cosas sensatas y útiles sobre cualquier texto, hablado y escrito en inglés moderno. El texto que se analiza, incluyendo literario, etnográfico, educativo, pedagógico, y así sucesivamente.

Es obvio que cuando se analiza el texto, la gramática se convierte en un tema prominente para describir cómo funciona la lengua. Por lo tanto, la gramática y el significado están estrechamente relacionados. La gramática es un estudio de cómo se construyen los significados a través del uso de palabras cuando se realizan las acciones de la lengua como expresiones de significado. La manera en que la lengua funciona implica la idea de que una lengua está compuesta de un conjunto de sistemas, cada uno de los cuales ofrece al hablante o al escritor una elección de formas de expresar significados porque las formas de la lengua que se utilizan por un hablante representan significados.
In using a language to express the meaning, a speaker has a linguistic choice that allows him or her to change the order of groups of words or in other words, the speaker is given an allowance to use many ways of language use, for example: when a speaker intents to know the time, he or she may use his or her own expressions to the language offers such as:

- What’s the time?
- What time is it, please?
- Would you mind telling the time, please?
- Tell me the time, please.
- I’d like to know the time.

Those are the differences form of expression. The first and the second are interrogative forms, the third is requesting form. The fourth one is imperative form, while the last one is declarative form.

Most of the linguistics choices a speaker makes are unconscious. He or she never makes a conscious choice among the available language forms. He or she had chosen the best form to express or to convey the meaning.

It is clear that the grammar and the meaning (semantic) are related to each other, either in spoken and written language. SFLT believes that such a kind of relation is one of the realizations. Therefore, the linguistic analysis of texts can help us to find out why some texts are more effective than other texts at communicating information. Text analysis is advantageous in giving us a better understanding of the nature of language in many fields.

SFLT puts a great interest in the relation between language and context. If a text can be understood by the speakers or writers, there is a great deal about the
context in which the text occurs can be revealed. Therefore, SFLT has been described as a functional semantic approach to language which explores how people use language in different context, and how language is structured for use as a semiotic system.

2.1.2 A Brief Description of Discourse Analysis

Discourse analysis does not analyzes only the large units of language such as conversation or written text but it also attempts to achieve the exact meaning or at least the closest meaning intended by a writer in the written texts or a speaker in conversation. In order to reach the aim of discourse analysis, there are some functions related to it, they are:

1. Enabling someone to say why the text is or is not, effective for its own purpose in what respects it succeeds and it what respects it fails, or even less successful in order to get the evaluation of text.

2. Enabling someone to show how and what the text means so that he or she can understand the text. This is the lower in among the two functions. It is one that should always be attainable based on grammar.

The scope of discourse analysis is wide because discourse analyzes units of languages not only in text but also in spoken for example speech, interview, conversation, etc. We as listeners or readers try to understand every single meaning of the word. In reaching these, the speakers or the writers will try to find the best way in choosing the words to link them each other so that the reader or the listener easy to understand.

According to McCarthy (1992:12) discourse analysis is not only concerned with the description and analysis of spoken interaction. In addition to all our
verbal encounters, we daily consume hundreds of written and printed words: newspapers, articles, letters, stories, recipes, instruction, notices, comics, and billboards, leaflets, pushed through the door, and so on. We usually expect them to be coherent, meaningful communications in which the words and/or sentences are linked to one another in a fashion that corresponds to conventional formula, just as we do with speech. Therefore, discourse analysis is equally interested in organization of write interaction.

2.1.3 Metafunctions of Language

Metafunctions of language is major function of language to give the message which has good formulation. Metafunctions of language consist of three major functional components, they are: the ideational function, the interpersonal function, and the textual function.

2.1.3.1 The Ideational Function

The ideational function relates to the inner and outer worlds of reality, it is “language about something”. According Halliday (1978:112) whenever one reflects on the external world of phenomena or the internal world of one’s consciousness, the representation of that reflection would take the form of content. This form of content is called the experiential meaning.

Experiential meaning focuses the language on the clause level with respect to the notion of clause as representation. Clause as a representation means that one function of the clause is as representation of experience of both external realities (i.e. reality outside oneself) and internal reality (reality inside oneself). The
The experiential or representational function of language (clause) is realized by the transitivity system of the language. The outer world of reality that is brought into the inner world of reality in one’s consciousness, which is encoded in the transitivity system of language, is interpreted as a what-is-going-on process, which is related to material actions, events, states, and relations.

The what-is-going-on process falls into various processes. Halliday (1985d, 1994) has identified the encoding processes of the realities under discussion, and has also linguistically (grammatically) classified the various process types: material, mental, relational, and the classified other processes into three subsidiary process types: behavioral, verbal, and existential.

1. Material Process

Material clauses construe doings and happening. It realized but changes in the material world that can be perceived, such as motion in space and change in physical make up. The one inherent participant is the actor, as the doer of the action. There may also be a goal—a participant impacted by doing and sometimes a beneficiary a participant benefiting from the doing and a range, participants specifying the scope of happening.

For example:

2. Mental Process

Mental process is the process of sensing which construes a person involved in conscious processing, including processes of perception, cognition, and affection. There are two participants, which are senser and phenomenon. Senser is the participant of sensing who is endowed with consciousness such as feeling, thinking, or sensing. Phenomenon is representing the content of sensing,
which may be sensed, felt, thought, or seen. A mental clause is characterized by a particular structural configuration: process + senser + phenomenon. Mental processes construes sensing perception, cognition, intention, and emotion. It is categorized as these following types:

- **Perception**: seeing, listening, hearing, feeling, etc.
  
  E.g. **She saw them**
  
  Senser process: cognition phenomenon

- **Affection**: liking, fearing, hurting, worrying, scaring.
  
  E.g. **Mother is worrying her children**
  
  Senser process: affection phenomenon

- **Cognition**: thinking, knowing, understanding, and puzzling.
  
  E.g. **I understand his explanation**
  
  Senser process: cognition phenomenon

3. **Relational Process**

   Relational process is the process of being. In relational clauses there are two parts to the “being”: something is being said to “be” something else. In other words, there are two relational clause types, with different sets of participant roles: attribute clauses with carrier + attribute and identifying clauses with token + value.

4. **Behavioral Process**

   Behavioral processes are process of psychological and physiological process, like breathing, coughing, smiling, dreaming, chatting, watching, etc.
these construe human behaviour including mental and verbal behaviour as an active version of verbal and mental processes. Saying and sensing are construed as activity. Typically, the participant is a conscious being, like the senser, but the process functions are more like one of doing. The participant is called as behaver, such as:

I’m listening to the radio

Behaver process: behavioral circumstance.

5. Verbal Process

Verbal clauses represent process of saying but this category includes not only different modes of saying (asking, commanding, offering, stating) but also semiotic processes that are not necessarily verbal (showing, indicating). The participant is the sayer, receiver, verbiage, and target.

2.1.3.2 The Interpersonal Function

The interpersonal function is an interpretation of language in its function as an exchange, which is a doing function of language; it is concerned with language as an action. This meaning represents the speaker’s meaning potential as an intruder that takes into account the interactive nature of relations between the addresser (speaker/writer) and the addressee (Listener/reader).

At the grammatical level of interpretation with respect to the clause function, it is interpreted that the clause is also organized as an interactive event that involves speaker, writer, and audience (listener/reader). Clauses of the interpersonal function as clauses of exchange, which represent speech role relationship. As Halliday (1985d: 68-71) suggests, whenever two people use language to interact, one of the things they do with it is establishing a relationship
between them. In this, he sets out two most fundamental types of speech role or function: (1) giving, and (2) demanding (Halliday 1994: 68-69).

The interpersonal meaning of language (clause) in its function as an exchange, in which clauses of the interpersonal meaning that function as clauses of exchange representing the speech role relationship, is realized by the mood system of language (clause). The mood system of the clause is represented by the mood structured of the clause, which comprises two major elements: mood and residue. A mood element of an English clause typically consists of a subject and a finite, whereas a residue element of a predicator, one or more complement(s), and many number of different types of adjuncts.

An act of speaking is in interact, i.e. an exchange, in which there is something either given, which implies there is something given. If not, there is no interaction. In other words, in an interaction involving speaker and listener, the speaker is either giving something, which implies the listener is giving something in response. What is exchange (demanded/given or given/received) is a kind of commodity exchanged falls into two principle types: (1) good & services, and (2) information. These two variables or types of commodity exchanged defined the four primaries speech function of offer, command, statement, and question.

For example:  May I help you? (Offer)

Shut up! (Command)

John can type 45 words per minute. (Statement)

When will he join the army? (Question)

The interpersonal meaning of the clause can be observed on two levels. On the first level, the speaker/writer as the producer of the clause can speak or write
from a position carrying the authority of a discipline or an institution. In this level, the way the interpersonal meaning is delivered is determined by the knowledge or power relationship exiting between the speaker/writer and the listener/reader. On the other level, the speaker/writer may choose to communicate with the listener/reader from a position as a person, with no authority of a discipline, an institution, or the like.

For example: My friend said to me,” Will you join with us tonight?”

2.1.3.3 The Textual Function

The textual function of language is an interpretation of language in its function as a message, which is text-forming function of language. This is interpreted as a function that is intrinsic to language itself, but is it at the same time a function that is extrinsic to language, in the sense that it is linked with the situational (contextual) domain in which language (text) is embedded. At the clause level, the textual function is concerned with how inter-clausal elements are organized to form a unified whole text that makes meanings. In this, the textual function indicates the way the text is organized or structured.

The textual function of language (clause) in its function as a message is realized by the theme system of language (clause). The theme system of the clause is represented by the thematic structure of the clause, which comprises two major elements: theme and rheme.

In an analysis of a thematic structure of a text, it is possible to examine language in terms of Halliday’s three metafunctions: the ideational, interpersonal, and textual.
As the above clause represents, the theme choices is the language may be of three kinds: textual, interpersonal, and topical. The topical theme creates the topic that the speaker (i.e. we in the above case) chooses to make the point of departure of the message. The interpersonal theme occurs at the beginning of a clause when a constituent is assigned a mood label (as can be seen in the example). The textual theme gives thematic prominence to the textual elements and has the function of linking one clause or clause elements are related to each other as such that they form a unified whole text within contexts (see the right in the example). The rheme is look at morphology, which is the part of the massage to which the theme is developed.

2.2 VERBAL PROCESS AND ITS COMPONENTS

Verbal process is the process of saying, but saying includes not only different modes of saying (asking, commanding, offering, stating) but also semiotic processes that are necessarily verbal (showing, indicating). The central participant is the sayer- the participant saying, telling, stating, informing, asking, demanding, suggesting, and offering, and so on. It can be a human or human like
speaker of course but it can also be any other symbolic source. For example: The newspaper says there’ll be another election. The newspaper acts as human being, of verbal process, which is called symbolic process. Verbal process has two components, which are: the process itself and the participant in the process. To be noted, verbal process hasn’t any circumstances to be analyzed.

2.2.1 The Process

The term process and participant are used in analyzing what is represented through the use of language. Processes are central to transitivity. They center on the part of the clause which are realized by the verbal group. They are also regarded as what “going-on” and suggest many different kinds of goings-on which necessarily involve different kinds of participant in verifying circumstances. While participants and circumstances are incumbent upon the doings, happening, feelings, and beings.

Processes in English are expression of happening, doing, being, saying, and thinking. Verbal process is process of saying. Saying includes asking, commanding, showing and so on.

2.2.2 The Participant

As has been mentioned above, verbal process has two components where one of them is participant. Participant is somebody or something that will be involved in the process. Participant is the one that says together with the complementary function where there is one, who is said. There are four kinds of participants in verbal process. They are: Sayer, Receiver, Verbiage, and Target.
- **Sayer.**

  The sayer is the participant responsible for the verbal process, who encodes a signal source. Does not have to be a conscious participant (although it typically is), but anything capable of putting out signal. The sayer can be anything that puts out a signal, like the radio, which tells us about war between Iraq-America. The sayer is the participant, who covers saying, telling, asking, commanding, offering, suggesting, and so on. From the example above, it can be said that participant can be human or human like speaker, but it can also be any other symbolic sources.

- **Receiver**

  The receiver is the one whom the verbal process is directed or the one to whom the verbalization is addressed.

- **Verbiage**

  The verbiage is nominalized statement of the verbal process, a noun expressing some kind of verbal behaviour, a name for the verbalization itself or the verbiage is the function that corresponds to what is said. Note that what is said in the sense if the wording in quoted or reported form (direct and indirect speech) is not verbiage.

- **Target**

  The target is the entity that is targeted by the process of saying. Here the sayer is as it acting verbally on another party. Verb that accept target such as praise, insult, abuse, slander, flatter, blame, critic, do not easily project reported speech.
For example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I</th>
<th>asked</th>
<th>my teacher</th>
<th>a question</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>sayer</td>
<td>verbal</td>
<td>receiver</td>
<td>verbiage</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Human Participant)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>She</th>
<th>told</th>
<th>me</th>
<th>a rude joke</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>sayer</td>
<td>verbal</td>
<td>receiver</td>
<td>verbiage</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Human Participant)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The sign</th>
<th>says</th>
<th>“no smoking”</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>sayer</td>
<td>verbal</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Signal Participant)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The alarm clock</th>
<th>screamed</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>sayer</td>
<td>verbal</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Signal Participant)

### 2.3 BEVIORAL PROCESS AND ITS COMPONENTS

Behavioral process is process of physiological and psychological behavioral, like breathing, dreaming, snoring, smiling, looking, listening, waching, and pondering. Halliday describes the process semantically as a “half way hour” between mental and material process. It means that the meanings they realized are midway between materials on the one hand and mental on the other. They are in part about action that has to be experienced by conscious being. This
is one obligatory participant: the behaver, and is typically a conscious being (like a senser in the mental process clause). But, the process is one of doing, not sensing, such as:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>She</th>
<th>lives</th>
<th>in a big city</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>behaver</td>
<td>behavioral process</td>
<td>circumstance: place</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Behavioral process often occurs with circumstantial elements, particularly of manner and clause.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>He</th>
<th>coughed</th>
<th>Loudly</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>behaver</td>
<td>behavioral process</td>
<td>circumstance: manner</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Behavioral process may contain a second participant that is called as behavior.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>He</th>
<th>smiled</th>
<th>a broad smile</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>behaver</td>
<td>behavioral process</td>
<td>behavior</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 2.3.1 The Process

The process of behavior occurs between material and mental process. These are process of physiological and psychological. We can recognize the following kinds of behavioral process, which is reflecting the mental and verbal ones: perception, cognition, affection, and verbal.

a. Perception : look at, watch, stare, gawk, view, look over, observe, listen to, sniff, smell, taste, and feel.

b. Cognition : ponder, puzzle, solve, work out, meditate, and think.
c. Affection: smile, laugh, grin, shake, and tremble.

d. Verbal: talk, speak, sing, flatter, insult, and praise.

Example:

a. I’m listening to the radio

b. I’m looking at John

c. The cat’s sniffing the flower

d. I taste the wine

From examples, in (a) there is a process, which shows process of behaving, which is identified by looking process, this process is also found in (b) listening, (c) sniffing, (d) tasting, which are shade into psychological and physiological aspects.

2.3.2 The Participant

Behavioral process has one participant only. The participant who is “behaving” labeled behaver. Behaver is typically conscious being like the senser in mental process.

Example: She meditates under the tree

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Behaver</th>
<th>process</th>
<th>location: spatial</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>She</td>
<td>meditates</td>
<td>under the tree</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Erwin</th>
<th>smiles</th>
<th>at me</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Behaver</th>
<th>process</th>
<th>location: spatial</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Erwin</td>
<td>smiles</td>
<td>at me</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the examples above, ‘She’ in sentence She meditates under the tree and ‘Erwin’ in sentence ‘Erwin smiles at me’ are behaver.
2.3.3 Circumstances

Circumstances answer such question as when, where, why, how, how many, and as what. They realize meanings about:

- Time (temporal): tells when and is probed by when? How often? How long?
  E.g. He goes to school *everyday*

- Place (spatial): tells where and is probed by where? How far?
  E.g. He goes to *school everyday*

- Manner: tells how
  1. Means: tells by what means and is probed by what with?
     E.g. She goes to the office *by bus*
  2. Quality: tells how and probed by how?
     E.g. She loved her mother *madly, deeply, truly.*
  3. Comparison: tells like what and is probed by what like?
     E.g. He was jumping around *like a monkey on a zoo*

- Cause: tell why
  1. Reason: tells what causes the process and is probed by why? Or how?
     E.g. The sheep died *of thirst*
  2. Purpose: tells the purpose and is probed by what for?
     E.g. He went to the shop *for cigarettes*
  3. Behalf: tells for whose sake and is probed by what whom?
     E.g. He went to the shop *for his mother*

- Accompaniment: tells with(out) who or what and is probed by who or what else?
E.g. I left work without my briefcase

- Matter: tells about what or with reference to what and is probed by what about?
  E.g. This book is talking about functional grammar

- Role: tells what as and is probed by as what?
  E.g. He lived a quiet life as a beekeeper.

2.4 RELEVANT STUDIES

In writing this thesis, I used and read books which related to verbal and behavioral processes to support the analysis. Some of the related researches of this thesis are:

Thomas Bloor (2004:122) said that Verbal Function is process of saying or more symbolically signaling.

Suzanne (1994:233) said that Behavioral Function is almost has a same meaning with Material Function but it is more focus to the habitual or behavior. This function has only one participant.


An Analysis of Narrative Structure and Transitivity Process of Some Short Stories in Annida, A Moslem Magazine by Indra (2005). In his thesis, he concludes that in three short stories of narrative structures the most dominant are orientation and from the transitivity process is material process.
An Analysis of Verbal and behavioral Process in Ernest Hemingway’s Novel”The Sun Also Rises”: A Systemic-Functional Approach by Herma Trilas M.P (2003). In her thesis, she concludes that the verbal process (53.38%) predominantly realized in the clause in “The Sun Also Rises” novel, subsequently followed by the behavioral process (46.61%).