

## **CHAPTER II**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

#### **A. Theoretical Review**

##### **1. On Systemic Functional Approach to Language**

This study draws primarily on systemic functional linguistics (hereafter abbreviated to SFL) approach to language as developed first and foremost by Halliday and his proponents. This approach has been influenced by concept of language in context of situation and context of culture developed previously by Malinowsky and Firth (Halliday & Hasan, 1989; Bloor & Bloor, 2004), as well as the concept of the functional sentence developed in Prague school of linguistics looking at utterances in terms of the information they construe and the role of each part of the utterance in terms of its semantic contribution to the utterance as a whole (Halliday, 1978; 1994, 2004, 2007; Bloor & Bloor, 2004; Emilia, 2005).

SFL has also been developed partly as a respond to, or even an antithesis of, an approach to language developed around 1960s under the influence of Chomsky's transformational-generative grammar (Painter, 1989; Bloor & Bloor, 2004). Chomsky believes that language is essentially a biologically determined phenomenon and has no interest in the social aspect of language (Bloor & Bloor, 2004: 240). Thus, this approach tends to discover a mental reality which underlies actual language behaviour (Yalden, 1987: 15) and sees language as a set of rules describing different sentence structures – thus it primarily deals with syntax (Painter, 1989: 3).

Perhaps the most influential concept proposed by Chomsky is the fundamental distinction between the speaker's-hearer's knowledge of his language, or competence, and the actual use of language in concrete situation, or performance (Chomsky, 1965). To Chomsky, it is the competence which should be concerned in order to discover the nature of language, as he writes:

Linguistic theory is concerned primarily with an ideal speaker-listener, in a completely homogenous speech-community, who knows its language perfectly and is unaffected by such grammatically irrelevant conditions as memory limitations, distractions, shifts of attention and interest, and errors (random or characteristics) in applying his knowledge of the language in actual performance (Chomsky, 1965: 3).

This concept leads to idealisation of language concerning primarily on abstract forms rather than authentic samples of language in use. Generativists will examine thought up samples of language as linguistic data to identify the plausibility of the grammar that is under investigation rather than authentic utterances actually produced in communication (Bloor & Bloor, 2004: 240).

Furthermore, Chomsky's idea on language also views grammatical structure of a language, i.e. its syntax, is autonomous with regard to meaning. In other words, Chomsky believes that the rules of syntactic structure operate without reference to meaning. Meaning, he argues, merely interprets the syntactic structures (Bloor & Bloor, 2004: 240).

Radically different from Chomsky's ideas on language, Halliday believes that even though language or text is look like as if it is made of words and sentences, it is really made of meanings (Halliday & Hasan, 1989). Thus for Halliday, meaning is at the heart of language, not another way around. He also rejects strict separation between competence and performance, i.e. between individual's knowledge about

language and its form as behaviour, as well as dominant role of competence over performance. For him, the fact that the brain has capacity to store language and use it for effective communication implies that communication, which social in nature, takes place (Halliday, 1978: 13). Therefore, the dualistic view of competence and performance is misleading and unproductive. He rather sees these two components as complementary, one can look at social facts of language from a biological point of view or at biological facts from a social point of view (Halliday, 1978).

Another different viewpoint that Halliday puts forward is that he views language primarily as a social rather than psychological and biological phenomenon (Halliday, 1978; Bloor & Bloor, 2004). Rather than examining language as a set of grammatical rules possible for abstraction, Halliday is interested in language as communication, i.e. how language has evolved to satisfy the social needs of its users. Thus, Halliday approach takes authentic utterances and or texts found in real communication as a linguistic data in order to examine the nature of language (Halliday, 1978; Halliday & Hasan, 1989; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004; Bloor & Bloor, 2004; Eggins, 2004).

Driven from such general concepts, SFL has always been developed in order to respond to question about language in applied contexts, one of them is in educational filed, i.e. how language is best taught and learned as well as how learners develop their language in spoken and or written texts (Christie & Unsworth, 2000). SFL also has offered new ideas about language providing new opportunities for the researcher to investigate how meaning is construed in text of different kinds and what the teacher can make explicit about the form-meaning

relationships to the learners (Schleppegrell, 2007). Other basic principles of SFL related to this study will be discussed in some details in the following paragraphs.

**a. Concept of Language in SFL**

SFL approach has been developed from the assumption seeing language as a social semiotic phenomenon (Halliday & Hasan, 1989; Eggins 2004; Christie, 2005). The concept of semiotic, as Halliday notes (1989), is understood generally as a study of sign. In his view, the sign should not be seen as an isolated entity; rather, it has to be seen from a wider angle. In order to gain its meaning, a sign has to be related to other existing signs and therefore forms a network of sign called system of sign. The system of sign, therefore, equals to system of meaning.

Among the other existing sign systems existing in a society, language is the most sophisticated and elaborated one (Eggins, 2004: 16). Rather than seeing language as a system of rules, SFL sees language as a system of meaning which its users draw upon as a resource every time they communicate (Halliday, 1994). Using language, then, is an act of meaning making operating within the network of meaning created through the system of language sign. As Christie and Unsworth (2000) write, in the systemic perspective language is seen as a network of dynamic and open systems from which speakers and writers are selecting as they use language. Thus the name is systemic.

Regarding to the social dimension of language, SFL sees language as an instrument of social interaction which has evolved to meet the language users' communicative needs in society. Language is dynamic and ever-evolving, and the

language users develop language to satisfy their needs in society. Language is functional when it fulfils those needs effectively (Derewianka, 1990: 4). Therefore, the name is functional.

These two basic principles are summed up by Eggins as follow:

... common to all systemic linguists is an interest in how people use language with each other in accomplishing everyday social claims about language: that language use is functional; that its function is to make meanings; that these meanings are influenced by the social and cultural context in which they are exchanged and that the process of using language is a semiotic process, a process of making meanings by choosing (1994: 2).

Other basic principle in SFL regarding to social aspect of language is that this approach takes authentic language instances which appear in real communication as an object of study. In other words, SFL concerns with an analysis towards texts rather than isolated sentences (Halliday & Hasan, 1989; Halliday, 1994; Eggins, 1994; Bloor & Bloor, 2004). SFL approach proposes that the language study object should involve a meaningful instance of language, i.e. text, not a decontextualized sentence or utterance (Christie & Unsworth 2000). Under this concept, SFL treats grammar as the realization of discourse, from which emerges the conception of functional grammar, naturally related to its text semantics (Emilia, 2005: 61).

Finally, another concept should be noted here is SFL's view on text and context relation. In SFL the language that is realised in the form of texts is determined by, and also unfolds, the context surrounding it (Halliday & Hasan, 1989; Eggins, 1994; Feez & Joice, 1998; Butt at all, 2000; Schrepperegrel, 2004). As Christie (2005: 9) puts it, the SFL approach to language proposes that text and context are intimately related, so that a context is known because of the text that gives it live, conversely, a text is understood only because of the context that makes it relevant. Therefore,

SFL sees the relationship between text and its context is not such a one direction relationship, rather they are interrelated one another to construe meaning of different kinds.

SFL ideas on text as well as text-context interrelation are significance concepts for this study, thus these two concepts will be elaborated in some details in the following sub headings.

#### **b. Concept of Text in SFL**

The term of text is defined in SFL as any passage, spoken or written, of whatever length that does form a unified whole (Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 1). It is important to be able to think of text dynamically as an on-going process of meaning because the organisation of a text is semantic rather than formal (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004: 524). For Halliday, text is really made of meanings although when it is analysed from its written form it looks as though it is made of words and sentences (Halliday & Hasan, 1989: 8). Regarding to the text as a unit of meaning, Halliday and Hasan write:

A text is best regarded as a semantic unit: a unit not of form but of meaning. Thus it is related to a clause or sentence not by size but by realisation, the coding of one symbolic system in another. A text does not consist of sentences, it is realised by, or encoded in sentences (1976: 2).

Therefore, it is important to note here that it is not the size or length becoming the parameter in defining a text. Also it is not satisfactory to define a text as a linguistic unit above the sentence. As it has been stated before, in the framework of SFL, a text has nothing to do with the size or form but it has to do with meanings of the stretch of language working together as a unified whole (Feez & Joice, 1998:

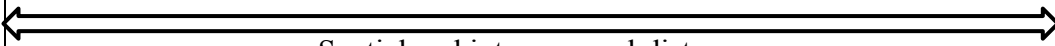
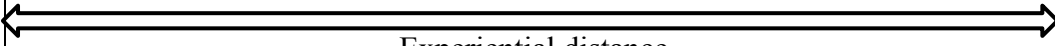
4). A text is a harmonious collection of meanings appropriate to its context (Butt at all, 2000: 3).

Furthermore, Bloor and Bloor (2004: 5) add a definition that a text is any stretch of language, regardless of length, spoken or written for the purposes of communication by real people in actual circumstances. Also Christie (2005: 9) emphasises that a text is a meaningful passage of language that hang together to serve some social purposes.

Moreover, as long as text is concern, SFL proponents also propose that it is useful to see text from view point of mode continuum (Joyce & Feez, 2016). Mode, in SFL refers to the distance between the people communicating in terms of time and space: are they face to face or are they separated by time or space? Also mode refers to the distance in time and space between the social activity and the language: whether language accompanies the social activities or language represent or reflects activities.

The consideration of mode, leads to identification of different characteristics of spoken and written texts. However, as indicated earlier, mode should not be seen as sharply distinct variable dividing texts into two totally distinct types, but as the two end-points of continuum. At the end point which language accompanies an action and their feedback is possible, there we can find the most spoken texts. At the end point in which language is used as a reflection of an action and the direct feedback is not available, there we can find most written language (Joyce & Feez, 2016). Following table illustrates the texts placed along the mode continuum:

**Table 1.** Text along the spoken and written mode continuum  
(Joyce & Feez, 2016: 27)

Mode continuum			
<p>Text 1 A: Put this here and move this to about here and then you can sit here. B: Here? A: Yeah that's about right.</p>	<p>Text 2 A: Good morning tech services. B: Hi I'm having trouble with using the keyboard – it's too high. A: Do you have a desk with a keyboard extender B: No. Can I get one? A: Get your supervisor to ...</p>	<p>Text 3 1. Relax arms at your side with elbows a few centimetres from your body. 2. Position your chair and keyboard to minimise reach.</p>	<p>Text 4 ... The work surface may need to be raised or lowered to keep the operator's arms in a comfortable position. This can be achieved by installing an adjustable keyboard extender or tray, by providing an adjustable working surface...</p>
 <p>Spatial and interpersonal distance</p>			
<p>Visual and aural contact with immediate feedback</p>	<p>Aural contact with immediate feedback</p>	<p>No visual or aural contact between reader and writer but reader can respond to instructions</p>	<p>No visual and aural contact between reader and writer</p>
 <p>Experiential distance</p>			
<p>Language accompanying action</p>		<p>Language as reflection</p>	

Text 1, the most 'spoken' text, is an exchange between two workmates and Text 4, the most 'written' text, appears on a website giving health advice. Text 1 can only be fully understood by participants sharing the context in which it is being used and taking part in the accompanying actions. At the other end of the continuum, Text 4 is written to communicate its message to readers in different contexts across time and space. The speakers of Text 1 and the writer of Text 4 drew on the same



language to construct these texts but used the grammatical resources of the language in different ways. Located between Texts 1 and 4 on the mode continuum, Text 2 is concerned with problem-solving via spoken language over the telephone and so the speakers must be more explicit by naming computer components and office furniture, while Text 3 is an instructional written text that is seeking to advise the reader in a direct way.

In line with this conception, Christie (2005: 49) writes that the most important source of difference between spoken and written language lies in the fact that spoken language are learned and generally used to face-to-face interaction, while writing is produced at some distance from interaction and event. Furthermore, speech is typically dialogic and involves more than one participant in the talk, whereas writing is monologic and involves one voice, i.e. the writer. In speech, language is part of any social activity, while in writing, it is the written language itself has to construct what is there. These differences account for many grammatical differences found between speech and writing.

Perhaps, one of the most obvious differences between spoken and written language is its features used by its speakers or writers in order to build coherence within a text. This sense refers to the term reference in the texts. When the users of a language attempt to build coherence in the texts they are engaged in, they often apply language feature in spoken and written texts differently. In spoken language, the speakers normally use features of a language to refer to things outside the language in the context. This sense is termed exophoric reference. Example for this reference is given as follows:

A: Pass **that** over please.  
B: Okay... although **it** seems to be broken.  
A: Oh no... blast. Where?  
B: See... along **the side** there's a crack. You could probably still use **it**, but **it** leak a bit.

(Christie, 2005: 50)

The features of language which is used to refer to exophoric reference are typed in bold. These features serve to refer to the item being talked about which is never named directly. The speaker, instead, make reference to that item simply using 'that' and 'it'. The reason for this is that the language used is very closely part of the context of situation in which the speakers are talking (Christie, 2005: 50). Thus the speakers do not need to mention directly the item they are talking about in order to understand each other. The coherence is built and therefore meaning is clear.

Whereas, in written language, that context of direct situation weakens. Therefore, language features need to be manipulated more sophisticatedly in order to build the coherence. Language itself has to be the representation of the items or things which are being talked about. In other words, Language features in written texts serve to create context through internal reference in order to build coherence. This internal reference is termed as endophoric reference (Christie, 2005: 50).

In addition, written language, in fact, serves a similar range of broad functions as does spoken language, i.e. it is used to get things done, to provide information and to entertain. However, the contexts for using written language are very different from those in which spoken language is used. For example, in the case of information, written language is used to communicate with others who are removed in time and space, thus a permanent or semi-permanent record is required (Nunan, 1999: 275).

Even though there are overlaps between written and spoken mode, written texts are not just speech written down. Written language has certain features that are generally not shared by the spoken language, both in terms of its linguistics features and the contexts in which it will be interpreted. Linguistically, written language tends to consist of clauses that are complex internally, whereas with spoken language the complexity exist in the ways in which clauses are joined together (Nunan, 1999: 277). Paltridge (2006: 20) writes that speech and writing draw on the same underlying grammatical systems but in general they encode meanings in different ways depending on what they wish to represent. However, again, the differences between spoken and written language are not absolute. The linguistic shape of a text will ultimately be determined by the range of factors relating to the context and purpose for it was produced in the first place (Nunan, 1999: 278).

Burns and Joyce (1997) sum up the general difference of written and spoken language as follows:

**Table 2.** Differences between spoken and written language  
(Burns& Joyce, 1997 in Nunan, 1999: 279)

Spoken language	Written language
Context dependent	Context independent
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Generally used to communicate with people in the same time and place</li> <li>• Relies on shared knowledge between the interactants and often makes reference to the shared context</li> <li>• Generally accompanies action</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Used to communicate across time and distance</li> <li>• Must recreate for readers context it is describing</li> <li>• Generally reflects action</li> </ul>
Dialogic in nature	Monologic in nature
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Usually involves two or more speakers creating spoken texts together</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Usually written by one person removed from an audience</li> </ul>

Unrehearsed and spontaneous but not unpredictable <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Interactants build spoken, unrehearsed texts spontaneously within social and linguistic parameter</li> </ul>	Edited and redrafted <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Written language can be edited and redrafted any number of times</li> </ul>
Records the world as happenings <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Relies more on verbs to carry meaning</li> </ul>	Records the world as things <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Relies more on nouns and noun groups to carry meaning</li> </ul>
Grammatically intricate <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Tends to contain more grammatical words such as pronouns, conjunctions, etc.</li> <li>• Develops through intricate networks of clauses rather than complete sentence as it jointly constructed and relies more heavily on verbs</li> </ul>	Lexical density <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Tends to contain more lexical or content words as meaning is carried by nouns and noun groups</li> <li>• Relies on the process of nominalisation whereby things that are not nouns can be turned into nouns</li> </ul>

### c. Inter-relation of Text and Context in SFL

As it has been mentioned earlier in section ‘a’, SFL approach to language concerns so much upon the inter-relationship between the text and its context, as Christie and Derewianka (2008: 4) write that SFL model of language focus on inter-relationship between text and their context, investigating how the choices, which the language users make from the language, both act upon and are constrained by the social context.

The term context in SFL covers two level of context working simultaneously: context of culture and context of situation (Christie & Unsworth, 2000: 3). The combination of these two levels of contexts results in the differences and similarities between once piece of language, or text, and another (Butt at all, 2000: 3).

Every time the language users use their language, they manipulate the structure of language to convey their meaning and achieve their social purpose. This social purpose in SFL refers to the context of culture. The different social purpose results in the different patterns of structure and language within a text. Also there are similarities which occur within the text structure for the same social purpose. These patterns technically refer to the term genres (Feez & Joice, 1998: 6). Christie and Derewianka also state that the notion of genre is concerned with how a text is organised to achieve its social purpose (2008: 6-7).

The social purpose for which the language users use language impacts on their choice of genre or text type and the way in which the genre unfolds in characteristic stages to achieve its purpose (Derewianka, 2011: 5). In line with that, Eggins also argued:

... a text has generic coherence when we can recognise the text as an example of a particular genre (text type). Technically, generic coherence occurs when we can identify a unified purpose motivating the language (for example, it tells a story or accomplishes a transaction), usually expressed through a predictable generic or schematic structure ... (2004: 29).

The concept of genre in relation to context of culture is best summarised by Martin who technically terms genre as staged, goal oriented social process in which speakers or writers engage as members of a culture (Martin 1992: 505; 1997: 13, 2009: 13; Martin and Rose, 2007: 6). Staged because it usually takes the speakers or writers of a language more than one step to reach their goals; goal oriented because the language users feel frustrated if they do not accomplish the final steps; and social because the speakers or writers shape their texts for listeners or readers in particular kinds. Further, genre are defined as a recurrent configuration of

meanings and that these recurrent configuration of meaning enact the social practice of a given culture.

The text, however, is not shaped by the context of culture alone, there is another context exists in particular situation which also determine the choice made by the language users in making meaning. Texts also differ according to the particular situation in which they are being used (Derewianka, 1990: 18). This context refers technically to the context of situation. Halliday firstly proposes a systematic connection between social context and text meaning. He represents the immediate social environment in the terms of context of situation (Macken-Horarick, 2002: 19). Halliday argues that:

The context of situation, the context in which the text unfolds, is encapsulated in the text, not in a kind of piecemeal fashion, not at the other extreme in any mechanical way, but through systematic relationship between the social environment on the other hand, and the functional organisation of language on the other. If we treat both text and context as semiotic phenomena, as mode of meaning, so to speak, we can get from one to other in a revealing way (Halliday & Hasan, 1989: 11-12).

In the conception of SFL, the context of situation comprises three parameters or variables namely field, tenor, and mode. First variables of field which refer to the topic being talked in the text, it is about 'what is going on?' This is the features of language that are primarily to do with the meanings, ideas, and values expressed. Secondly, the variables of tenor which deals with the question such 'who is involved in the text?' This variable mainly concern with the nature of relationships of the people involved in the context where a text is being made. Finally, the variable of mode which asks the question such 'what role is language plating?' This variable concerns with the nature of language and the mode of communication that involved.

The expectations for how particular text type should be organised (Schrepperegell, 2008: 18). The combination of these three variables simultaneously called register (Christie, 2005; Christie & Derewianka, 2008). Halliday explains these three strings of context of situation as follows:

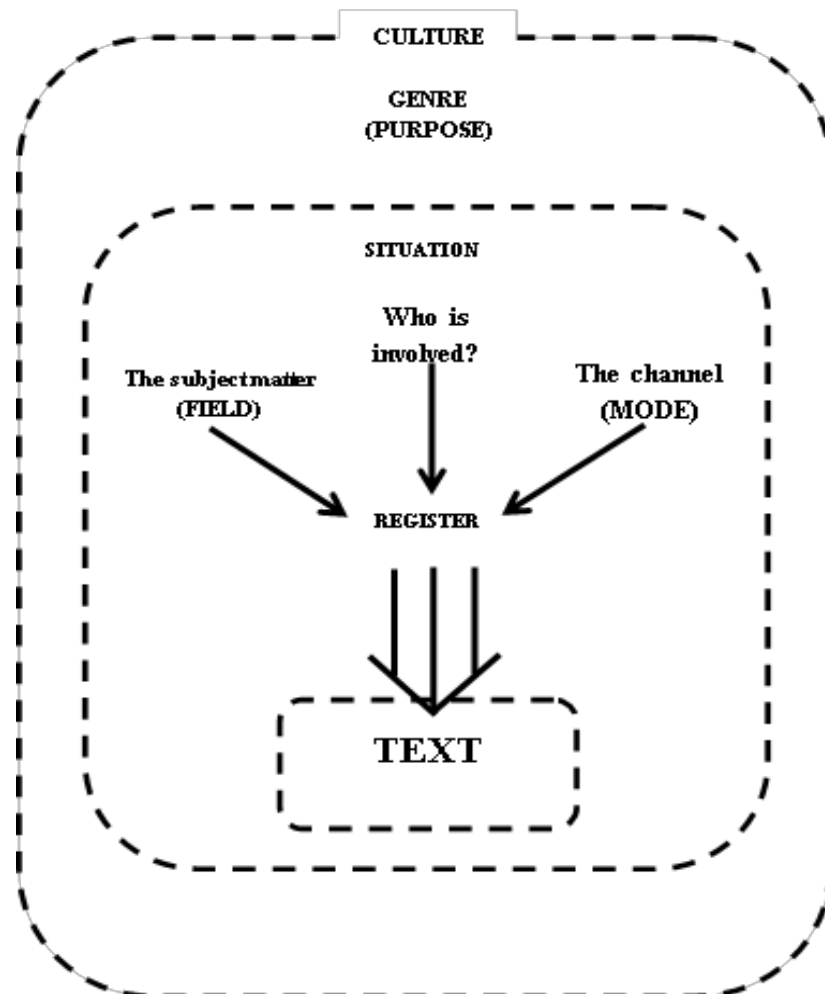
- 1) Field refers to what is happening, to the nature of social action that is taking place: what is that the participants are engaged in, in which the language figures as some essential component?
- 2) Tenor refers to who is taking part, to the nature of the participants, their statuses and roles: what kinds of role relationship obtain among the participants, including permanent and temporary relationships of one kind or another, both the types of speech role that they are taking on in the dialogue and the whole cluster of socially significant relationships in which they are involved?
- 3) Mode refers to what part the language is playing, what it is that the participants are expecting the language to do for them in that situation: the symbolic organisation of the text, the status that it has, and its function in the context, including the channel (is it spoken or written or some combination of the two?) and also the relational mode, what is being achieved by the text in terms of such categories as persuasive, expository, didactic, and the like.

(Halliday & Hasan, 1989: 10)

Furthermore, the register can be varied as since what the language users do through language vary from context to context. Also, a register emerges from the social context of text's production and at the same time realises that social context through the text (Schrepperegell, 2008: 18). Thus, by using these variables, one can see a text both as a product and as a process. The text's meaning organisation can be analysed through these parameters and conversely one can understand the particular context surrounding the production of a text.

These context of culture, therefore genre, and the context of situation, therefore register, simultaneously determine and is encoded a text to achieve an effective text.

The relationship among language (text), context of culture or social purpose (genre), and context of situation (register) can be illustrated as below:



**Figure 1:** The inter-relationship among text, genre, and register (Derewianka, 1990: 19)

**d. Functions of Language: Meta-functions in SFL**

Context is a significance concept in SFL. However, the term of context is somehow still abstract, as Halliday puts it, contexts could consist of other non-verbal goings-on in the total environment which a text unfolds (Halliday & Hasan, 1989: 3). SFL theorists have always tried to seek the explicit and systemic



description on how contexts can be traced in a text and how a text unfolds the contextual variables of a communication event. In order to do so, SFL theorists, led by Halliday, argue that an analysis has to come into the concrete realisation of contexts in language expression (Eggins, 1994; Martin, 1997; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004; Christie, 2005). At this point, another key concept in SFL should be introduced, i.e. meta-functions of language.

According to Halliday, variation of language function should not be interpreted as integrally equal to variation in the use of language, but rather as something that is built in, as the very foundation, to the organisation of language itself, thus particularly in the organisation of meaning system (Halliday & Hasan, 1989: 15). In other words, variation of language functions does not merely represent variation of language use in particular communicative event, e.g. language used in narrative equals to functions of language to entertain. Halliday, rather, takes further step to seek the fundamental functions of language which can represent the total variations of contextual variable mentioned earlier: field, tenor and mode, thus can be operated in every communicative event in which one uses his language.

Halliday terms this fundamental function as meta-functions of language which are built in every language and responsible for the organisation of meaning as systematic realisation of situational contexts mentioned before (Halliday & Hasan, 1989, Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004; Eggins, 1994; Christie & Unsworth, 2000). Meta-functions of language entail three strands of meaning working simultaneously to construe meaning. They are technically terms as Experiential meta-function involving content of a social event in which we use language, thus represents field

of discourse; Interpersonal meta-function involved in building social relationship among the language users, thus represents tenor of discourse; and Textual meta-function primarily involved in organising message in text, so that it can hang together as a complete meaning, thus represent mode of discourse (Halliday & Hasan, 1989; Christie, 2005, Derewianka & Jones, 2010).

### **1) Experiential Meta-function**

Experiential meta-function is further explained as language function responsible for the organisation of language enabling one to represent his experience of the world, including mental experience into language, or more specifically into clause (Painter, 1989: 8). In terms of grammar of a language, this meaning is organised by two major components working together to build up picture of reality, i.e. an event or process unfolding through time and participants being directly involved in the event in some way; and in addition to these two components there may be also circumstance of time, space, cause, or manner which are not directly involved in the event but attendant on it (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004: 170). The grammar of processes, participants and accompanying circumstances is termed technically as Transitivity system comprising choices available for a clause are realised by smaller units: verbal groups realise processes, nominal groups realise participants and prepositional phrases realise circumstances (Painter, 1999: 49). This research is an attempt to track the students' narrative writing development through an analysis focusing on viewpoint of transitivity

system; therefore this system will be discussed much more detailed later under the transitivity system sub-heading.

## **2) Interpersonal Meta-function**

Along with Experiential meta-function, language also provides resources for its users to enact social relationships. This function is realised in language by the organisation of Interpersonal meta-function which actualises the possibility of information exchange and brings about the development of options available for the speakers to interact through language in various ways, such as: instruction, contradiction, question, statement, command, etc. (Painter, 1989; 1999). In terms of grammar, especially in English grammar, this function is realised by the system of Mood providing the speakers alternatives in building different interactional status. The speakers may take up a role to give something to the addressees or to demand something from them.

Furthermore, “something” which is given or demanded in here comprises two possible commodities termed as: information and goods or services (Martin, Matthiessen and Painter, 1997: 57). If someone uses language with an aim of getting the addressees to do something for him/her, then the commodity which is being demanded will be an action or object, thus the exchanged commodity can be either services or goods. Language, in such speech event is brought to help the process along, and the commodity which is being exchanged could exist independently of language. On the other hand, if a speaker uses language with the aim of getting the addressee to tell him/her something, then what is being exchanged is information.

Language in such speech event is a fundamental means to get the process done; the only answer expected is a verbal one. These commodities – information as well as goods and services – further define four primary speech functions as resources for the speakers to be selected every time they use language: offer, command, statement and question (Martin, 1997: 56-57; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004: 107-108). These speech functions are illustrated in the table below.

**Table 3.** Sample of Speech Functions and Responses (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004: 108).

		<b>Initiation</b>	<b>Response</b>	
			<b>Expected</b>	<b>Discretionary</b>
Give	<b>Goods &amp; Services</b>	<b>Offer:</b> Shall I give you this teapot?	<b>Acceptance:</b> Yes, please, do!	<b>Rejection:</b> No, thanks
Demand		<b>Command:</b> Give me that teapot!	<b>Undertaking:</b> Here you are	<b>Refusal:</b> I won't
Give	<b>Information</b>	<b>Statement:</b> He is giving her the tea pot.	<b>Acknowledgement:</b> Is he?	<b>Contradiction</b> No, he isn't
Demand		<b>Question:</b> What is he giving her?	<b>Answer:</b> A teapot.	<b>Disclaimer:</b> I don't know

In addition to the Mood element of a clause, there are also two systems responsible in construing Interpersonal meaning, especially in English grammar, known as system of Polarity and Modality. The system of Polarity deals with the options available for the speakers to choose between positive and negative clause, whereas the system of Modality comprises the speaker's resources in expressing judgement, or request of the judgement of the addressees, on the status of what is being said (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004: 143). Furthermore, there are four main kinds of modality available in English grammar, i.e. probability, usuality,

obligation, and readiness (Martin, Matthiessen and Painter, 1997: 64). Following table shows the sample of kinds of modality in English.

**Table 4.** Samples of Kinds of Modality in English (Martin, Matthiessen and Painter. 1997: 64)

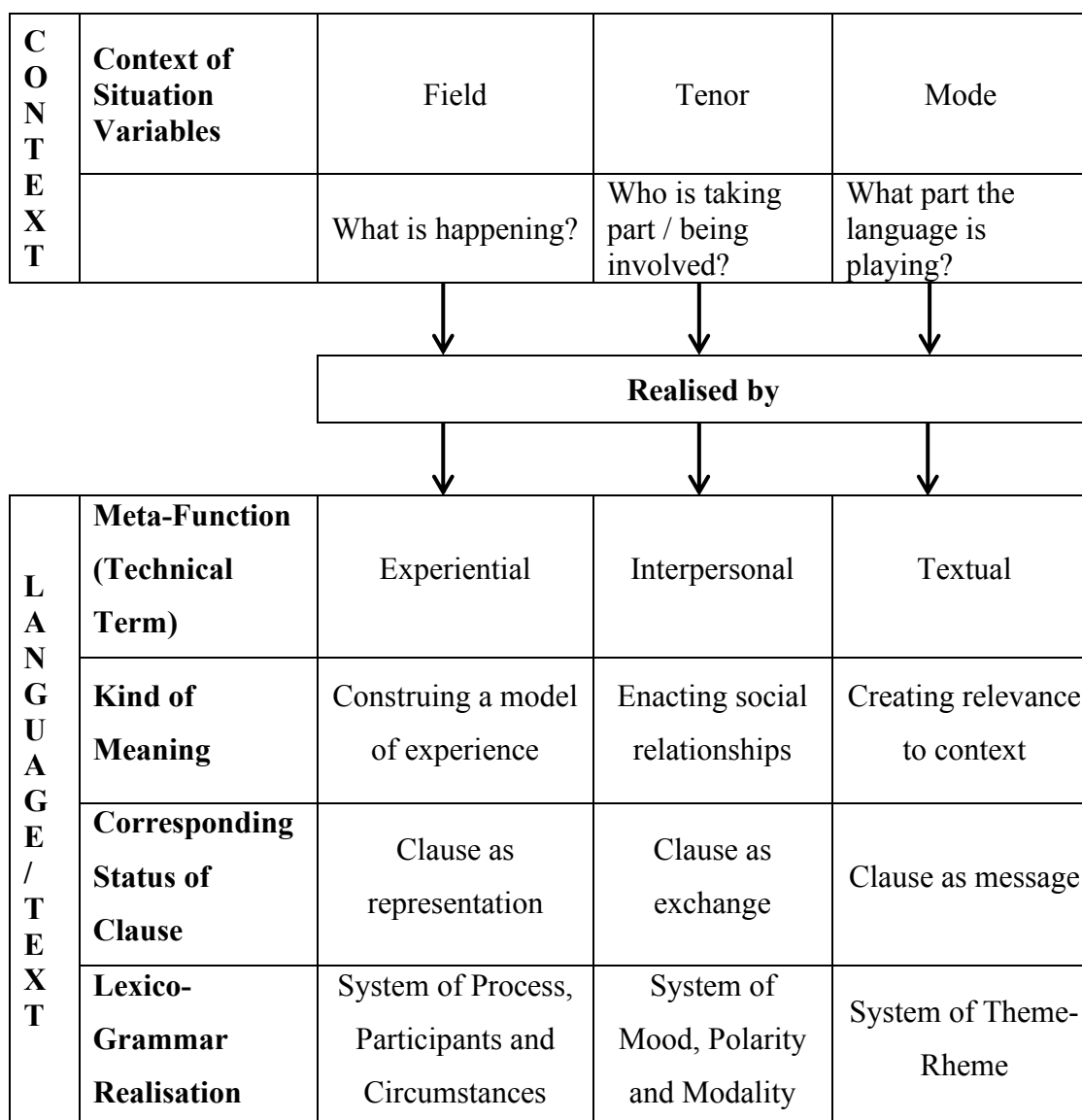
<b>Kinds of Modality</b>	<b>Finite: Modals</b>	<b>Mood Adjuncts</b>
<b>Probability</b>	may, might, can, could, will, would, should, must	probably, possibility, certainly, perhaps, maybe
<b>Usuality</b>	may, might, can, could, will, would, should, must	usually, sometimes, always, never, ever, seldom, rarely
<b>Obligation</b>	may, might, can, could, should, must	definitely, absolutely, possibly, at all cost, by all means
<b>Readiness: Inclination ability</b>	may, might, can, could, will, would, must, shall	willingly, readily, gladly, certainly, easily

### 3) Textual Meta-unction

Finally, another function working simultaneously with Experiential and Interpersonal meta-function in building up meaning in a clause should be explained here is the Textual meta-function. Textual meta-function enables the language users to create an effective on going discourse through organisation of system of Theme. Martin, Matthiessen and Painter (1997: 21) write that the system of Theme is concerned with the organisation of information within a single clause, and thus with the organisation of the larger text. Further, this system organises the clause to show what its local context in relation to the general context of the text which it reserves in. This system comprises two elements which are technically termed as Theme: the element which serves as the point of departure of the message of a clause, it is

that which locates and orients the clause within its context, and Rheme: the remainder of the message, or the part in which the Theme is developed (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004: 64; Martin, Matthiessen and Painter, 1997).

Following figure sums up the inter-relation between the context of situation and meta-functions in SFL:



**Figure 2.** Realisation of Contextual Variables into Meta-Function (Modified from Halliday & Hasan, 1989: 26 & Halliday, 1994: 36)

**e. Organisation of Language: Rank Scale in SFL**

The term of classes or part of speech, such as nouns, verbs, adjectives and so on, is commonly found in the traditional analysis of grammar. These classes are needed to classify the words and therefore can help us to analyse the patterns of those words in a clause. SFL, on the other hand, tends to analyse and describe the patterns of language not only by referring to those classes of words but also at several different levels or ranks for language is much more than merely a string of words (Butt et al., 2000: 29).

From these different levels of the language realisation we can understand the creative power and the complexity of human language. Words or lexis are made of morphemes and the grammatical patterns structure those words into phrases or groups and finally form clauses (Feez & Joice, 1998: 7). Thus, the realisation of meaning in language is basically the process of selecting suitable lexical items as well as structuring those lexical items into the proper grammatical patterns, instead of simply putting the suitable word class for their suitable slot in a sentence. In SFL, this pattern is technically termed as lexico-grammar.

In effort to describe language at different level, Halliday in *Introduction of Functional Grammar* (1994) and further revised in Halliday and Matthiessen (2004) introduced the term of Rank scale. The notion of Rank scale in SFL refers to the different levels of organisation within grammar of a language (Lock, 1996: 4). The concept of Rank scale is important since it helps us to understand how the language works to construe a meaning at different levels. Christie, regarding to the concept of Rank scale, wrote that language functions (to construe meaning) on a

number of ranks, each one incorporating the elements that lie beneath it (Christie, 2005: 65). The Rank scale of language can be illustrated as the table below:

**Table 5.** Levels of rank scale in SFL (adopted from Butt et al., 2000: 29)

<b>Rank Scale</b>		
<b>A clause complex</b>	consist of	<b>one or more clauses</b>
<b>A clause</b>	consist of	<b>one or more groups or phrases</b>
<b>A group or phrase</b>	consist of	<b>one or more words</b>
<b>A word</b>	consist of	<b>one or more morphemes</b>
<b>Morpheme</b>		

The unit of each rank are made up of one or more units of the rank below. The highest rank, as shown in the table, is the clause complex which is made up of one or more clauses. The term of clause complex here is important to be considered as it is a technical concept replacing the concept of sentence in the traditional grammar tradition.

It is generally understood in the traditional grammar tradition that the unit of language which consists of more than one clause is called a sentence. But this term is somewhat problematic since the term sentence often refers to the form of written language, as Butt et al. (Butt et al., 2000: 30) indicate a sentence is a piece of written language that in English conventionally begins with capital letters and ends at the next following next stop.

Since this research is more focused on the attempt to see the form of language as the meaning representative, the term clause complex is more suitable. Clause complex is a language structure that consists of one clause working by itself – to construe meaning – or a group of clauses that work together through some kind of logical relationship (Butt et al., 2000: 30). Further, when there are more than one clause forming a clause complex, they are always linked by conjunctions, as



Thompson (2013: 22) writes that clause complex refers to two or more clause linked by coordination and/or subordination in a larger structural unit.

The unit below the clause complex level is a clause. A clause is a message that is recognised because it has a verb within it (Cristie, 2005: 66). Bloor and Bloor (2004: 7) add that a clause is made up of identifiable constituents, each of which has its own structure and follows a grammatical pattern. A clause is constructed by words or group of words. The groups are the unit below the clause consisting of one or more words. Each of these groups has their specific function of their own. Noun groups usually function as the subject or object within the clause. Verbal groups then function as the predicate of the clause and the adverbial groups describe the circumstance. Further, there is also a type of groups which functions to link the clauses logically, i.e. conjunction groups.

Moreover, there is another unit existing below the level of word rank, i.e. the rank of morpheme. Morpheme refers to the smallest, or more accurately, the most minimal linguistic units in words (Christie, 2005: 66). Morpheme is a unit of meaning potentially adding the meaning of a word. Further, morpheme also can be referred to a single word which cannot be broken down into a small unit of meaning. Thus, elephant, economy, or misery, for example, can be considered as a word as well as a morpheme for they represent a meaning and cannot be broken down into small unit anymore – to construe another meaning. Yet, those words can have addition meaning by adding another morpheme, for example by adding –s at the end of the words. Elephants, economies, and miseries, then represent another

meaning. A clearer picture regarding the classification of the level may be described by the table below:

**Table 6.** Example of the rank scale level (cited from Christie, 2005: 67)

<b>A clause complex:</b> Surprisingly, the economy is showing signs of improvement // even though some economists predict // that in the new year the economy may go to recession.			
<b>Clauses:</b> surprisingly, the economy is showing signs of improvement even though some economists predict that in the new year the economy may go to recession.			
<b>Groups:</b>			
<b>Noun groups</b>	<b>Verb groups</b>	<b>Adverb groups</b>	<b>Conjunction group</b>
the economy	is showing	Surprisingly	even though
sign of improvement	predict		
some economists	may go		
the economy			
<b>Words (not a complete list):</b> surprisingly the economy predict that new year into recession			
<b>Morphemes (not a complete list):</b>			
surprise(e)	-ing		-ly
recess	-ion		
show	-ing		
econom(y)	-ists		
improve	-ment		

Another technical concept which has to be considered here is the concept of embedded clauses and phrases. Embedded clause is a clause functions as an

expanding details of a noun groups. Also, the noun groups can be further expanded by the embedded phrase. Example of made-up sentences – or clause complex – on the table below can illustrate what we refer as embedded clause and phrase here:

**Table 7.** Example of embedded clause and phrase (cited from Christie, 2005: 68)

The man [in the ticket office] sold me three tickets.	Embedded phrase
The man [[who was in the ticket office]] sold me three tickets.	Embedded clause

The phrase *in the ticket level* on the first sentence obviously a phrase or groups, yet it is not stand as a separate noun group. Also the clause *who was in the ticket office* on the second sentence does not stand alone as a separate clause even though it is indeed a clause since it has a verb. Instead they are function as the expanding unit providing further details about the noun group *the man*. This unit also known as down-ranked clause or phrase since they are no longer have status as a separate clause or phrase, instead they are a part within the noun group.

#### **f. Transitivity System**

Transitivity system is responsible for construing experiential meaning which enables the speakers of a language represent what is going on in the world (Martin, Mathiessen and Painter, 1997: 100; Derewianka 2011: 13). While the term transitivity in traditional grammar description is identified as a way distinguishing between verbs according to whether they have an object or not, SFL uses this term in a much broader sense which refers to a system for describing the whole clause (Thompson, 2014: 94).

Butt et al. (2000: 46) add that language forms the landscape of human experience in terms of the things, events and circumstance and these three general categories of our experiences are typically occur together in a clause, with a pivotal element of clause being the expression of event. More specifically, according to Droga and Humphrey, experiential meanings are concerned with how we name and describe what is going on (events, activities, behaviours or stets of being), who or what is involved (people, places, things, concepts, etc.), and circumstances surrounding these events (where, when, how, with, what, etc.) (2003: 29). Regarding the configuration of process, participants and circumstances in construing experience, Halliday and Matthissen write:

Our most powerful impression of experience is that it consists of a flow of events, or 'goings-on'. This flow of events is chunked into quanta of change by grammar of the clause: each quantum of change is modelled as a figure... All figures consist of a process unfolding though time and of participants being directly involved in this process in some way; and in addition there may be circumstances of time, space, cause, manner or one of a few other types. These circumstances are not directly involved in the process; rather they attendant on it (2004: 170).

Further, those three elements of clause – and hence the elements of experience – are realised in grammar by three different sources. Different events or process are realised by different verbal group. The things involved in event or participants are realised by nominal group or prepositional phrases. Then the element of Circumstances is realised by adverbial groups, prepositional phrases and, occasionally, by nominal groups functioning as if they are adverbs (Butt et al. 2000: 47). The following table will help us to see how these elements of experiences are realised in the clause as well as their grammatical representation:

**Table 8.** Elements of clause and its grammatical realisation (cited from Derewianka, 2011: 14)

Where?	Who/what is taking part?	What is happening?	How?
In the treetop	the cat	was smiling	mysteriously.
<i>Circumstance</i>	<i>Participants</i>	<i>Process</i>	<i>Circumstance</i>
↙ prepositional phrase	↙ noun group	↙ verb group	↙ Adverb
CLAUSE			

From the sample of the clause above, it can be seen that the clause can be broken into three main elements, i.e. Participants, Process and Circumstance, in order to understand how language functions as the representation tool for our experience. The following description will elaborate more closely how the system in English grammar represents those experiences.

### 1) Processes and Participants

The world, as indicated earlier, is not static and involves events and happenings. Language, as resource, functions to enable people to represent those events and happenings. It is Processes which represent the elements of experience which can be summarised as the question: “What is going on in the world?” Processes in grammar are realised by means of verbal group, which is either one word, belonging to the class verb, or a group of words with a class verb word as the head or nucleus of the group (Butt et al. 2000: 50). In addition, participants are the entities involved directly in the process (Bloor & Bloor, 2004: 109), therefore, they

are inherent in the process, meaning every experiential type of clause has at least one participant (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004: 175).

Because our experiences of the world are so varied, the process can express many different kinds of meanings. Some verb groups represent meaning about doing, saying or sensing or some other verb group can express meaning about what something is (Droga & Humphrey, 2003: 30). Thus, in SFL, these different kinds of events lead to the conception of different types of Processes. According to Martin, Matthiessen and Paiter (1997: 102), in English, the process types can be identified as three major ones, i.e. material, mental, and relational, and three further process types, i.e. behavioural, verbal and existential. The following paragraphs present the description of each process types along with the participants engaged in each process:

**a) Material Processes**

Material processes construe doings and happenings which are prototypically concrete; meaning they represent changes in the material world that can be perceived such as motion in space, and change in physical make up (Martin, Matthiessen & Painter, 1997: 103). The material clause always involves at least one participant, i.e. Actor which brings about the unfolding of the process through time, leading to an outcome that is different from the initial phase of the unfolding (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004: 180). In addition to Actor, other participants in material clause are also possible involved, i.e. Goal: a participant impacted by a doing which can be either brought into existence by the doing or it exists prior to the doing but is affected in some way; Beneficiary: a participant benefiting from



perception, inclination or liking/disliking – or known as affect (2000: 55). The inherent participants of mental clause is the Senser which is endowed with consciousness therefore must be realised by human or other entities which is metaphorically personified; in addition to Senser, there are further participants which is identified as the Phenomenon being sensed which can be any kind of entity entertained or created by consciousness (Martin, Matthiessen & Painter, 1997: 105).

Sample of Mental processes can be seen in the clauses in the following table:

Annie	knows	the answer.
Senser	Process: Mental: cognition	Phenomenon

Jessica	likes	Ice-cream.
Senser	Process: Mental: affect	Phenomenon

(Butt et al., 2000: 55-56)

Moreover, the Phenomenon in mental clause may be represented as either content of sensing or idea which is construed through embedded clause or projected clause (Martin, Matthiessen, & Painter, 1997: 106), as shown by the sample below:

Annie	knows	what she wants.
Senser	Process: Mental: affect	Phenomenon: Embedded clause

I	thought,	he looks ridiculous.
Senser	Process: Mental: affect	Phenomenon: Projected clause



Mental Processes are sometimes found in poems, but they are also used a lot in stories of various kinds to tell readers how participants in the stories are feeling. The Mental Processes reveal aspects of characters and their responses to events (Christie, 2005: 77). Moreover, according to Droga and Humphrey, sensing verbs are often used in recounts and narratives where the writer or characters reflect upon and evaluate what has happened by expressing their thoughts and feelings. Also, this verbs sometimes used in exposition and discussion text types where the writer wants to state believes or ideas (2003: 31).

**c) Relational Processes**

Relational process as its name implies, serves to characterise and to identify (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004: 210). More specifically, Relational processes build some relationships – descriptive, defining or possessive – between participants in a clause (Christie, 2005: 71). Relational processes are typically realised by the verb be or some verbs of the same class – known as copular verbs, such as: seem, become, appear – or sometimes by verbs such as have, own, posses (Bloor & Bloor, 2003: 120).

According to Butt et al (2000: 58-59), the main characteristic of Relational Processes is that they relate a participant to its identity or description. Thus, within relational processes there are two main types of Relational Processes. First is Relational Attributive which relates a participant to its general characteristics or description. The participants in this type are Carrier: the entity that carries the attribute and the Attribute itself (Thomspson, 2014: 102). Second type of Relational

process is Relational Identifying which related a participant to its identity, role or meaning.

It is important to note here that the Process of Relational Identifying performs two separate functions. The first function is the one which provides a new identity. The second function is that the Relational Identifying Process allows us to take any form and identify its function, and conversely, to take any function and identify its form (Butt, et al., 2000: 59). The following clauses present the samples of the Relational Processes:

The office	Is	sumptuous.
Carrier	Process: Relational	Attributive

The book case	Seems	A fine piece of furniture.
Carrier	Process: Relational	Attributive

Your office	Is	the room on the left.
Identified	Process: Relational identifying	Identifier

(Butt et al., 2000: 58-59)

**d) Verbal Processes**

Verbal processes construe processes of saying which include not only the different mode of saying, but also other semiotic processes that are not necessary verbal, for instance: showing, indicating, etc. (Martin, Matthiessen & Painter, 1997: 108). There is one major participant involved in any verbal process, i.e. Sayer which is typically a human or human-like speaker (Thopmson, 2014: 106). Other participants may be involved in this process are Receiver: the addressee of the speech interaction and the content of the saying which can be construed by either a

projected clause or a Verbiage or the nominal group representing the message of the saying itself. The following table presents the sample of Verbal Processes in clauses:

She	Said	“I am tired.”
	Process: Verbal	Projected clause

She	Said	that she was tired.
	Process: Verbal	Projected clause

Isabella	Told	the secret	to his best friend.
	Process: Verbal	Verbiage	Receiver

(Butt et al., 2000: 57)

Moreover, Droga and Humphrey explain that this processes as the group saying verbs. Saying verbs express meanings about what we – or others – ‘say’. This can include direct and indirect speech (2003: 30). Saying verbs are found most commonly in stories, where we get to know characters by the way they speak and interact with others (Derewianka, 2011: 20).

#### e) Behavioural Processes

Behavioural processes represent the processes of typically human physiological and psychological behaviour, like breathing, coughing, smiling, dreaming, so on. (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004: 248). Therefore, they are processes that are to do with observable behaviours that have some mental quality as well (Christie, 2005: 78). In addition (Thompson, 2014: 109) explain that this process relates to specifically human psychological processes, and at the same time

they allow us to distinguish between purely mental processes and the outward physical sign of those process. Behavioural processes have one participant, i.e. Behaver which is typically a conscious being (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004: 250). Behavioural Processes are often found in stories, where the object is to reveal both how people appear and what they seem to be feeling (Christie, 2005: 79). The sample of Behavioural Process can be seen from clauses in the following table:

The woman	laughed.
	Process: Behavioural
The cat	sleeps on the back veranda.
	Process: Behavioural

(Butt et al., 2000: 55)

**f) Existential Processes**

The function of Existential Processes is to construe being as being simple existence. Existential Processes typically preceded by the word “there” and occur in the beginning of a text or where the text is moving into a new phase (Butt et al., 2000: 58). According to Christie, Existential Processes functions to bring something into existence. The word “there” functions to bring “something” into existence so that we can express is into spoken and or written language (Christie, 2005: 73). Moreover, Halliday and Matthiessen (2004: 257) write that Existential processes make an important, specialised contribution to various kinds of text, for example in narrative, they serve to introduce central participants in the orientation stage at the beginning of a story. The following clauses are the sample of the Existential Processes:

Once upon a time there were four children.

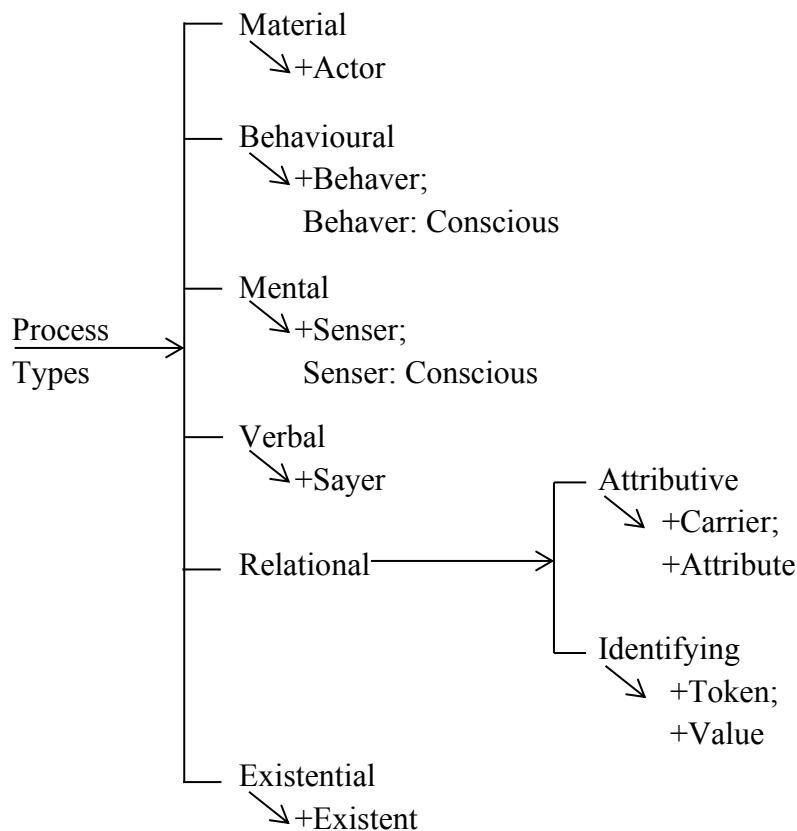
Process: Existential

There Is a strange smell.

Process: Existential

(Butt et al., 2000: 58)

The process types as well as the participant roles associated with each process above can be represented as a system network construing the choices available in English in order to construct experience. This system is related closely to the term delicacy in SFL. Delicacy refers to the move from broader categories of language system into sub-types of the system (Matthiessen, Teruya, & Lam, 2010: 80). As Matthiessen and Halliday (2004: 174) put it that in transitivity system, the different types of process types: material, behavioural, mental, verbal, relational, and existential are the entry condition to more delicate part of the network that represent the grammar for particular process types. This means that each process type has potential to expand to more detail system of choices as demanded by the contexts. The term system delicacy is an important concept from SFL in researching first as well as second/foreign language development (Halliday, 1988/2007; Perret, 2000) therefore this concept will be explained more detailed in the researching second/foreign language development sub heading below. The simple transitivity system network can be seen in the figure below:



**Figure 3.** Simple Transitivity System Network Represented as Process Type (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004: 173)

## 2) Circumstance

Circumstance in SFL refers to aspect of transitivity encoding the background against which the process takes place (Thompson, 2014: 144). This element carries a semantic load but is neither process nor participant. Circumstance is general across the process types and is less centrally involved in the process than participants (Martin, Matthiessen, & Painter, 1997: 103). More specifically, this element concerns with such matters as the settings – temporal and physical – the manner in which the process is implemented, and the people or other entities accompanying the process rather than directly engaged in it (Bloor & Bloor, 2004: 131).

**Table 9.** Nine basic types of circumstantial elements (Fontaine, 2013: 80)

Type	Sub-type	Question answered	Example
Extent	Distance	How far?	He ran <i>three miles</i> .
	Duration	How long?	He ran <i>for three days</i> .
	Frequency	How frequently?	He ran <i>every day</i> .
Location	Place	Where?	He ran <i>in Toronto</i> .
	Time	When?	He ran <i>last year</i> .
Manner	Means	By what means?	He saved her <i>with a rope</i> .
	Quality	How?	He saved her <i>quickly</i> .
	Comparison	Like what?	He ran <i>like the wind</i> .
	Degree	How much?	He loved her <i>more than anyone</i> .
Cause	Reason	Why?	He ran <i>because he loved to</i> .
	Purpose	For what purpose?	He ran <i>to raise money</i> .
	Behalf	On whose behalf?	He ran <i>for his sister</i> .
Contingency	Condition	Under what condition?	<i>In the event of fire</i> leave the building.
	Default	Under what negative condition?	<i>Without an agreement,</i> the plan will fail.
	Concession	With what concession?	<i>Despite her help,</i> the plan failed.
Accompaniment	Comitative	Who/what with?	John ran <i>with Jane</i> .
	Additive	Who/what else?	John wears mittens <i>in addition to his gloves</i> .
Role	Guise	What as?	She spoke <i>as his mentor</i> .
	Product	What into?	He was transformed <i>into a prince</i> .
Matter	Matter	What about?	He warned me <i>about the film</i> .
Angle	Source	According to whom?	<i>According to the lecturer,</i> the class is cancelled.
	Viewpoint	From whose viewpoint/perspective?	<i>To me,</i> he's excellent.

## **2. On Systemic Functional Approach to Language Learning and Teaching**

Perhaps, the most frequent debate which appears within discussion of language learning in the 20<sup>th</sup> century is the debate between nature and nurture argument (Christie, 2005; Christie & Derewianka, 2008; Whong, 2011). The proponents of nature argument say that the development of language is completely a matter of internal biological process, hence students' performance depends primarily on what nature give them, so that the teacher (social) contribution is relatively negligible. On the other hand, those who agree with the nurture argument say that language development involves primarily external linguistic input, thus it has been argued that it is the impact of educational processes (social interaction) that is essential to students' performance, and whatever is innate is crucially shaped by the work of social interactions (Christie & Derewianka, 2008: 213).

From the view of nature argument, Chomsky has argued the fact that children, when learning their mother tongue, can develop their language ability in considerable speed and create an indefinite number of sentences despite limited and sometimes fragmentary language exposure indicates a deep understanding of universal grammar which is built in human brain (Christie, 2005; Whong, 2011). Chomsky further proposes the presence of language acquisition device in human brain which provides all children, regardless of their mother tongue, a common deep linguistic structure enables them to internalise the grammar of their mother tongue (Christie, 2005).

Many other scholars have challenged this view by proposing argument that the presence of an environment in which children is constantly exposed to language



ensures that children learn their language. Moreover, language is learned because of relationships and interactions of many kinds with other people, all of which stimulate the need to engage in meaning making behaviour, hence learning language is a complex social process (Christie, 2005: 15-16).

While the opposition between nature and nurture argument is significance to the development of language learning and teaching theories, SFL proposes that such opposition is unproductive. SFL theorists rather see that possession of language requires both an inborn capacity of human brain as well as participation in social process, in other words, there is only innate capacity thorough nurture (social) process (Christie, 2005: 15-16; Christie & Derewianka, 2008).

Following paragraphs present some detailed assumptions developed among the SFL proponents with regard to its view on language learning and teaching.

#### **a. SFL Views on Language Learning and Teaching**

Those who work within SFL framework are unlikely to think about language learning as merely a natural internal process, SFL theorists also do not agree with the dichotomy between nature and nurture argumentation, they rather see language learning as a process in learning how to mean and to expand one's meaning potential (Halliday, 1993, 2007; Butt et al, 2010). The theory sees growth in language as growth in the ability to do and to mean as well as to participate in various kinds of contextual situations (Schleppegrell, 2014: 4). Moreover, because meaning, as Halliday defines it, is an interactive process, not something that we do alone, language learning is then further described as a process of interacting with

others in order to organise experience into meaning, the meanings that the learner are able to make increase as their social experience and interaction widens (Butt et al, 2010: 258).

In terms of grammar, SFL also rejects the dichotomy between function-focused and form-focused instruction, rather SFL has always endeavoured to describe the relationship between grammatical forms and their functions (Schleppegrell, 2004; Derewianka & Jones, 2010: 6). Thus, the proponent of SFL shall not see an explicit grammar instruction as an unnecessary process for language acquisition to take place as shown, for instance, in Khrasen's (1982) approach to language teaching. SFL rather provides a bridge between form and meaning and shows systematic as well as detailed map in the relationship between grammatical classes and the function they perform (Lock, 1996; Bloor & Bloor, 2007; Butt et al, 2010; Derewianka & Jones, 2010). Therefore, the language teaching should not be focused only in introducing the language rules for the sake of rules mastery. Instead it must be focused in the attempt to lead the students to learn how those rules work in negotiating meaning in various contexts.

In line with that, Derewianka (1990: 5) argues:

A functional approach to language does not advocate teaching about language by handing down perspective recipes. Rather it concerned with providing information about the development of effective text for particular purposes, and providing it at the point of need within the context of real, purposeful language use.

Furthermore, Schreppgerell (2004: 4) also argues that SFL provides a functional grammar that connects with meaning and lets the teachers relate lexico-grammatical forms to larger systems of meaning in the language, as well as to what

is being done in the social context. Thus it offers a systematic way for teachers and learners in recognising and exploring the different language resources needed to accomplish different tasks in different subject areas.

Therefore, the teachers taking SFL view of language will begin to think that using language is a process of making meanings, weaving these meanings together coherently, and shaping them in a purposeful whole to produce a text. The teachers having this insight into classroom are less inclined to design classroom activities in which students work with unconnected language fragments. Instead, they are more concerned about designing activities in which the students work with the language of whole authentic texts (Butt et al, 2000).

Another issue raised in the development of SFL theory in language learning and teaching is that SFL theorists reject an idea promoting implicit language teaching which is drawn upon the natural view of language learning mentioned above and exemplified in the model of teaching proposed by Krashen (1982). Drawing upon the natural approach to language learning, the teachers are very often reluctant to intervene once they have provided a “comprehensible” input to the students since the teachers’ intervention will be considered as disruption in the students learning process. It is argued that it is enough to place the students in a rich language environment and let the natural internal learning process operate without being interrupted by the teachers; when the students fail in this process, it appears to be the problem of the cognitive capacity (Butt et al, 2000: 258). The consequences of these view is the teachers’ role in interaction is restricted to monitoring input, and the interaction is mostly appeared between the students.

Further, the students are rarely conscious of what is expected of them in terms of language learning (Feez & Joyce, 1998: 25).

The SFL proponents, rather, tends to take an opposing view promoting explicit approach to language teaching (Feez & Joyce, 1998; Butt et al, 2000; Schleppegrell, 2004, 2014). This approach clearly identifies what is to be learned and what is to be assessed, and the teacher takes more explicit role in intervening the learning process, where necessary, to support the students as they build knowledge and skills which have been explicitly negotiated (Feez and Joyce, 1998: 26). Besides the explicit intervention, SFL proponents have been always promoting a position for being more explicit about how language means what it does which enables such kind of consciousness raising stimulating meaningful interaction in the teaching and learning process (Schleppegrell, 2014: 11-12). Being explicit also means providing equal opportunities for all students to be engaged in teaching and learning process that hopefully allow the students to participate successfully in school as well as other institution of society (Schleppegrell, 2004: 157).

Furthermore, a successful participation in school as well as broader social institution linguistically means that the students need to recognise that particular language instances, or texts, are valued in particular social context, and to understand how those valued texts achieve the social meaning through the grammatical as well as lexical construction and choices (Schleppegrell, 2004: 156). In other words, the students need to develop a new ways of using language socially through developing a competence in constructing various texts with reference to the registers and genres appropriate for certain social contexts

By drawing on the parameters in the context of situation, or registers, the teachers are able to present an explicit description regarding to the variety of language which is likely to occur in any particular context of situation in which the students are asked to use the target language. By this description the teacher can help the students identify the meanings, words and structures which are possible, or even probable in that context (Butt et al, 2000). More specifically, Butt et al. identify the significance of knowledge of context of situation, or register, adopted by the teachers into the classroom as follows:

1. having explored the field of situation, teachers can identify words and structures for making meanings about the experiences in that particular occasion;
2. having explored the tenor of situation, teachers can identify the words and structures for building relationships and expressing points of view in that particular context;
3. having explored the mode of a situation, teachers can identify words and structures for organising these meanings into a text in that particular context.

(2000: 16-17)

Having explored the context of situation which is meaningful tool for the students to identify the difference language choices appear in the text of different context, the students also need to internalise the insight that the texts can have different social purpose from an occasion to another. Here the concept of context of culture, or genre, comes in. The structure of a particular text reflects the general purpose of the language used for the culture in which the target language is used.

The texts that share the same general social purpose in the culture share the same underlying structural pattern, or the same genre. Regarding to this assumption, Butt et al. write:

When the students are introduced to the structural patterns of different genres, they build a rich repertoire of text elements. This repertoire becomes the basis for constructing whole text that are sensitive to the demands of the culture and, therefore, effective in the culture. As the students gain confidence and expertise with different text patterns, they are able to adapt, combine and customise these patterns to meet individual and complex purposes (2000: 17).

The insight of text, register and genre in language learning and teaching has been concerned and developed by the SFL proponents formulating a language teaching approach which is widely known as SFL genre-based approach (Johns, 2002; Christie, 2013). This approach will be reviewed briefly under the following sub-heading.

#### **b. SFL Genre-Based Pedagogy**

Drawing upon Halliday's social semiotic approach to language, genre theory in language teaching was initially developed by SFL's proponents and researchers in Australia known as Sydney School (Macken-Horarik, 2002; Martin, 2009; Rose, 2010, 2015; Christie, 2013) and has been widely employed in English language curriculum throughout the world (Johns, 2002; Derewianka, 2003) including Indonesia (Emilia, 2005; Emilia et al, 2008; Emilia & Tahseem, 2013; Martin & Rose, 2012). Consistent with the theory of language proposed by SFL, genre-based approach is primarily concern with what the students can do with whole text in context (Feez & Joyce, 1998: 4). Moreover, it is design to assist the students to understand how knowledge of contexts can be applied to the construction of texts in order to achieve variety social purposes (de Silva Joyce & Feez, 2016: 25-26).

The concept of genre, in fact, is an extension of the concept of tripartite immediate contexts variables in SFL explained before, i.e. field referring to the

nature of social action, tenor referring to the roles taken by the speakers, and mode referring to the roles taken by the language as the channel of communication, taken together, these variables called register. It is Martin and his colleagues who propose the further context of language working beyond register, i.e. context of culture or genre (Martin, 2009; Rose, 2010, 2015; Christie, 2013). Working with the extensive analysis of many reading and writing tasks in all school subjects that students encounter across the years of primary and secondary schooling, Martin and his colleagues proposed a working definition for genre as staged, goal oriented social processes; staged because it usually takes the speakers more than one phase of meaning to achieve particular purpose, goal-oriented since unfolding phases are designed to accomplish something and the speakers will feel a sense of frustration if they cannot achieve the goal, and social in that the speakers undertake genres interactively with others (Martin, 2009; Rose, 2010, 2015). Further, genre is also identified as recurrent configuration of meanings that represent ways of getting things done and enacts the social practice of a culture (Christie, 2013; Rose, 2015).

From the extensive and close analysis of many reading and writing tasks in all school subjects that students encounter across the years of primary and secondary schooling, the genre theorists than proposed key genres for teaching language across curriculum as follow:

**Table 10.** Key Genres Taught at School (Macken-Horarik, 2002: 21-23)

	<b>Social Purpose</b>	<b>Social Location</b>	<b>Schematic Structure</b>	<b>Description of Stages</b>
<b>Recount</b>	Retells events for the purpose of informing or entertaining. Events usually arranged in a temporal sequence.	Recounts are found in personal letters or oral and written histories, police records, insurance claims and excursion “write-ups.”	{Orientation ^ Record of Events ^ (Reorientation) }	<p><b>Orientation:</b> Provides information about the situation;</p> <p><b>Record of events:</b> Presents events in temporal sequence;</p> <p><b>Reorientation:</b> Optional stage bringing the events into the present.</p>
<b>Narrative</b>	Entertains and instructs via reflection on experience. Deals with problematic events which individuals have to resolve for better or worse.	Narratives are found across all aspects of cultural life, in novels, short stories, movies, sitcoms, and radio dramas. They are important in subjects such as English.	{Orientation ^ Complication ^ (Evaluation) ^ Resolution}	<p><b>Orientation:</b> Provides relevant information about the characters’ situation;</p> <p><b>Complication:</b> Introduces one or more problems for characters to solve;</p>



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				<p><b>Evaluation:</b> Highlights the significance of the events for characters;</p> <p><b>Resolution:</b> Sorts out the problems for better or worse</p>
<hr/>				
<b>News Story</b>	Presents recent events regarded as “newsworthy” or of public importance.	News story are found in newspapers, television, and radio broadcast.	{Lead ^ Key Events ^ Quotes}	<p><b>Lead:</b> Provides newsworthy information about the events;</p> <p><b>Key Events:</b> Provides background information about events or story;</p> <p><b>Quotes:</b> Provides commentary from relevant sources about significance of the events.</p>
<hr/>				
<b>Information Reports</b>	Describes “the ways thing are” in our natural, built, and social environment	Information reports package information are found in encyclopaedias	{General Statement (or Classification) ^ Description of Aspects ^	<p><b>General Statement:</b> Provides information about the</p>
<hr/>				

	by firstly classifying things and then describing their special characteristics.	, brochures, and government documents. They are useful for locating information on a topic.	Description of Activities}	subject matter;  <b>Description of Aspects:</b> Lists and elaborates the parts or qualities of the subject matter;  <b>Description of Activities:</b> Could be behaviours, functions, or uses.
<b>Procedure</b>	Instructs in how to do something through a sequence of steps.	Procedures can be found in science experiments and in instructional manuals such as gardening and cookbooks and technical instruction sheets.	{Goal ^ Steps 1-n ^ (Results)}	<b>Orientation:</b> Gives information about the purpose of the activity (might be in the little or in the opening paragraphs);  <b>Steps 1-n:</b> Presents the activities needed to achieve the goal. They need to be put in right order.  <b>Results:</b> Optional stage describing the final state

				or “look” of activity.
<b>Explanation</b>	Accounts for how and why things are as they are. An explanation sets out the logical steps in a process.	Explanations are written by experts for textbooks, for nature programs, environmental leaflets, healthcare booklets, and so on.	{General Statement ^ Implication Sequence ^ (State)}	<p><b>General Statements:</b> Provides information about the phenomena to be explained;</p> <p><b>Implication Sequence:</b> Sets out steps in a process or the factors influencing a phenomenon in a logical sequence.</p>
<b>Exposition</b>	Argues for a particular point of view on an issue. An exposition gives reasons to support a thesis and elaborates these using evidence.	Expositions are written in school essays for subjects like History and English. They also occur in editorials, commentaries, and political debates.	{Thesis [Position ^ Preview] ^ Arguments* [Elaboration ^ Assertion] ^ Reiteration}	<p><b>Thesis:</b> Proposes a viewpoint on a topic or issue;</p> <p><b>Position ^ Preview:</b> A position is stated and the arguments listed;</p> <p><b>Arguments*:</b> The arguments are asserted and elaborated in turn;</p> <p><b>Reiteration:</b></p>

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				Returns to the thesis and concludes.
<b>Discussion</b>	Discusses an issue in the light of some kind of “frame” or opposition. Provides more than one point of view on an issue.	Discussions are found in essays, editorials, and public forums, which canvass a range of views on issues. They also occur in panel discussion and research summaries.	{Issue ^ Arguments for and against ^ Conclusion}	<b>Issue:</b> Gives information about the issue;  <b>Arguments for and against:</b> Canvasses point of view on the issue. (similarities and differences or advantages and disadvantage )  <b>Conclusion:</b> Recommends a final position on the issue.

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Genre pedagogy also emerges as an attempt to design a teaching approach which is able redistribute the semiotic resources of contemporary culture, i.e. recurrent pattern of genre, more effectively in order to democratise the outcomes of education at school (Rose, 2015: 1). This concern is raised based on the work of Martin and Rothery showing that not all the students in educational institutions have equal access to these semiotic resources, and as the result, students with reduced access to these resources are less likely to achieve successful educational outcomes

(Feez, 2002: 55). At this point, the genre pedagogy theorists are informed by the theory of sociology of education proposed by Bernstein (Rose, 2016; de Silva Joyce & Feez, 2016).

Referring to Bernstein's theories on types of pedagogy, especially on the logic of transmission of knowledge, genre pedagogy has always been characterised by both visible and interventionist approach, with a strong focus on the explicit transmission of knowledge about language in order to achieve equal access to the semantic resources mentioned before (Rose, 2015: 3). As de Silva Joyce and Feez (2016: 31) write: genre pedagogy is designed to build language competence systematically and incrementally through a shared pedagogic metalanguage helping teachers and students to collaborate more effectively in the process of learning. This view can be contrasted with the theories focused on the psychology or behaviour of individuals which views learning as either a process of passive absorption or personal discovery knowledge (Rose, 2015: 3).

Another influence on the development of genre pedagogy comes from social-constructivism psychology proposed by Vygotsky (Feez & de Silva Joyce, 1998; Feez, 2002; de Silva Joyce & Feez, 2016). This perspective emphasises the importance of social interaction and cooperative learning in constructing both cognitive and emotional images of reality (Brown, 2007: 12). To Vygotsky, the way human beings experience the environment is mediated through cultural and psychological tools. Using these tools, learners construct knowledge collaboratively with others in the same social context (Butt et al., 2000: 259). This insight holds that the language is not just private affair, but rather a socio-culturally

constructed phenomenon. Language learning then is not only a cognitive process but more also of a social activity where the process is participating in a knowledge building community, a community practice, a community of learners, particularly language learners (Kern & Warschauer, 2000).

Perhaps the most influential concept proposed by Vygotsky in the development of genre pedagogy is the notion Zone of Proximal Development (henceforth ZPD). Roughly, it is defined as the distance between learner's existing developmental state and their potential development (Brown, 2007: 13). Vygotsky defined ZPD as follows:

It is the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers (Vygotsky, 1978).

This model suggests some important things to be considered in the language learning. Firstly, if the teacher is only concerned with what students can already do with language, i.e. with their existing level of independent performance, then the students will never make any progress. Secondly, if the teacher supports students so that they move through the ZPD to their potential level of performance, real learning and progress are possible. Thirdly, this concept of language learning believes that input alone is not enough for students to reach their potential. It is proposed that learning is a collaboration between teacher and student with the teacher taking on an authoritative role similar to that of an expert supporting an apprentice (Feez & Joyce, 1998: 26).

The concept of learning in the framework of social constructivism is also developed further by American educators, Burner (Feez & Joyce, 1998, Butt et al.,

2000). Bruner interpreted two concepts from Vygotsky's work to be applied practically in the classroom, i.e. joint construction or collaboration and scaffolding.

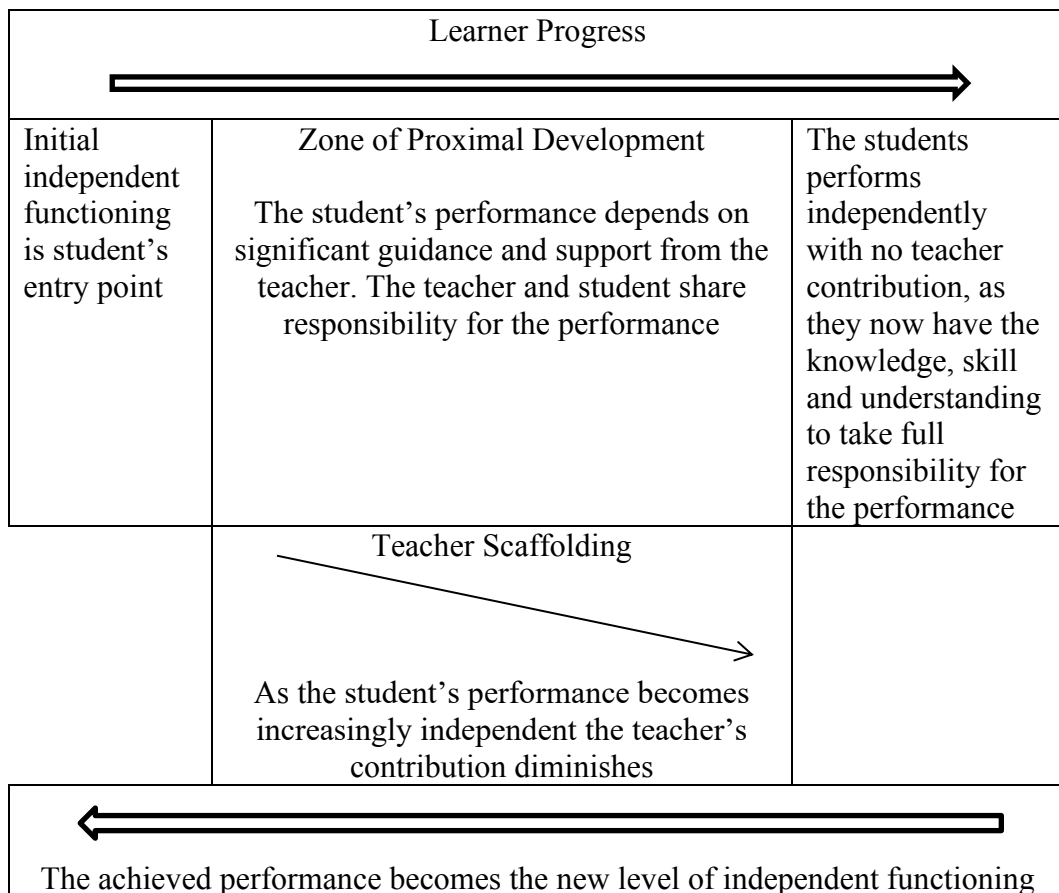
Feez and Joyce (1998) conclude briefly these concepts as follows:

Joint construction, through joint construction, the teacher and the students develop language (texts) together and share responsibility for performance until the students has the knowledge and skills to perform independently and with sole responsibility.

Scaffolding, through scaffolding, the teacher provides support for the students. This is done by providing explicit knowledge and guided practice. The teacher explicitly contributes what students are not yet able to do or do not know and adjusts the ZPD towards their potential level of independent performance.

(Feez & Joyce, 1998: 27)

Following figure illustrate the relationship between the concept of ZPD and scaffolding in genre-based approach:



**Figure 4.** Relationship between ZPD and Scaffolding (da Silva Joyce & Feez, 2016: 29)

### 3. On Researching Second/Foreign Language Development in SFL

It has been indicated before that SFL has always been developed to respond to questions about language in applied contexts including educational field of inquiry (Christie & Unsworth, 2000: 1). Schleppegrell (2007: 122) also adds that research using SFL has been exploring what is valued in students' writing, describing the language forms and registers typical of schooling contexts, and investigating the development of language from early childhood through adolescence. In fact, the development of the SFL theory has been influenced by the



research on children early language development (Halliday & Webster 2004; Painter, 1989; 1999, 2000, 2009).

The research on learners' language development in SFL is distinctive in that it shies away to use the term acquisition which widely becomes an underlying concept in researches known as second language acquisition (SLA) (Painter, 1999, 2009; Perret, 2000). According to Painter (1999: 38), SFL prefers not to use the term acquisition in that if language is seen as a commodity which is acquired, it implies an image that language is a finite and unchanging phenomenon that an individual has or lacks. SFL rather uses the concept of development implying that language is an infinite, variable, and dynamic resource for meaning which can continue to develop indefinitely and is constructed and maintained interactively. The choice of the term further indicates the assumption about language learning one holds as Perret (2000: 88) writes: acquisition connotes the involvement of independent forces within an individual's mind; on the other hand, development connotes the social nature of language learning, consistent with the assumption of language learning in SFL described earlier.

However, most of the studies in language development undertaken within SFL perspective have explored the children first language development, and seldom are there attempts to explore the learners' development on second or foreign language (Parret, 2000: 88, Llinares, 2013). Moreover, the most common method applied in tracking the children language development in SFL is longitudinal study where the researchers must have full access to do continuous diary study towards the students' development phases (Painter 2000; 2009). On the other hand, the

researchers exploring the second or foreign language development often find this method impractical since the researchers rarely have full access to the subject of study, especially in the context of foreign language where the exposure of the target language is significantly limited into the classroom (Perret, 2000). Tracking the development of second or foreign language learning also faces some issues of uncertainty as outlined by Perret (2000: 92):

...Will the learners drop out? Will they fossilize? How long will those who succeed in learning take to progress? Given that the rate of learning by older learners is unpredictable, how often should data be collected? There is a risk that insufficiently frequent data collection will miss crucial developments.

Nevertheless, due to SFL's focus on meaning-based approach to language and the great interest it takes in language pedagogy, it has potential to make a valuable contribution to second or foreign language development as outlined in Perret (2000) and more recently in Llinares (2013).

Before outlining the framework proposed by SFL in researching second/foreign language development, it is important first to identify what second and foreign language means, its characteristics and contexts as well as what makes them different from the first language development contexts. Because this research is particularly about the English language development, the discussion of second and foreign language will be restricted to English teaching and learning contexts. A brief description of English as second or foreign language will be provided in the following sub-heading:

**a. Teaching English as Second/Foreign Language**

English has become the most important international language as a means of global communication. Yet, the position of English language in the world may vary from country to country. Following the classification proposed by Braj Kachru in 1985, English language-using in the world can be classified into three layers of distinction. Countries where English is spoken as the first or native language are called the inner circle, whereas the countries where English is spoken as the official significant language beside their native language are called the outer circle. Finally, Countries which are affected by Western and where English is becoming an important language in business, science, technology, and education are called expanding circle, Indonesia is one of the country which fits this criteria.

In line with this classification, the field of TESOL also develops concepts addressing the different context of English language teaching for the students of non-native English speaker. Here, the terms English as second language (henceforth ESL) and English as foreign language (henceforth EFL) are used. The ESL context usually corresponds to the outer circle whereas the EFL context roughly parallel to the expanding circle of English language use.

Even though some experts believe that the distinction between ESL and EFL is not a clear cut and, in fact, they are often used interchangeably, there are some particular characteristics which bring about unique differences between the two. Students in the context of ESL are living in the environment where English is not their first language, yet, they need to learn English to cope with day-to-day life (Camenson, 2007:2). In the countries where English is considered as the second

language, English is the language of the mass media, of official institutions, of education, and of large commercial and organisation. Clearly, a good command of English in a second language context is “the passport” to social and economic advancement, and the successful user of the appropriate variety of English identifies himself as successful, integrated member of the language community (Broughton et al., 1980:6).

On the other hand, in the countries where English is considered as foreign language, English is not a medium of day to day life communication. Students in EFL context may live in the situation where their mother tongue is the primary other tongue. they may need to learn English for academic study, in preparation for travel to an English-speaking country, or for business purposes (Camenson, 2007:2).

Broughton et al. (1980) also noticed that English in EFL context is taught among other subjects in schools yet it does not play an essential role in national or social life. The people do not need English to live their daily life or even for social or professional advancement. Further, in foreign language situations the students of English tend to have an instrumental motivation for learning the language. The teaching of English in school may has an educational function and the older students who deliberately learn English have a clear instrumental intention such as: visiting English-speaking country, being able to communicate with English-speaking people, or being able to read English in books or any mass media.

The distinction between the context of EFL and ESL may be helpful in identifying students, teaching methods and materials, as well as the teaching-learning outcome. Gunderson (2009: 121-122) explained that the ESL is based on

the premise that English is the language of community and the school as well as the students have access to English models. On the other hand, EFL usually learned in the environments where the language of the community and the school is not English. Therefore, teachers in EFL context have some difficulties in finding access to and in providing English models for their students.

Moreover, Camenson (2007: 2) pointed out the considered differences among the context of ESL and EFL as below:

- a. EFL learners generally spend fewer hours per week studying English than their ESL counterparts in settings within English-speaking countries;
- b. EFL learners have little exposure to English outside the classroom and also have little need of opportunity to practice their newly acquired language skills;
- c. A classroom of EFL learners has a common native language background. ESL classes generally consist of students from variety countries.

Finally, the most important thing considered in this action research is that learning in a second language environment takes place with considerable access to speakers of the language being learned, whereas learning in a foreign language environment usually does not (Gass & Selinker, 2008:7). The researcher believes that he context where English is learn as a foreign language make it difficult for the students to directly come into the satisfying communicative ability in English without any satisfying linguistics foundation as they have little or even no opportunity to be exposed to the target language. This situation also occurs clearly in TEFL in the context of Indonesia.

## **b. Framework for Second/Foreign Language Development Research in SFL**

According to Perret (2000: 89), in order to be able to understand the nature of second or foreign language development, a full range of investigation is required. This entails the studies of the process in which the learners actually use and engage in learning to use the target language, as well as the changes of language use that the learners make over time as their learning progresses. The theoretical framework provided by SFL and some of its practical procedures in analysing texts can provide a powerful advantages for the study of second or foreign language development, especially in terms of how language use changes over time (Perret, 2000). Concerning the characteristics of second/foreign language learning and teaching described in previous sub-heading, this section provides some of SFL's theoretical framework which can be applied in researching the development in second/foreign language teaching.

The first theoretical frameworks of SFL which is applicable in the pursuit of second and foreign development research is the concept of systemic delicacy, as it has been noted by Halliday (1988/2007: 325):

... we must be able to represent the system [of learner language] as variable in extent and in elaboration, in order to show how its power increases as the learner makes progress. We have been able to do this with the language development of small children as they learn their mother tongue. We still need to find out how to do it with learners of a second language. The systemic concept of 'delicacy', the progressive differentiation within a semantic space, is highly relevant here. The power of the concept of systemic 'delicacy'.

The concept of delicacy in SFL refers to the move from broader categories of language system into sub-types of the system (Matthiessen, Teruya, & Lam, 2010:

80; Llinares, 2013), for instance, from simple indicative and imperative system of MOOD into more detailed utilisation of Modality resources of language. In educational sense it refers to distinction that the students make: from their entry point of target language system use to their finer utilisation of the systems in order to convey certain meaning. As the learners make finer distinctions in meaning and the system networks grow into more frequent use of sub-types of the system, the researchers can observe the restructuring of systems when the shape of the networks changes as learners reorganise the distinctions they have made (Perret, 2000: 96). Llinares (2013: 35) also adds that the concept of delicacy is essential in order to identify the learners' lexico-grammatical and functional/semantic progression.

Furthermore, Lock (1996: 268) also emphasises the important role of the concept of systemic delicacy in the contexts of second or foreign language teaching and learning. He argues that learning a second or foreign language is primarily learning to communicate or to mean differently in a new language. Differently here is used in two senses: firstly, it is used as learning how to cast a large number of more or less familiar meanings into different wordings, and second, it also refers to learning to make new meanings in new cultural contexts.

Therefore, learning second of foreign language as explained by Lock (1996: 268-269) involves a process of gaining progressive control over the systems of options in the new language; learning to understand the options available in target language and to select those options to make meanings suitable in certain contexts; and mapping the configurations of grammatical functions realising the options on to one another in structures – clauses or utterances. Moreover, Lock concluded that

learning second or foreign language means gaining progressive control over a new potential for making meanings; as the learner develops a greater control over the systems of the grammar, he or she is able to make more delicate distinctions of meaning appropriate for different contexts.

The next key concept which is highly relevant to the pursuit of second or foreign language development research is the differentiation and association of tripartite categories of language functions proposed in SFL frameworks, i.e. experiential, ideational and textual meta-function (Perret, 2000; Llinares, 2013). Drawing upon the findings of first language development research undertaken by Halliday as well as Painter (Perret, 2000: 92), second or foreign language researchers can adopt the fact that in the first language development there is a move from the infant protolanguage system – individual sounds referring to individual meanings made by babies – to the adult system where young children learn how to make two sets of meanings at once, i.e. experiential and interpersonal, reflection on reality and action (Halliday, 1988/2007; Perret 2000). When learning second or foreign language, the learners do not need to understand that these two basic functions are exist in the target language, yet they must find out exactly what experiential and interpersonal meanings are possible in the target language, and discover how these meanings are expressed in the second or foreign language lexico-grammatical system (Halliday, 1988/2007; Perret, 2000). How the researcher can identify the learners' progress that they have already made in expressing these two meanings, the concept of delicacy is again still relevant at this point.



Moreover, the account for text in context through the concept of register and genre is also highly applicable in the research focusing the second or foreign language development (Perret, 2000; Llinares, 2003). Llinares (2013), specifically identifies that the theory of genre and register can offer insightful descriptions of the lexico-grammar that the students need to develop in order to respond successfully to the conventions of contexts of specific subjects or discipline, this insight particularly relevant to the context where the target language is not only the subject of study but also a vehicle for learning academic content. In terms of language development, the researcher can choose different features at the level of genre – schematic structure – and/or register – field, tenor and mood configuration – to be focused on in order to be able to draw conclusion about the students' development in understanding the contexts of language use and the system of language that possible to construe those contexts (Perret, 2000).

Finally, Perret (2000: 93-96) outlines practical considerations in exploring the second or foreign language development which also driven from SFL framework. First, the primary data taken by the research in this framework is naturalistic data which represent what the learners actually do in real communicative event, in the other words, the researchers have to analyse the learners' texts in order to track the developmental phases of the their language. Second, the researchers working within this framework have to bear in mind that developmental phases of the learners' language can only be tracked if the analysis of the texts go beyond description to comparison, since comparison can lead the researchers to draw conclusions about change or development.

Furthermore, in order to do comparison, the researchers also have to carefully consider two types of approach in collecting the data. First approach is a longitudinal study where the texts are collected from the same learners within a long time intervals. In this approach, the researchers need to consider the availability of the access to the data resource which ideally undertake by researcher-caretaker or participant-observer having access to the data resource over particular period of time. However, not every researcher has the luxury of actually collecting longitudinal data over a period of months or years (Painter, 2000: 70). Another approach can be taken as alternative here is a cross-sectional study where the texts are collected from different learners at the same time. Taking this approach, the researchers need to consider a clear decision about what characteristics differentiate the learners must be made. Learners can be differentiated according to various criteria: mother tongue, grade in school, length of time learning English, or English proficiency according to some acceptable measure (Perret, 2000: 94).

The premises which have to be considered by the researcher undertaking the second or foreign language development using SFL framework are summed up and outlined by Perret (2000: 93-94) as follows:

1. To describe language development, comparisons have to be made between different points in time.
2. We can find out what learners actually do by collecting samples of learner language.
3. These samples need to be complete texts, complete instances of language-in-social-use.
4. Language development arises from general circumstances of use and communicative interaction.
5. Because the SFL model of language includes genre, register, and grammar it provides researchers with the opportunity to find out how features in the context of use may influence what grammatical features are learnt.

6. This suggests a top-down analysis of language use in contexts of culture and situation, and of how developing language features respond to the functional demands of the situation.
7. The aim is not to extrapolate systems of rules (as in SLA) but systems of choices of meanings and ways of expressing them.
8. These systems can be developed into more extensive networks at different levels of language, for example of speech function or mood.
9. Systems networks from different points in time can be compared to determine the language development paths of individual learners.
10. Networks of the choices made by learners at different stages of development can be compared in order to establish generalities.

#### **4. On Narrative Text**

Features of language, including grammar, can be explored to serve various purposes of its users. Language then is organised into certain structure which fits those purposes. The exploration of the purpose-based structure of meaning in language brings about variation of texts which have their own characteristics. The texts which are considered to have the same purpose, and therefore relatively the same structure, are said to be the same texts types. Furthermore, the types of texts which have common characteristics in terms of its social purpose and generic structure are grouped into a larger classification called families of text types. Story text is one of this larger family which encompasses various texts type such as: recount, news story and narrative texts (Rothery & Stenglin, 1997; Feez & Joyce, 1998; Butt et al, 2000).

Among those texts in family of story texts, narrative has different roles in the life of culture because it advocates valued behaviours that serve to restore usuality and hence maintain the existing order (Rothery & Stenglin, 1997: 244). Moreover, in narrative, language is structured to describe disrupted events and to build up

suspense around disruption so it reaches crisis point. The way the characteristics engaged in the story confront and resolve that crisis teaches the readers about ways of behaving which are valued in a culture (Butt et al, 2000: 225). In this respect, narrative has a powerful cultural influence. For this reason also, the researcher decided to explore narrative texts in this research besides it is characterised by a various language feature operated in it which will be summarised further below:

**a. Social Purpose of Narrative Text**

Like all the text types in the family of story texts, narrative are basically written to entertain the reader. What makes narrative different among the story texts, as it has been said before, is its nature in promoting a certain way of behaving in particular culture through the evaluation of the way characters engaged in a story resolve various complications they confront. Derewianka (1990: 34) writes that if narrative are to be entertaining, something out of ordinary needs to happen. Meaning, the characters in the story have to be confronted with some sort of problem or complication, so that the readers are drawn onto the plot and curious to see how the problems get resolved.

In short, narrative texts have basic purpose to entertain. It is written to gain and hold the readers' interest in a story. Narrative also seeks to teach or inform, to embody the writer's reflections on experience and to nourish and extend the readers' imagination (Rothery & Stenglin, 1997; Feez & Joyce 1998; Derewianka, 1990; Butt et al, 2000).

## **b. Generic Structure of Narrative Text**

Narrative is the text type dealing with sequence of disrupted events as well as suspense to encourage its readers' interest and imagination. If a text is to achieve its purpose successfully, it needs to be patterned deliberately. This purpose-based pattern leads to generation of elements of texts which often obligatory. The staging of these elements is called generic structure of text. The development of stages in a text helps text achieve its social purpose. Furthermore, each stages within a text also contributes in constructing this intended purpose. Like all the texts type, narrative also has these obligatory stages, i.e.: Orientation, Complication and Resolution. Beside these three elements, there are also optional elements in narrative, i.e.: Abstract, Evaluation and Coda. All these elements will be summarised as follows:

### **1) Abstract**

What, in a nutshell, happened? This stage often occurs in a one-sentence summary of what transpired or how the readers probably can be whetted by the story (Toolan, 2013: 137). Furthermore, this stage gives a prospective evaluation and establishes an interpersonal context for what is to follow (Rothery & Stenglin, 1997).

### **2) Orientation**

Narrative texts are always started with an orientation. The main function of this stage is to orient the reader to what is to follow (Rothery & Stenglin, 1997: 225). Department of Education of Western Australia (2013: 62) explains that orientation in narrative texts introduces the setting, time,

main character and possibly some minor characters. In this stages does the writer set the mood and tone, and invite the reader to continue reading and some details that will be important later in the story are often introduced.

Furthermore, Derewianka (1990: 40) adds that in orientation, the writer attempts to sketch in or create the possible world of a particular story. The readers are introduced to the main character(s) or may be some minor character(s). The writer also indicates some information about the setting of story like where the action is located and when it is taking place. An atmosphere is usually established there is sometimes foreshadowing of the action to follow which draw the readers into story and make them want to become involved further. The sorts of details chosen for inclusion are those which will enhance later development of the story. This part of the text also plays a significant role for it often determines the readers' decision whether to continue reading or not.

### **3) Complication**

According to Department of Education of Western Australia (2013: 62), this stage involves series of events which lead to a complication in which the character is engaged. In line with that, Rothery and Stenglin (1997: 246) also write that in this stage, a usual stages of events are disrupted which bring about problem for the character(s). In narrative text, a story is pushed along by these series of events during which the readers usually expect some sort of complication or problem to arise. What makes narrative entertaining is when something unexpected happen in a story. In this stage those unexpected events

are revealed. This complication involves main character(s) and often serves to temporarily thwart them from reaching their goal (Derewianka, 1990: 42). There are also often minor complications in a story which serve to hold the readers' interest and build a tension as the readers are lead to a major problem which becomes a climax for the character(s) in story to find a final resolution.

#### **4) Evaluation**

Rothery and Stenglin (1996: 246) write that evaluation gives significance to the events in the complication through expressions of attitude, reaction, incredulity, impossibility, improbability, etc. The evaluation parts of narrative are not so much a single block as a variety of embellishments scattered through text (Toolan, 2013: 139). Evaluations usually predict possible outcomes for the events (Rothery and Stenglin 1996: 247).

Evaluations often appear within the complication parts of a narrative. However, according to Toolan (2013: 139), evaluation can be further subdivided into external and internal ones, depending on whether they are outside or within complicating action sentences. When the evaluations appear within the actions, they are often woven into complicating action sentences in the complication parts of a narrative.

#### **5) Resolution**

According to Derewianka (1990: 42), in a satisfying narrative, a resolution for the complication is brought about. The complication is often resolved for better or for worse, but it is rarely left completely unresolved. Moreover, there probably also a major complication in a narrative which is

not resolved until the end, with a number of minor complications along the way which might be resolved in part or whole as they arise or later in the story. These are usually related to the major complication and serve to sustain the interest and suspense. Thus, these minor resolutions are related logically to the minor complications in the disrupted events. Yet some texts often leave the readers to decide on the ending or resolution (Department of Education of Western Australia (2013: 62).

#### **6) Coda**

This part is an optional one which means it is sometimes neglected in a narrative text. Coda answers the question such as: how does the story relate to the readers, here and now? Coda also contains a moral or lesson learned by the protagonist or writer of the narrative (Toolan, 2013: 138).

#### **c. Language Features of the Narrative Texts**

If the generic structure deals with the progress of staging in a text, language features is a more detailed description of lexico-grammatical aspect of text which helps unfold meaning and social purpose of a text. Narrative tends to be more demanding in terms of language pattern than the other story texts, for example recount. In narrative, language is explored to get actions frozen and to get suspense built up as the writer of the story evaluates the complication. Narrative can be more demanding if there are more than one complication is included within a story. Also, narrative is more demanding because of the load of social message which have to be construed by these texts (Feez & Joyce, 1998: 90).



Following is the list of language features generally found in narrative texts which is adopted from Derewianka (1990: 42) and Department of Education of Western Australia (2013: 63).

- 1) Using nouns and pronouns to refer to specific, often individual participants with defined identities. Major participants are human or sometimes animals with human characteristics;
- 2) mainly action verbs (material process), but also many verbs which refer to what the human participants said, or felt, or thought, e.g. replied, empathised, contemplated (verbal and mental process);
- 3) Normally written in past tense;
- 4) Many linking words to do with time, e.g. afterwards, the next day, much later;
- 5) Dialogue often included, during which the tense may change into the present or future;
- 6) Can be written in the first person (I, we) or third person (he, she, they);
- 7) Descriptive language chosen to enhance and develop the story by creating images in the readers' mind. Here imaginative adjectives are usually used to create images, e.g. shimmering, lustreless;
- 8) Imagery is also created by using language devices such as similes, metaphors, onomatopoeia, and personification.

#### **d. Transitivity Patterns in Narrative Text's Stages**

Thompson (2014: 117) argues that the analysis of the transitivity pattern found in texts can tell us about how texts work. Particularly, Thompson (2014: 132) proposes practical point to consider in analysing the process types choices emerged

in a text into questions as: what are the dominant process types found in a text and why these? And how do the process types match with other aspect, e.g. location in the texts, appearing in commands vs. statement, etc.? This argument is in line with Matthiessen (2007) arguing that there is a strong relationship between the different pattern of process types and the succession of the stages as a text unfold.

Several researches, as indicated earlier, have contributed to show how the different stages in narrative texts can be identified through the different composition of process type clauses. Two of them are Washitake (2004) and Shansan and Libo (2008). Following paragraphs briefly presents their findings.

The first stage commonly appear in a narrative text is Abstract and Orientation. Even though abstract is an optional stage, it has quite an important function, as stated earlier, concerning prospective evaluation and establishing interpersonal contexts to follow (Rothery & Stenglin, 1997). This stage is mainly constructed with material, relational and mental process (Shansan & Libo, 2008: 58).

Following an abstract, there is orientation stage which introduces the main characters, establishes physical settings, as well as creates a context for understanding what is to follow in the subsequent stages (Rothery & Stenglin, 1997). According to Shansan and Libo (2008), this stage is mainly constructed through two main process types: Material and Relational process. On the other hand, Washitake (2004) adds another process types typically occur in this stage, i.e. Existential process. However, there are still possibilities that other process types appear in this stage.

In the stage of Complication, which consists of a series of unusual events, and Resolution which consists of the acts that resolve the disruption (Rothery & Stenglin, 1997), high rate of material process can be seen, and even predominate. However, the deployment of Mental, Verbal and Behavioural process types is also emerged in these stages, and in fact, these process types have higher rate in these stages, weaving the details of the story together and move the plot of the story forward (Shansan and Libo, 2008).

Evaluation is stage in narrative which is interspersed with complication. It reflects on thoughts and feelings of the characters and evaluates the situation confronted by the participants in the story (Rothery & Stenglin, 1997). In doing so, this stage is mainly realised through larger portions of relational and mental processes to express attitude, reaction and to describe situation (Shansan and Libo, 2008). Material process clause is still possible to appear in this stage, yet the rate is considerably lower.

The final stage of narrative text is Coda. Like Abstract, this stage is also optional. It gives an overall evaluation of events and concludes the story (Rothery & Stenglin, 1997). It also often deals with the moral lesson drawn from the event in the story. This stage is mainly realised by Material process as a dominant clause, followed by Mental, Relational, and Verbal process clauses (Shansan & Libo, 2008).

## **B. Relevant Studies**

1. Shanshan and Libo (2008) examined the variation of transitivity patterns in generic stages of narrative writings of Primary 5 and Secondary 3 students. They draw on Functional Grammar tools of analysis (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004), transitivity profiles in the construction of each generic stage of narrative text (Washitake, 2004) and analysis of generic structure and the selection of lexico-grammatical networks in selected primary school children's writing. This research tried to answer two questions: "How does the overall selection of transitivity features act as an indicator of the development in students' narrative writing from Primary 5 to Secondary 3?" and "How do the transitivity patterns vary from one generic stage to another in primary and secondary school students' writing?" Answering these questions this research entails both qualitative perspective in terms of the choices made from a functional system network and a quantitative perspective in terms of how frequently each of these choices is made (Halliday, 2005). The analysis carried out in this research demonstrates the differences and variations of transitivity patterns in Primary 5 and Secondary 3 students' narratives. This research shows that Secondary 3 students are more adept than Primary 5 students in employing various processes types in the construction of generic stages. The better command of various process types allows the Secondary 3 students to effectively develop the narratives stage by stage and make texts more interesting to read.
2. Ansarin and Pour (2015) examined Textual and Ideational Meta-functions in Applied Linguistics research articles written by native and nonnative speakers

of English. Sixty articles were chosen from three subfields of applied linguistics, i.e., Forensic Linguistics (20 articles), Discourse Analysis (20 articles) and Psycholinguistics (20 articles). The use of Theme Types in Textual Metafunction and Process Types in Ideational Metafunction was analyzed according to Halliday and Matthiessen's (2004) Metafunctions framework. The results showed that both native and nonnative English Applied Linguistics articles tend to use the same number of Theme Type and Process Type metafunctions. However, it was also found that the pattern of the distribution of Textual and Ideational Metafunctions were different in the three fields of the study between native and nonnative researchers. Unmarked and multiple themes were the most frequently used Theme Types and material and relational processes were the most favored Process Types in the three fields. We could conclude that learners can reach to higher levels of proficiency in language and language studies by being aware of these metafunctions.

3. Xuan (2017) undertook a research on adolescent second language writing in order to identify the major text types as well as their textual pattern recognised and written by such group of students in China. Drawing on the framework of functional text analysis, namely context-based text typology and register theory this research analysed ten instances of writing tasks written by a class of 50 junior secondary students from Guangzhou, China. The findings revealed that recommending was the dominant text type in the students' writing due to the influence of the exam-driven culture in China. Moreover, tenor awareness was lacking in the students' writing. The findings then further used by the

researcher to formulate relevant secondary second language writing curriculum design and pedagogy recommendation in Chinese context.

4. Emilia, Habibi and Bangga (2018) reported a study aiming to investigate the cohesion of exposition texts written by eleventh graders of a school in Bandung, Indonesia. The study used a qualitative case study research design, especially text analysis, involving 32 students. The analysis was clustered to six pieces of texts written by the students which represent low, mid and high achievers. The texts were analyzed using systemic functional linguistics (SFL), especially in terms of schematic structure and linguistic features, especially those contributing to the cohesion of the texts, such as Theme progression and cohesive devices. The results show that all texts show students' grasp and understanding of the schematic structure of an exposition, including thesis, argument, and restatement of the thesis. All texts also successfully use the zig-zag and the Theme reiteration patterns, which indicate the students' emerging capacity to create a text with cohesion at the clause level. However, only texts written by high achievers employ the multiple Theme pattern, indicating the students' emerging capacity to create a text with better sense of connectedness, unity, and flow of information at the global level. High achiever texts also employ discourse features which allow the reader to predict how the text will unfold and guide them to a line of understanding of a text as a whole. Moreover, in terms of cohesive devices, all texts use some simple cohesive devices—reference, lexical cohesion, and conjunction. It should be mentioned that all texts are rudimentary with some inappropriate word choices and grammatical

problems. This suggests that the students still needed more guidance and time to do research on the topic in focus, to go through the process of writing as professional do, to allow them to create a better text with more elaboration and characteristics of written language with consistency and accuracy.

### **C. Conceptual Framework**

As indicated earlier in the previous chapter, the students' writing development in this research is identified as the phases of growth performed by the students to manipulate the linguistics resources available in English in order to meet the demand of a given genre. This research, further, agrees with the technical definition of genre which has been developed among the genre-based pedagogy proponents and best presented by Martin (1992: 505; 1997: 13; 2009) as 'a staged, goal oriented activity in which speakers (or writers) engage as members of a culture'. This means that in order to successfully respond to the genre demand, i.e. social goals, one has to draw on conventional stages commonly building up a text within a given genre, and each of these stages has its unique functions and characteristics working together to achieve the generic purpose.

Since this research focused on narrative writing development, stages here refer to: (Abstract) ^ Orientation ^ Complication / Evaluation ^ Resolution ^ (Coda) (Rothery & Stenglin, 1997; Toolan, 2013). Therefore, the development in this research can be identified further as a growing ability to manipulate English language resources to construct those stages.

Moreover, the language resources focused in this research was the transitivity system. This particular system was chosen because it is the overall grammatical resource for construing goings on (Martin, Matthiessen & Painter, 2007: 100), and it is through the system of transitivity the writers (or speakers) construe the world of experience (factual or imaginative) into manageable set of process types (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004: 170). This is closely related to the genre being focused, i.e. narrative, which deals with imaginative worlds, and how the participants in those imaginative worlds solve disruptions. The narrative writers, then, must draw primarily on the system within English grammar enabling them to construct those worlds: what is going on, who is involved, and possible situation attended within those worlds, also how these notions are put together into structural configuration of different types of clause (Butt et al., 2000: 81).

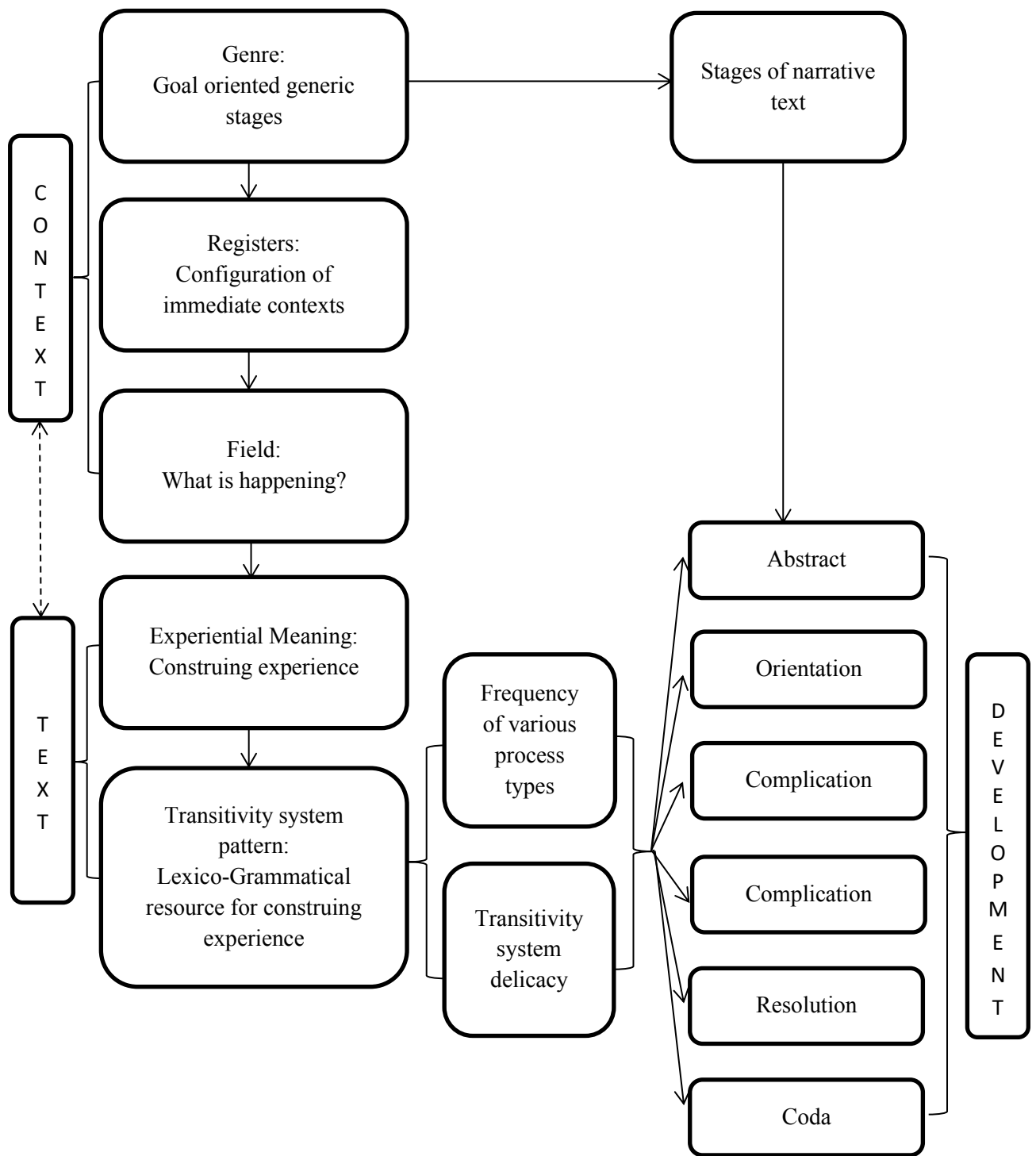
While there are three elements in transitivity system, i.e. participants, process types and circumstances, this research discussed the students' writing development from the process types viewpoint because it is the nucleus of the clause which make distinctive contributions to the construal of experience in text (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004: 174). In other words, the growth of narrative writing competency in this research can be seen through the configuration of different process type clauses building up each stage of the students' narrative texts.

However, looking at the composition of process type clauses in each stage of the students' texts alone has been considered insufficient in tracing the development likely performed by the students who learn and are taught English as foreign language. Therefore, this research also employed another analytical tool provided



in SFG, i.e. transitivity system delicacy. This point, in turn, tried to respond to Perret (2000: 89) saying that in order to be able to understand the nature of second or foreign language development, a full range of investigation is required, and one of the possible concepts suitable for this pursuit is systemic delicacy. As Halliday (1988/2007: 325) puts it that the power of systemic delicacy concept, i.e. progressive movement or differentiation from broader categories of system to more detailed sub-types ones, is highly relevant in order to find out how the learners of second or foreign language developed their language competency. Lock (1996) also in agreement with this assumption arguing that learning second or foreign language means gaining progressive control over a new potential for making meanings; as the learner develops a greater control over the systems of the grammar, he or she is able to make more delicate distinctions of meaning appropriate for different contexts.

In conclusion, in the pursuit of tracing the development likely performed by the students in writing narrative texts, this research drew upon two main analyse within the system of transitivity. Firstly, the development would be tracked through the composition or distribution of process type clauses building up each stage of the narrative texts written by the students. Secondly, the development would also be identified through the progress the students made in controlling the English language resources in terms of transitivity system delicacy, the more delicate of the transitivity system that the students performed, the more development likely occurred. The following figure shows the conceptual framework employed in this research:



**Figure 5.** Theoretical Framework Underlying this Research.

**D. Research Questions**

1. What does the development of the students' narrative writing look like in terms of process types' deployment in constructing each stage of the texts?
2. What does the development of the students' narrative writing look like in terms of transitivity system delicacy appeared in the students' texts?