



**THE CEASE-FIRE IN GAZA CONFLICT REPRESENTED BY
THE WRITERS OF THE JAKARTA POST AND THE NEW
YORK TIMES**

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

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DECLARATION OF ORIGINALITY

I, Rizka Ayu Prihandani, hereby declare that this final project entitled *The Cease-fire in Gaza Conflict Represented by the Writers of the Jakarta Post and the New York Times* is my own work and has not been submitted in any form for another degree or diploma at any university or other institute of tertiary education. Information derived from the published and unpublished work of others has been acknowledged in the text and a list of references is given in the bibliography.

Semarang, December 2016



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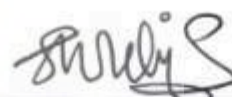
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MOTTO AND DEDICATION

Change your thoughts and you change your world.

(Norman Vincent Peale)



To my beloved Mom and Dad

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First and foremost, I wish to take the opportunity to express my greatest gratitude to Allah the Almighty, for His blessing, strength, ease, and inspiration bestowed to me during the writing of my final project.

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ABSTRACT

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Keywords: discourse analysis, Systemic Functional Linguistics, genre, Ideational meaning, Transitivity system.

Interpreting how writers represent experience in texts can be done by exploring the sequences of ideational meanings or sequences of activities involving people and things. This study was conducted to know how the cease-fire in Gaza conflict is represented by the writers of The Jakarta Post and The New York Times in their articles. In this study, the discussion was limited by finding out the answer of these two questions: how is the cease-fire in Gaza conflict represented by the writers of The Jakarta Post in the article? and how is the cease-fire in Gaza conflict represented by the writers of The New York Times?

This study is a discourse analysis. The data of this study were in the form of clauses of newspaper articles. The data were analyzed using the following steps: reading the articles, identifying the sequences of phases of the articles, dividing the sequences into figures, describing the elements of figure: process, participant, and circumstance, and describing realization of those elements in wordings.

The result shows that the writers from The Jakarta Post and The New York Times already fulfil the generic stages of a news item in writing their article. They start with Newsworthy Event, followed it with Background Event, and end with Sources. In the Background Event, the writers of both newspapers wrote three phases: cease-fire phase, Egyptian-mediated talks phase, and campaign/combat phase. The writers of The Jakarta Post divide the cease-fire phase into three parts: announcement, description, and assurance. The Egyptian-mediated talks phase is divided into three parts: under the truce, delegation, and casualties. The campaign phase is divided into two parts: the intensity and the strike. Meanwhile, The writers of The New York Times divide the cease-fire phase into announcement, American officials, and agreement parts. The Egyptian-mediated talks phases is divided into delegation, choreography, and substance parts. The combat phase is divided into intensity and strike parts. The figure of doing (material process) with actor and goal as the main participants dominate in both articles. From the circumstances analysis, the writers of The Jakarta Post employ 58 circumstances with nine different kinds of circumstances, while the writers of The New York Times employ 77 circumstances with seven different kinds of circumstances. Thus, the English language readers are suggested to enhance their ability in analyzing texts through discourse analysis and functional grammar. In addition, the next researchers and discourse analysts are hoped to be able to demonstrate how lexicogrammar analysis is applied to uncover newspaper articles' ideational meanings.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

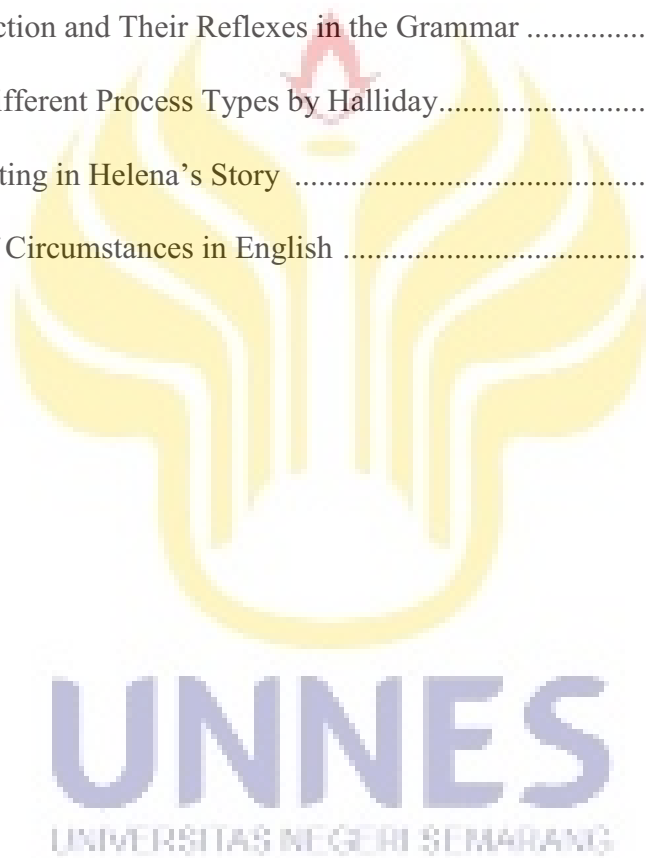
	Page
COVER	i
DECLARATION OF ORIGINALITY	ii
APPROVAL	iii
MOTTO AND DEDICATION	iv
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	v
ABSTRACT	vi
TABLE OF CONTENTS	vii
LIST OF TABLES	x
LIST OF APPENDICES	xi
I INTRODUCTION	1
1.1 Background of the Study	1
1.2 Reasons for Choosing the Topic	7
1.3 Research Problems	8
1.4 Objectives of the Study	8
1.5 Significance of the Study	8
1.6 Definitions of Key Terms	9
1.7 Outline of the Report	11

II REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE.....	12
2.1 Review of Previous Studies.....	12
2.2 Theoretical Studies.....	14
2.2.1 Discourse Analysis	14
2.2.2 Systemic Functional Grammar.....	16
2.2.3 Text	18
2.2.4 Context.....	19
2.2.4.1 Context of Culture.....	19
2.2.4.2 Context of Situation	20
2.2.5 Metafunctions.....	22
2.2.6 Ideational Meanings	25
2.2.7 Transitivity System	27
2.2.7.1 Processes	28
2.2.7.1.1 Material Processes	29
2.2.7.1.2 Behavioral Processes	30
2.2.7.1.3 Mental Processes	31
2.2.7.1.4 Verbal Processes	32
2.2.7.1.5 Relational Processes	33
2.2.7.1.6 Existential Processes	36
2.2.7.1.7 Meteorological Processes	37
2.2.7.2 Participants.....	37
2.2.7.3 Circumstances	39
2.2.8 Newspaper	40

2.2.9	<i>The Jakarta Post</i>	42
2.2.10	<i>The New York Times</i>	43
2.2.11	<i>Gaza Conflict</i>	44
2.3	Theoretical Framework	45
III METHODS OF INVESTIGATION		47
3.1	Research Method	47
3.2	Object of the Study	48
3.3	Procedures of Data Collection	48
3.4	The Unit of Analysis	48
3.5	Procedures of Data Analysis	49
IV FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS		50
4.1	The Cease-fire in Gaza Conflict Represented by the Writers of The Jakarta Post	50
4.2	The Cease-fire in Gaza Conflict Represented by the Writers of The New York Times	58
V CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS		68
5.1	Conclusions	68
5.2	Suggestions	72
APPENDICES		73
REFERENCES		134

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
2.1 The Main Differences in Perspective between Traditional and Functional Grammar.....	17
2.2 Metafunction and Their Reflexes in the Grammar	23
2.3 Seven Different Process Types by Halliday.....	28
2.4 Participating in Helena’s Story	37
2.5 Types of Circumstances in English	39



LIST OF APPENDICES

Appendix	Page
1. Newspaper Articles	73
2. Transitivity Analysis	83
3. Circumstances Analysis	118



CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

This chapter deals with introduction of the study, which consists of background of the study, reasons for choosing the topic, research problem, objectives of the study, significance of the study, definitions of key terms, and outline of the report.

1.1 Background of the Study

Communication is crucial in human life. Without communication, human beings cannot fulfill their needs as social creature. Human beings as social creature need to communicate with each other to convey their ideas and wishes. A tool by which this communication can be realized is called language. As Ramelan says “Man speaks language; he uses language as means of communication with other people, as tool to express his ideas and wishes (Ramelan, 1999:1).”

Doing effective communication means using language meaningfully. This can be done by creating texts. Something is called as a text when it is meaningful. It can be both, spoken or written. When we speak or write, we are creating texts. Because a text is something meaningful, creating text can be said as creating meaning. There are three types of meanings: Ideational which are meanings about phenomena, Interpersonal which are meanings that express a speaker’s attitudes and judgments, and Textual which are meanings that express the relation of language to its environment (Gerot and Wignell, 1994:12-14).

One of the types of meanings which is analyzed in this study is Ideational meaning. It focuses on the “content” of a discourse; what kind of activities are undertaken, and how participants in these activities are described, how they are classified and what they are composed of. Ideation is concerned with how our experience of “reality” material and symbolic, is construed in discourse (Martin and Rose, 2003:66).

This study investigates how the cease-fire in Gaza conflict is represented in the articles by the writers of The Jakarta Post and The New York Times. The way of representing the cease-fire in Gaza conflict by the writers can be seen by unfolding the articles. This is to interpret how the writers represent their experience. In this study, each article will be explored deeply by unfolding the sequences of ideational meanings or sequences of activities involving people and things.

Each writer represents a slice of their own experience, or the more general experience of their society and its institutions. This experience can be represented from various perspectives, for example as personal or institutional, or from one’s own perspective or from others’ perspectives. In other words, we do not believe that ideational meanings simply translate a pre-existing “reality” into words; rather speakers and writers construe their experience of reality as discourse (Martin and Rose: 2003:66).

When we analyze a text, we should pay attention to the context. It is important because text brings context within it. According to Gerot and Wignell (1994:10), all meanings are situated in a context of culture and context of

situation. Context of culture is the total cultural background while context of situation is the environment of the text. Without context, it is very difficult to find out the intended meaning of a text.

Context of culture triggers the emergence of text types, or in this case called genre. Genre refers to different types of texts that enact various types of social contexts. As children, we learn to recognize and distinguish the typical genres of our culture, by attending to consistent patterns of meaning as we interact with others in various situations. Since patterns of meaning are relatively consistent for each genre, we can learn to predict how each situation is likely to unfold, and learn how to interact in it (Martin and Rose, 2003:7).

Genre is a staged, goal-oriented social process. Social because we participate in genres with other people; goal-oriented because we use genres to get things done; staged because it usually takes us a few steps to reach our goals (Martin and Rose, 2003:7-8). In this study, we focus on genre of news item. Its social purpose is to inform readers, listeners or viewers about events of the day which are considered newsworthy or important. A news item consists of the basic stages Newsworthy Event(s), Background Event(s), and Sources. We will look briefly at the staging of the articles written by the writers of The Jakarta Post and The New York Times here, so we can get a feel for the basic organization of the articles.

The writers of The Jakarta Post wrote an article entitled *US, UN Announce Deal on 72-Hour Gaza Cease-Fire*. They begin the article by recounting the event in summary form:

NEWSWORTHY EVENT

Israel and Hamas have agreed to a 72-hour humanitarian cease-fire to start Friday, though Secretary of State John Kerry cautioned there were “no guarantees” the lull in violence would bring an end to the 24-day-old Gaza war.

Following the Newsworthy Event, the writers go on to elaborate the detail information in Background Events. There are three phases within the Background Events. First, it deals with cease-fire, then it deals with Egyptian-mediated talks, and then it deals with campaign. This structure is summarized as follows, with the first clause of each phase.

BACKGROUND EVENTS

‘cease-fire’

The announcement came hours ...

‘Egyptian-mediated talks’

Israeli and Palestinian delegations were expected to travel immediately to Cairo...

‘campaign’

Israel expanded what started as an aerial campaign against Hamas ...

The writers then end the article with Sources, giving statements from Hamas and Israel about the war:

SOURCES

Hamas has said it will only halt fire once it receives guarantees that a Gaza border blockade by Israel and Egypt – tightened after the Islamic militant group violently seized power in Gaza in 2007 – will be lifted. Israel says it wants to decimate Hamas’ rocket-launching capability, diminish its weapons arsenal and demolish the tunnels. It has launched more than 4.000 strikes against Hamas-linked targets, including rocket launchers and mosques where it says weapons were being stored.

Meanwhile, the writers of The New York Times wrote an article entitled *Cease-Fire in Gaza Conflict Takes Effect as Talks are Set*. They orient the article by summarizing the event:

NEWSWORTHY EVENT

New Delhi – A 72-hour humanitarian cease-fire in the Gaza conflict negotiated by the United States and the United Nations took effect Friday morning, a diplomatic bolt-from-the-blue that will suspend the bloody 24-day military campaign and set the stage for arduous negotiations between Israel and Hamas over a more lasting truce.

The writers then go on to elaborate the detail information in Background Events. Similar to the article by the writers of The Jakarta Post, there are three phases within the Background Events of the article by the writers of The New York Times. Firstly, it deals with cease-fire, then it deals with Egyptian-mediated talks, and then it deals with combat. This structure is summarized as follows, with the first clause of each phase.

BACKGROUND EVENTS

‘cease-fire’

The announcement of the break in the fighting, ..., attested to the complexity of the negotiations.

‘Egyptian-mediated talks’

As soon as the cease-fire is underway, talks would begin in Cairo.

‘combat’

But it is hard to see how the last three weeks of intense combat will make Mr. Netanyahu, Mr. Abbas or their publics more trusting of each other or more open to painful concessions.

The writers then end the article with Sources, providing comments from the press secretary:

SOURCES

“I condemn in the strongest possible terms this serious violation of international law by Israeli forces,” said Pierre Krähenbühl, the commissioner-general of the United Nations Relief and Works Agency, which operates the school...

The stages of a genre are relatively stable components of its organization, that we can recognize in some form in text after text of the genre, such as Newsworthy Event, Background Events, and Sources stages of a news item. These stages are some of the basic resources of the culture for organizing discourse at the level of the text (Martin and Rose, 2003:9).

Gaza conflict is also known as Gaza-Israel conflict. The Gaza-Israel conflict is a part of the wider Israeli-Palestinian conflict. Palestinian militant actions escalated in the Gaza Strip following the overwhelming election to government of the Islamic political party Hamas in 2005 and 2006. The conflict

escalated with the split of the Palestinian Authority to Fatah government in the West Bank and the Hamas Government in Gaza and the following violent ousting of Fatah. Palestinian rocket attacks on Israel and Israel's blockade of Gaza have exacerbated the conflict. Under its 2005 disengagement plan, Israel retained exclusive control over Gaza's airspace and territorial waters, continued to patrol and monitor the external land perimeter of the Gaza Strip, with the exception of its southernmost border (where Egypt retained control of the border and border crossings were supervised by European monitors) and continued to monitor and blockade Gaza's coastline. Israel largely provides for and controls Gaza's water supply, electricity and communications infrastructure. According to Human Rights Watch and Amnesty International, Israel remains an occupying power under international law. The United Nations has stated that under resolutions of both the General Assembly and the Security Council it regards Gaza to be part of the "Occupied Palestinian Territories". Meanwhile, the Fatah government in the West Bank, officially recognized as the sole representative of the State of Palestine refers to the Gaza Strip as part of the Palestinian State and does not recognize the Hamas government, hence avoiding interfering in the conflict.

1.2 Reasons for Choosing the Topic

This study investigated how the cease-fire in Gaza conflict is represented in the articles by the writers of The Jakarta Post and The New York Times, based on the following reasons;

- (1) I would like to see how the articles about the cease-fire in Gaza conflict unfold as a sequence of events that made up the texts itself. In addition, I would like to interpret how each author represent the cease-fire in Gaza conflict by exploring the sequences of ideational meanings (sequences of activities involving people and things).
- (2) The issue concerning Gaza conflict attracts the whole world's attention, yet it is never finished. As part of Palestinian-Israeli war, this conflict is a complicated one which involves many parties. The influences of some countries as the backings escalate the tension of the everlasting conflict.

1.3 Research Problem

I limited the discussion by presenting these following problems:

- (1) How is the cease-fire in Gaza conflict represented by the writers of The Jakarta Post in the article?
- (2) How is the cease-fire in Gaza conflict represented by the writers of The New York Times in the article?

1.4 Objectives of the Study

This study was intended to reach purposes as follows:

- (1) to know how the writers of The Jakarta Post represent the cease-fire in Gaza conflict.
- (2) to know how the writers of The New York Times represent the cease-fire in Gaza conflict.

1.5 Significance of the Study

By conducting this study, I hope that:

- (1) theoretically, this study can provide deeper understanding about Ideational meaning found in newspaper articles.
- (2) practically, especially for English Department students, this study can give knowledge as a basis of how authors represent experience by exploring the sequences of ideational meanings (sequences of activities involving people and things) in newspaper articles.
- (3) pedagogically, readers can make this study as a guidance in using lexicogrammar analysis to explore how texts represent people's experience.

1.6 Definitions of Key Terms

In this study, there are four important key terms which need to be clearly defined, as follows:

- (1) Genre : Genre refers to different types of texts that enact various types of social contexts. As children, we learn to recognize and distinguish the typical genres of our culture, by attending to consistent patterns of meaning as we interact with others in various situations. Since patterns of meaning are relatively consistent for each genre, we can learn to predict how each situation is likely to unfold, and learn how to interact in it (Martin and Rose, 2003:7). Genre is a staged, goal-oriented social process. Social because we participate in genres with other people; goal-oriented because we use

genres to get things done; staged because it usually takes us a few steps to reach our goals (Martin and Rose, 2003:7-8).

(2) Ideational meaning : Ideational meaning is meaning about speakers' experience of the world. It focuses on the "content" of a discourse: what kinds of activities are undertaken, and how participants in these activities are described, how they are classified and what they are composed of. Ideation is concerned with how our "reality", material and symbolic, is construed in discourse.

(3) Transitivity : one major system of grammatical choice involved in ideational meaning. When we look at the ideational metafunction, we are looking at the grammar of the clause as representation. As with the clause as exchange, we find there is one major system of grammatical choice involved in this kind of meaning. This is the system of Transitivity, or process type (Eggin, 2004:228). Eggin (2004:214) asserts that in analysing transitivity structure in a clause, we are concerned with describing three aspects of the clause. They are;

- The selection of processes
- The selection of participants
- The selection of circumstances

Processes are realised in the language as verb groups, as for instance, runs, used to think, believe, will come, going to visit. Participants are realised in the language as noun groups, such as you, London, online newspaper, the bag which she bought, beauty and charm. Circumstances are realised in the

language as prepositional phrases, adverbial groups, noun groups. For instance, after the show, with her mother, as the teacher, extremely carefully, next month.

- (4) Figure : We call the arrangement of process, participants, and circumstances a 'figure'. At the core of each figure is the process; closely involved in the process are its participants; and more distantly associated with it are its circumstances (Martin and Rose, 2003:70). Figures and their elements (process, participants, circumstances) are the basic units of ideational meaning in discourse, in all languages we know of, spoken and written (Martin and Rose, 2003:71).

1.7 Outline of the Report

This study is divided into five chapters. Chapter I is introduction consisting of general background of the study, reasons for choosing the topic, research problems, objectives of the study, significance of the study, definitions of key terms, and outline of the study.

Chapter II discusses the review of related literature. It deals with review of the previous studies, the theoretical reviews, and the theoretical framework.

Chapter III presents the research methodology. It includes the research approach, the object of study, the unit of analysis, the procedures of data collection, and the procedures of data analysis.

Chapter IV provides the findings and discussions of the findings.

Chapter V gives the conclusions of the study and suggestions in relation to the result of the study.



CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter presents review of previous studies, related literature of the study which consists of Discourse Analysis, Systemic Functional Grammar, Text and Context, Ideational Meanings, Transitivity System, Newspaper, and Gaza Conflict, and theoretical framework of the study.

2.1 Review of the Previous Studies

One of the studies correlated to this study was conducted by Mulatsih (2007). Its main purpose was to know the message organization in the students' texts especially recounts. There were about 50 students who were asked to write recounts, and for the sake of the study, 10 recounts were chosen by considering that they are personal recounts and have correct schematic structure, that is orientation, series of events, and reorientation. The data were analyzed using the following steps: reading the recounts, segmenting the sequences in the recounts, dividing the sequences in the recounts, dividing the sequences into figures, describing the elements of figure: process, participant, and circumstance, and describing the realization those elements in wordings. The result shows that in organizing the message in their personal recounts, the students usually produced sequences, figures, the elements of figures: process, participant, and circumstance, and their realization in wordings.

Another similar study correlated to this study was conducted by Wattles and Radic-Bojanic (2007). It deals with an analysis of an online debate using Halliday's Systemic Functional Grammar approach. The goals were to give an analysis of genre, comment on ideologies, beliefs and the social purposes of the text, as well as to explore the cultural and situational contexts. It also conducted an examination of field, tenor, and mode of the given text. The emerging patterns was summarized to reveal whether the text has fulfilled its generic structure potential, evaluate the writer's attitudinal motifs, and clarify whether and how the cohesion of the text has been accomplished. The result shows that the text has both fulfilled its theoretical expectations and that the theory has helped to understand the text better. In other words, Halliday's approach to grammar is an interaction of texts and extra-linguistics situations, functioning as a bottom-up and top-down process.

Mehmood, A. et al.(2014) also conducted a similar study which reoriented representation of love in Oscar Wilde's short story *the Nightingale and the Rose* in a more focus way by subjecting it to Halliday's transitivity model of analysis. The transitivity analysis showed how Wilde balances the concept of love which, upon cursory glance, appears to tilt towards the protagonist, the nightingale, with the arousal of sympathy. Transitivity analysis of the short story by taking into account the processes associated with the main characters enabled to bring to limelight Wilde's widely acknowledged and debated view of contraries by presenting the nightingale and the young student of philosophy as two contrary views of love balancing each other. The finding through linguistic tool of

transitivity is based on the assumption that language form is not fortuitous, but performs a communicative function. The transitivity analysis of Wilde's short story *The Nightingale and The Rose* show how the actions are performed through the use of material processes. We get a clearer idea from the verbal processes that describe the actions as well as revealing the situation and conditions. Furthermore this impact is strengthened by the relational processes. The physical actions are highlighted through these processes with give an outer view of the world portrayed in the story. This ensures the success of Oscar Wilde's signature approach of Aestheticism and Art for Art's sake. In this way, the reader indulges in the mystery of imagination in order to explore the art of the writer revealed through his writing.

Regarding to those studies above, the area of ideational meanings cover up various texts such as students' recounts, online debate, and short story. The previous study is considered relevant to be grounded theory of this study. These related literature are also needed to be base of the analysis in the next chapter.

2.2 Theoretical Studies

In this subchapter, I explore theories that are related and applied in this study. Theories of discourse analysis, systemic functional grammar, text, context, metafunctions, ideational meanings, and transitivity system are explored in this part. To complete the theoretical studies, information about newspaper, *The Jakarta Post*, *The New York Times*, and Gaza conflict are also explored.

2.2.1 Discourse Analysis

There are many definitions of discourse and discourse analysis suggested by many experts. According to Brown and Yule (1983:1), the analysis of discourse is, necessarily, the analysis of language in use. The discourse analyst is committed to an investigation of what the language is used for. Meanwhile, Fairclough in Jorgensen and Phillips (2002:138) applies the concept of discourse in three different ways;

First, discourse refers to language use as social practice. Second, discourse is understood as the kind of language used within a specific field (for example; political or scientific discourse). And the third, in the most concrete usage, discourse is used as a count noun (a discourse, the discourse, the discourses, discourses) referring to a way of speaking which gives meaning to experiences from a particular perspective. In this last sense, the concept refers to any discourse that can be distinguished from other discourses such as, for example, a feminist discourse, a neoliberal discourse, a Marxist discourse, a consumer discourse, or an environmentalist discourse.

Discourse is closely related to texts. It is in line with Widdowson (2011:6) who states that people produce texts to get message across, to express ideas and beliefs, to explain something, to get other people to do something, or to think in certain ways, and so on. We can refer to this complex of communicative purposes as the discourse that underlies the text and motivates its production in the first place. Then, people have to interpret the text as a discourse that make sense to them. He adds (2011:7) that the term discourse refers to both what a text producer meant by a text and what a text means to the receiver.

Discourse cannot be separated from texts and contexts.

Discourse Analysis is concerned with the study of relationship between language and the context in which it is used. Discourse analyst study

language in use: written texts of all kinds, and spoken data, from conversation to highly institutionalized forms of talk (McCarthy, 1991:5)

According to Stubbs (1983:1) discourse analysis refers mainly to the linguistic analysis of naturally occurring connected spoken or written discourse. Roughly speaking, it refers to attempts to study the organization of language above the sentence or above the clause, and therefore to study larger linguistic units, such as conversational exchanges or written texts. It follows that discourse analysis is also concerned with language in use in social contexts, and in particular with interaction or dialogue between speakers.

Much of the fascination of discourse analysis comes from the realization that language, action and knowledge are inseparable. As soon as we start to study how language is used in social interaction, it becomes clear that communication is impossible without shared knowledge and assumptions between speakers and hearers (Stubbs, 1983:1).

In conclusion, I assume that discourse analysis is the analysis of language beyond sentence boundaries in use.

2.2.2 *Systemic Functional Grammar*

The single most influential expert of systemic functional grammar is Michael Halliday. Hallidayan grammar asserts that the relationship between the wordings people use and their meanings is not arbitrary. Language is functional, so study of language form alone cannot fully explain systematic language use. Language use, though unique, can be explored, and linguistic elements and specific language events can be systematically examined from a functional point of view. In short,

we “make meaning” through our choice and use of words, and systematic study of language in use is how we make sense of our meanings (Gerot and Wignell, 1994:v).

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

Gerot and Wignell (1994:3) also state that there are two major schools of grammar; they are formal (traditional) and functional grammar.

Table 2.1 The Main Differences in Perspective between Traditional and Functional Grammar (Gerot and Wignell, 1994: 7)

	Formal (+Traditional)	Functional
<i>Primary concern</i>	How is (should) this sentence be structured?	How are the meanings of this text realized?
<i>Unit of analysis</i>	Sentence	Whole texts
<i>Language level of concern</i>	Syntax	Semantics
<i>Language</i>	= a set of rules for sentence construction = something we know	a resource for making meaning = something we do

Based on the information presented in the table, functional grammar concerns on how the meanings are realized, rather than how sentences are structured which become the primary concern of formal (traditional) grammar.

In conclusion, I assume that functional grammar focuses on how meanings of texts are made through choices in the grammatical structure. It investigates how those structures construct meaning. Therefore, functional grammar is appropriate to apply in this study as an approach to reveal the meanings within texts through choices in the grammatical structure.

2.2.3 Text

Egins (2004:2) states that texts are authentic products of social interactions. Meanwhile, according to Agustien in her handout, when we use language to communicate, we create and interpret texts. We can define text as any meaningful stretch of spoken or written language. When we use language to talk, we are clearly creating texts. When we listen, we are interpreting texts. When we write and read, we are also creating and interpreting texts.

Halliday and Hasan (1989:10) state that “text in the simplest way is language that is functional. By functional, we simply mean language that is doing some job in some context.” Furthermore, it is stated that text may be either spoken or written, or indeed in any other medium of expression that we like to think of.

Spoken language constitutes a way of communication to convey people’s ideas through verbal communication, such as conversation, lecture, and speech. Meanwhile, written language can be defined as a way of communication to convey people’s ideas through written form, printed or handwritten. The examples of written language are manual, letter, announcement, journal article, and newspaper article.

However, Gerot and Wignell (1994:158) assert that the term “written language” does not only refer to language which is written down. Likewise, the term “spoken language” does not only refer to language which is said aloud. According to Hammond et.al. (1992:5), there is no clear dividing line between written and spoken language. The key difference between written and spoken language is the relationship between language and the context of writing or speaking, not just the medium through which language is transmitted (Gerot and Wignell, 1994:158). Gerot and Wignell (1994:158) also state that written and spoken language serve different purposes; that is why they encode meaning in different ways although they are manifestations of the same linguistic system.

In conclusion, I assume that text is any written or spoken language which is meaningful. It obviously has broader meaning than the one people usually think of.

2.2.4 Context

Egins (2004:7) asserts that *context is in text*: text carries with it, as a part of it, aspects of the context in which it was produced and, presumably, within which it would be considered appropriate. It can be inferred then, based on the statement, that text brings context within it. Text is always a product of a particular context of culture and context of situation. It is affirmed by Gerot and Wignell (1994:10) who claim that all meaning is situated in a *context of situation* and in a *context of culture*.

2.2.4.1 Context of Culture

Context of culture determines what we can mean through being “what we are”, doing “what we do”, and saying “what we say” (Gerot and Wignell, 1994:10). Furthermore, Gerot and Wignell give an example about context of culture as follows:

Suppose, like one of us, you grew up in mid-western United States, the eldest daughter in a large farming family. Being the eldest daughter in this circumstance automatically casts one in the role of “momma’s the little helper”. That’s who you are in the family. This in turn largely determines what you do within the family and what you say. Protesting that you don’t want to do the ironing or that the baby is a smelly brat is not allowed.

Context of culture triggers the emergence of text types, or in this case called *genres*. *Genre*, according to Martin (1984:25) as quoted in Eggins (2004:55) is a staged, goal-oriented social process. Social because we participate in genres with other people; goal-oriented because we use genres to get things done; staged because it usually takes us a few steps to reach our goals (Martin and Rose, 2003:7-8).

We use the term *genre* to refer to different types of texts that enact various types of social contexts. As children, we learn to recognize and distinguish the typical genres of our culture, by attending to consistent patterns of meaning as we interact with others in various situations. Since patterns of meaning are relatively consistent for each genre, we can learn to predict how each situation is likely to unfold, and learn how to interact in it (Martin and Rose, 2003:7).

2.2.4.2. Context of Situation

The term context of situation was coined by Malinowski (1923) as quoted by Halliday and Hasan (1989:8). By context of situation, he meant the environment of the text.

Halliday and Hasan (1976:21) assert that the term situation, meaning the context of situation in which a text is embedded, refers to all those extra-linguistic factors which have some bearing on the text itself.

Halliday and Hasan (1976:22) state general concepts for describing how the context of situation determines the kinds of meaning that are expressed. The FIELD is the total event, in which the text is functioning, together with the purposive activity of the speaker or writer; it thus includes the subject-matter as one element in it. The MODE is the function of the text in the event, including therefore both the channel taken by the language- spoken or written, extempore or prepared – and its genre, or rhetorical mode, as narrative, didactic, persuasive, ‘phatic communion’ and so on. The TENOR refers to the type of role interaction, the set of relevant social relations, permanent and temporary, among the participant involved. Field, mode, and tenor collectively define the context of situation of a text.

In addition, Halliday and Hassan offer a concept on how to analyze field, tenor, and mode using Contextual Configuration. A contextual configuration is a specific set of values that realizes field, tenor, or mode (Halliday and Hassan, 1989: 55). Contextual Configuration is stated as follows;

- Field

We can divide field into three areas:

Experiential Domain, or what the text is about.

Goal Orientation, or what the text is for.

Social Activity, or what the text is doing.

- Tenor

There are three basic factors within tenor:

Agentive Role, or the institutional (or not) roles of the participants, such as doctor/patient, teacher/student, etc.

Social Role, or the power relationship between them which may be hierarchic or nonhierarchic and includes expert/novice and also conferred social status and gender, etc.

Social Distance, or the amount or nature of contact the participants may have, which ranges from minimal (close friends) to maximal (formal settings).

- Mode

The mode is generally divided into three main areas:

Language Role, or how important is the language in this context, is it *ancillary* (not important) or is it *constitutive* (the central element in the context).

Channel, which may be either *phonic* or *graphic*.

Medium, which may be either *written* or *spoken*.

2.2.5 Metafunctions

Halliday uses metafunctions as a term to recognize meanings that are formed by language. He developed four metafunctions, three of them show up in the clause column - the technical names for the metafunctions, matches them up with the different statuses of the clause and shows the kind of structure favored by each, but the fourth metafunctional heading does not show up in the clause column

because it is not embodied in the clause but in the clause complex-clauses linked together by logicosemantic relations to form sequences;

Table 2.2 Metafunction and Their Reflexes in the Grammar (Halliday and Mattiessen, 2004: 61)

Metafunction (Technical Name)	Definition (Kind of Meaning)	Corresponding Status in Clause	Favored Type of Structure
Experiential	Construing a model of experience	Clause as representation	Segmental (based on constituency)
Interpersonal	Enacting social relationships	Clause as exchange	Prosodic
Textual	Creating relevance to context	Clause as message	Culminative
Logical	Construing logical relations	—	Iterative

Thompson (1996: 28) identifies those metafunctions as follows;

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

4. In using languages, the clause complex-clauses linked together by logicosemantic relations to form sequences as stated by Halliday and Mattiessen (2004).

Gerot and Wignell (1994:12-14) suggest that there are three types of meanings to reconstruct the context of situation in the relationship between context and text. They are:

1. Ideational meanings are meanings about phenomena – about things (living and non-living, abstract and concrete), about goings on (what things are or do) and the circumstances surrounding these happening and doings. These meanings are most centrally influenced by the field of discourse.
2. Interpersonal meanings are meanings which express a speaker's attitudes and judgments. These are meanings for acting upon and with others. Meanings are realized in wordings through what is called MOOD and modality. Meanings of this kind are centrally influenced by tenor of discourse.
3. Textual meanings express the relation of language of its environment, including both the verbal environment – what has been said or written before (co-text) and the non-verbal, situational environment (context). These meanings are realized through patterns of theme and cohesion. Textual meanings are mostly influenced by mode in discourse.

In short, the metafunctions can be interpreted as follows:

1. Ideational meanings are meanings about speakers' experience of the world. These meanings are influenced by *field*.
2. Interpersonal meanings are meanings about speakers' attitudes and judgement to interact in the world. These meanings are influenced by *tenor*.
3. Textual meanings are meanings about how text is used in coherent and cohesive structure. These meanings are influenced by *mode*.

2.2.6 Ideational Meanings

According to Thompson (1996:28), the ideational meaning represents our experience of the world, including the worlds in our minds, to describe events and states and the entities involved in them. In other words, it will consider the clause from the point of view of its experiential meaning. In experiential terms, the clause refers to the action which has happened and the thing the action was done to and also refers to the doer of the action. This statement is supported by Martin, Matthiessen, and Painter (1997:5) who assert that ideational meaning involves looking for the processes in the text and whatever goes with them.

Gerot and Wignell (1994:12) state that ideational meanings are meanings about phenomena – about things (living and non-living, abstract and concrete), about goings on (what things are or do) and the circumstances surrounding these happening and doings. Moreover, Eggins (2004:206) asserts that ideational meanings are meanings about how we represent reality in language. These meanings are most centrally influenced by the field of discourse.

According to Halliday and Matthiessen (2004:61), ideational or experiential meaning construes a model of experience. The model of human experience at the heart of ideational meaning, in all languages, is of processes involving people, things, places, and qualities (Martin and Rose, 2007:74). Moreover, it has the point of view of what something is about – its meaning as the expression of some kind of a process, some event, action, state, or other phenomenal aspect of the real world to which it bears some kind of symbolic relation (Halliday and Hasan, 1989:18).

Martin and Rose (2003:66) assert that Ideation focuses on the 'content' of a discourse: what kinds of activities are undertaken, and how participants in these activities are described, how they are classified and what they are composed of. Ideation is concerned with how our experience of 'reality' material and symbolic, is construed in discourse.

Our experience can be represented from various perspectives, for example as personal or institutional, or from our own perspective or from others' perspective. Each of us as a writer represents a slice of our own experience, or the more general experience of our society and institutions. In other words, we do not believe that ideational meanings simply translate a pre-existing 'reality' into words; rather writers construe their experience of reality as discourse (Martin and Rose, 2003:66).

In conclusion, ideational meanings can be interpreted as meanings about our experiences in the world. These meanings are most centrally influenced by the field of discourse.

2.2.7 Transitivity System

When we look at the ideational metafunction, we are looking at the grammar of the clause as representation. As with the clause as exchange, we find there is one major system of grammatical choice involved in this kind of meaning. This is the system of Transitivity, or process type (Egins, 2004:228).

Egins (2004:214) asserts that in analysing transitivity structure in a clause, we are concerned with describing three aspects of the clause. They are;

- The selection of processes
- The selection of participants
- The selection of circumstances

Processes are realised in the language as verb groups, as for instance, runs, used to think, believe, will come, going to visit. Participants are realised in the language as noun groups, such as you, London, online newspaper, the bag which she bought, beauty and charm. Circumstances are realised in the language as prepositional phrases, adverbial groups, noun groups. For instance, after the show, with her mother, as the teacher, extremely carefully, next month.

We call the arrangement of process, participants, and circumstances a ‘figure’. At the core of each figure is the process; closely involved in the process are its participants; and more distantly associated with it are its circumstances (Martin and Rose, 2003:70). Figures and their elements (process, participants, circumstances) are the basic units of ideational meaning in discourse, in all languages we know of, spoken and written (Martin and Rose, 2003:71).

2.2.7.1 Processes

Processes are considered essential to transitivity. They determine the associated differences in Participants and the choice of Circumstances.

Processes are central to Transitivity. Participants and Circumstances are incumbent upon the doings, happenings, feelings and beings. It suggests that there are different kinds of Participants in varying Circumstances (Gerot and Wignell, 1994:54).

Gerot and Wignell (1994:54) state that Processes are realised by verbs. The traditional view which states that verbs are doing words can be broken because some words are not doing words at all, but rather they express states of being or having. For instance, words such as “be”, “seem”, “have”. Moreover, there are different orders of doings and beings, as for instance, to *write* a funny story, to *tell* a funny story, and to *hear* a funny story are three different orders of meaning.

Halliday as quoted in Gerot and Wignell (1994:54) identifies seven different Process types:

Table 2.3 Seven Different Process Types by Halliday as quoted in Gerot and Wignell (1994:54)

Material	Doing	Bodily, physically, materially
Behavioural	Behaving	Physiologically and psychologically
Mental	Sensing	Emotionally, intellectually, sensorily
Verbal	Saying	Lingually, signalling
Relational	Being	Equal to, or some attribute of
Existential	Existing	There exists
Meteorological	Weathering	

2.2.7.1.1 Material Processes (*Figure of doing*)

Gerot and Wignell (1994:55) describe the meaning of Material Processes as Processes of material doing. These Processes express the notion that some entity physically does something – which may be done to some other entity. This statement is in line with Eggins (2004:215) who asserts that the basic meaning of material processes is that some entity does something, undertake some actions. These are the processes of doing which are usually concrete, tangible action.

Clauses with Material Process obligatorily have a doing (Process) and a doer (Participant). The doer who or which does something is the Actor (Gerot and Wignell, 1994:55).

For example:

The man	walks
Participant: Actor	Process: Material

There optionally is an entity to which the Process is extended or directed. This entity which may be done to is the *Goal* (Gerot and Wignell, 1994:55).

For example:

The students	do	the homework
Actor	Process: Material	Goal

A clause with Material Process have an actor which may not be mentioned. This happens in the structure of a passive clause.

For example:

The letter	was written	carefully
Actor	Pr: Material	Circ: manner

2.2.7.1.2 Behavioral Processes (*Figure of doing*)

Behavioral processes are processes of physiological and psychological behavior.

Halliday described this processes semantically as a “half-way house” between mental and material processes. The meanings they realize are mid-way between materials on the hand and mental on the other. They are in part about action, but it is action that has to be experienced by a conscious being (Eggins, 2004:250).

The main Participant in this Process is called Behavior. It is a conscious being, and the Process relates to a particular kind of human behaviour.

Martin	is smiling	friendly
Behavior	Behavioural	Circ: manner

There is another Participant in Behavioural Process called Range. It specifies the scope of the Process, defining its coordinates or domain (Gerot and Wignell, 1994: 61).

For example:

Diana	heaved	a deep sigh
Behavior	Behavioural	Range

2.2.7.1.3 Mental Processes (*Figure of sensing*)

Mental Processes are ones of sensing: feeling, thinking, perceiving (Gerot and Wignell, 1994:58). It is in line with Martin, Matthiessen, and Painter (1997:105) who assert that Mental clauses construe a person involved in conscious processing, including processes of perception, cognition and affection.

The Participant roles in Mental Processes are *Senser* and *Phenomenon*. The *Senser* is a conscious being, for only those who are conscious can feel, think, or see. Meanwhile, the *Phenomenon* is that which is sensed: felt, thought, or seen (Gerot and Wignell, 1994:58).

There is also an additional Participant in Mental Process called the *Inducer*. The emergence of this additional Participant is brought about by the possibility of the Process being initiated externally.

For example:

He	made	me	realize	my fault
Inducer	Mental	Senser	Mental	Phenomenon

According to Gerot and Wignell (1994:58), Mental Process has three types:

- Affection or reaction (feeling)

Mark	didn't like	the car
Senser	Mental:Affect	Phenomenon

- Cognition (thinking, process of deciding, knowing, understanding)

I understand your sadness

Senser	Mental: Cognition	Phenomenon
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- Perception (perceiving through the five senses, seeing, hearing)

Sarah	hears	the story
Senser	Mental: Perceptive	Phenomenon

Mental Processes have the potential to project. Projection occurs when one clause suggests that something was thought or said (the projecting clause) and another, separate clause indicates what it was that was thought or said (the projected clause). The projecting and projected clauses are each analysed in their own right (Gerot and Wignell, 1994:60).

For example:

The first clause does not project while the second does.

I	know	the man who called on you
Senser	Mental: Cognition	Phenomenon

I	know	(that)	someone	called on	you
Senser	Mental: Cognition	-	Actor	Material	Goal

(Gerot and Wignell, 1994:60)

2.2.7.1.4 Verbal Processes (Figure of saying)

Halliday (1994:140) states that verbal processes are processes of saying and are expressed by verbs such as say, tell, ask, reply, or more accurately, of symbolically signaling. The “content” of saying may be represented as a separate clause (a locution) quoting or reporting what was said. This quoted or reported clause is called a projected clause.

Gerot and Wignell (1994:62) assert that as with Mental Processes which project, Verbal Processes are very often realised by projection. The projecting clause encodes a signal source (Sayer) and a signalling (Verbal Process) and the other (projected clause) realises what was said.

For example:

She	said	she	saw	a white horse
Sayer	Verbal	Senser	Mental: Perception	Phenomenon

The main Participant is called Sayer. In Verbal Processes, there are three other Participants:

- Receiver: the addressee of the verbalisation
- Target: one acted upon verbally (insulted, complimented, etc)
- Verbiage: a name for the verbalisation itself.

For example:

Marry	told	Anna	a funny story
Sayer	Verbal	Receiver	Verbiage

Harry	slurred	Joseph
Sayer	Verbal	Target

2.2.7.1.5 Relational Processes (Figure of being)

These Relational Processes are classified into two:

- Identifying Processes

Gerot and Wignell (1994:67) state that processes which establish an identity are called Identifying Processes. These Processes are reversible – the clause can be reversed in the order and the semantic relationship still holds (Gerot and Wignell, 1994:69). The Participants involved are called Token and Value.

For example:

Celine Dion	may be	the most talented singer in the world
Token	Identifying	Value

The additional Participant in Relational Processes: Identifying is called the Assigner (Gerot and Wignell, 1994:76).

For example:

People	call	her	Alexa
Assigner	Identifying	Value	Token

- **Attributive Processes**

Gerot and Wignell (1994:67) state that processes which assign a quality are called Attributive Processes. The Participants roles are Carrier and Attribute.

For example:

Celine Dion	is	a talented singer
Carrier	Attributive	Attribute

The additional Participant found in Relational Processes: Attributive is called the Attributor (Gerot and Wignell, 1994:76).

For example:

He	got	me	angry
Attributor	Attributive	Carrier	Attribute

Relational processes can be further sub-classified according to whether they are: intensive, possessive, or circumstantial (Gerot and Wignell, 1994:67). This indicates that all relational processes are either Attributive or Identifying, and at the same time, are either intensive, possessive, or circumstantial (Gerot and Wignell, 1994:68).

The difference between these are easiest to grasp in attributive clauses. The intensive relationship is most familiar: this is where the Carrier has an attribute or quality ascribed to it. The Predicator need not be “be”, though in most cases it is possible to paraphrase the process as “be” plus some extra specification (Thompson, 1996:93).

For example:

He	went	as white as a sheet.
Carrier	Attributive	Attribute

The circumstantial relationship is similar to the intensive, but, as the label suggests, it involves concepts like location, time, etc (Thompson, 1996:93).

For example:

Hope Street	runs	between the two Cathedrals.
Carrier	Attributive	Attribute

The possessive relationship is that of ownership. This might at first seem an odd category to include as a relational process; but something possessed can be seen as a kind of attribute (Thompson, 1996:94).

For example:

She	's got	a splitting headache.
Carrier: possessor	Attributive	Attribute: possessed

Some circumstantial identifying clauses are easy to recognize: like circumstantial attributive clauses, one of the participants is a prepositional phrase; but the clause is reversible (Thompson, 1996:95).

For example:

The best place	would be	behind the chest of drawers.
Value	Identifying	Token

The final category is possessive identifying clauses. For example:

The course	comprises	two years of full-time study.
Token	Identifying	Value

2.2.7.1.6 Existential Processes (*Figure of being*)

Eggs (2004:238) states that existential processes represent experience by positing that “there was/is something”. Existentials are easy to identify as the structure involves the use of the word *there*. Gerot and Wignell (1994:72) state that Existential Processes are processes of existence. These are expressed by verbs of existing: “be”, “exist”, “arise”, and the main Participant called the Existent, can be a phenomenon of any kind.

For example:

There	is	a girl	in the house
	Existential	Existent	Circumstance: place

“There” has no representational function; it is required due to the need for Subject in English.

2.2.7.1.7 Meteorological Processes

Meteorological Processes construe weathering (Gerot and Wignell, 1994:54).

For example:

It	is cloudy
	Meteorological

The “it” has no representational function, but does provide a Subject. These are analysed as Process: Meteorological (Gerot and Wignell, 1994:73).

2.2.7.2 Participants

One perspective on how texts represent experience is to look at how people and things participate in figures, as a text unfolds. We can do this very simply by summarizing the roles of participants in each of the figure types, using a table. In the first Incident of Helena’s story, she and her young man participate in various events, and are classified and described. In table 2.4, their way of participating are listed as either *doing*, *saying/sensing* or the *quality*, *class*, *part*, *identity* or *existent* that are related to. Where participants are realized as pronoun *I*, *he*, *we*, *they* and so on, we will render them as names, such as *Helena* and *the young man*, to make it clear which participant is being referred to (Martin and Rose, 2003:86-87).

Table 2.4 Participating in Helena's story (Martin and Rose, 2003:86)

Participants	Doing	Say/sensing	Related quality, part, identity, existent
Helena+young man	Met		
Young man	was working		
It ('meeting')			the beginning of a beautiful relationship
Helena+young man	spoke		
Young man			a bubbly, vivacious man
Young man			Sharply intelligent
Young man			an Englishman
Young man			popular
All my girlfriends	envied me		
Young man "young man"	was going..."	said	
Helena+young man		won't see	
Helena+young man			torn to pieces
Short marriage	failed		
Helena	married	to forget	

In this Incident, Helena construes herself as acting only in concert with her young man (*meet, spoke, won't see each other again*), except in the last figure where her only independent action (*married to forget*) is a failure. The young man by contrast does act independently (*working in a top security structure, going on a 'trip'*). He is also thoroughly describes in glowing terms (*bubbly, vivacious, intelligent, popular*), unlike Helena who is only described negatively in reaction to his leaving (*torn to pieces*).

Analysis of participation can bring out how people and things are unequally positioned in discourse, for example by gender, as this extract displays; although it is written by a woman, the analysis shows how the female participant is construed as less independent, less active, and less interesting than the male (Martin and Rose, 2003:87).

2.2.7.3 Circumstances

Circumstances provide information about the conditions in which a Process occurs such as where, when, how, with what, why, how far, how long, about what or as what. Martin, Matthiessen, Painter (1997: 104) identifies nine different types of Circumstance in English;

Table 2.5 Types of Circumstance in English (Martin, Matthiessen, Painter, 1997: 104)

Circumstance Type	Typical Probe	Example Realization	Circumstance Subcategory	Subcategory Probe
Extent	How ___? At what intervals?	For three hours	Temporal	For how long?
		Every second step	Spatial	How far?
Location	At what point?	In September; before tea	Temporal	When?
		In the yard; from Paris	Spatial	Where?
Manner	How?	With a hammer	Means	By what means?
		Quickly	Quality	How?
		As fast as possible	Comparison	What like?
Cause	Why?	Because of you	Reason	Why?

		For better result	Purpose	For what purpose?
		On behalf of us all	Behalf	On whose behalf?
Contingency	In what circumstances?	In the event of rain	Condition	Under what conditions?
		In spite of rain	Concession	Despite what?
		In the absence of proof	Default	Lacking what?
Accompaniment	Together with ?	With(out) his friends	Comitative	Who/what with?
		As well as them	Additive	And who/what else?
Role		As a concerned parents	Guise	What as?
		(smashed) into pieces	Product	What into?
Matter	What about?	About this; with reference to that		
Angle	Says who?	According to the Shorter Oxford		

2.2.8 Newspaper

Reading newspaper means learning current events. According to Hamilton (2004:4) A newspaper tells us what is happening around the world. It also keeps us in touch with news in our own neighborhood. A newspaper is published periodically and usually printed on relatively inexpensive, low-grade paper. It contains informative articles, advertising and obviously news.

News is information about something that has just happened or is about to happen (Hamilton, 2004:4). Obviously, not everything is reported. Newspaper editors choose stories which generally attract people's attention.

A newspaper is generally interested in publishing news articles and feature articles on national and international news as well as local news. The news includes political events and personalities, business and finance, crime, severe weather, and natural disasters; health and medicine, science, and technology; sports; and entertainment, society, food and cooking, clothing and home fashion, and the arts. Beside the aforementioned news and opinions, they also include weather forecasts; criticism and reviews of the arts (including literature, film, television, theater, fine arts, and architecture) and of local services such as restaurants; obituaries; entertainment features such as crosswords, horoscopes, editorial cartoons, gag cartoons, and comic strips; advice, food, and other columns; and radio and television listings (program schedules). Typically the paper is divided into sections for each of those major groupings (labeled A, B, C, and so on, with pagination prefixes yielding page numbers A1-A20, B1-B20, C1-C20, and so on). Most traditional papers also feature an editorial page containing editorials written by an editor, op-eds written by guest writers, and columns that express the personal opinions of columnists, usually offering analysis and synthesis that attempts to translate the raw data of the news into information telling the reader "what it all means" and persuading them to concur. (<https://en.m.wikipedia.org/wiki/Newspaper>)

In line with the development of technology, most newspapers now publish online as well as in print. The online versions are called online newspapers. The Jakarta Post and The New York Times are the examples of those.

2.2.9 The Jakarta Post

The Jakarta Post is a daily English language newspaper in Indonesia. The paper is owned by PT Bina Media Tenggara, and the head office is in the nation's capital, Jakarta.

The Jakarta Post was started as a collaboration between four Indonesian media under the urging of Information Minister Ali Murtopo and politician Jusuf Wanandi. After the first issue was printed on 25 April 1983, it spent several years with minimal advertisements and increasing circulation. After a change in chief editors in 1991, it began to take a more vocal pro-democracy point of view. The paper was one of the few Indonesian English-language dailies to survive the 1997 Asian financial crisis and currently has a circulation of about 40,000.

The Jakarta Post also features both a Sunday and Online edition. The Sunday edition includes more in-depth stories, as well as entertainment and fiction that would not be published in the weekday editions. Meanwhile, the Online edition includes both print and internet exclusive stories that are free to access. There are also news flashes that are developed as they happen. The Jakarta Post is targeted at foreigners and educated Indonesians, although the middle-class Indonesian readership has increased. Noted for being a training ground for local and international reporters, The Jakarta Post has won several awards and been

described as being "Indonesia's leading English-language daily".
(https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/The_Jakarta_Post)

2.2.10 The New York Times

The New York Times (NYT) is an American daily newspaper, founded and continuously published in New York City since September 18, 1851, by The New York Times Company. It has won 114 Pulitzer Prizes, more than any other news organization.

The paper's print version remains the largest metropolitan newspaper in the United States and second-largest newspaper overall, behind The Wall Street Journal. It is ranked 39th in the world by circulation. Following industry trends, its weekday circulation has fallen to fewer than one million daily since 1990. Nicknamed for years as "The Gray Lady", The New York Times is long regarded within the industry as a national "newspaper of record". It is owned by The New York Times Company. Arthur Ochs Sulzberger, Jr., (whose family (Ochs-Sulzberger) has controlled the paper for five generations, since 1896), is both the paper's publisher and the company's chairman. Its international version, formerly the International Herald Tribune, is now called the International New York Times.

The paper's motto, "All the News That's Fit to Print", appears in the upper left-hand corner of the front page. Its website has adapted it to "All the News That's Fit to Click". Since the mid-1970s, it has greatly expanded its lay-out and

organization, adding special weekly sections on various topics supplementing the regular news, editorials, sports and features. Recently it has been organized into sections: News, Editorials/Opinions-Columns/Op-Ed, New York (metropolitan), Business, Sports of The Times, Arts, Science, Styles, Home, and other features. On Sunday, it is supplemented by sections of The Week in Review, The New York Times Book Review, The New York Times Magazine and recently T: The New York Times Style Magazine. The Times stayed with the broadsheet full page set-up (as some others have changed into a tabloid lay-out) and an eight-column format for several years after most papers switched to six, and was one of the last newspapers to adopt color photography, especially on the front page.

Online content is available through a metered pay wall begun in 2011. The first ten articles per month are free to read, while additional articles require a subscription. There are also mobile applications to access content for various mobile devices, such as Android devices and Apple's iOS platform. (http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/The_New_York_Times)

2.2.11 Gaza Conflict

Gaza conflict is also known as Gaza-Israel conflict. The Gaza–Israel conflict is a part of the wider Israeli–Palestinian conflict.

Palestinian militant actions escalated in the Gaza Strip following the overwhelming election to government of the Islamic political party Hamas in 2005 and 2006. The conflict escalated with the split of the Palestinian Authority to Fatah government in the West Bank and the Hamas Government in Gaza and the

following violent ousting of Fatah. Palestinian rocket attacks on Israel and Israel's blockade of Gaza have exacerbated the conflict.

Under its 2005 disengagement plan, Israel retained exclusive control over Gaza's airspace and territorial waters, continued to patrol and monitor the external land perimeter of the Gaza Strip, with the exception of its southernmost border (where Egypt retained control of the border and border crossings were supervised by European monitors) and continued to monitor and blockade Gaza's coastline. Israel largely provides for and controls Gaza's water supply, electricity and communications infrastructure. According to Human Rights Watch and Amnesty International, Israel remains an occupying power under international law. The United Nations has stated that under resolutions of both the General Assembly and the Security Council it regards Gaza to be part of the "Occupied Palestinian Territories". Meanwhile, the Fatah government in the West Bank, officially recognized as the sole representative of the State of Palestine refers to the Gaza Strip as part of the Palestinian State and does not recognize the Hamas government, hence avoiding interfering in the conflict. (http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Gaza%E2%80%93Israel_conflict)

2.3 Theoretical Framework

The framework of the analysis, to know how the cease-fire in Gaza conflict is represented by the writers of The Jakarta Post and The New York Times, can be seen as follows:

1. Reading the articles

I read the articles thoroughly in order to understand the content completely.

2. Identifying the sequences of phases of the articles

I started to identify the sequences of phases that each article went through within its generic stage. Then, I continued by identifying the sequences within the phases.

3. Dividing the sequences into figures

I divided the sequences within each phase into figures. Figure is the arrangement of process, participants and circumstances (Halliday and Matthiessen, 1999). Here, we can look at the role which each clause plays in the phase.

4. Describing the elements of figure: process, participants, circumstances

I described the elements of figure: process, participants, and circumstances to see the roles played by each element of meaning within the clauses.

5. Describing the realization of those elements in wordings.

The last step was describing the realization of those elements into words.

Here, I described how each clause and its elements contribute to the overall construal of experience as a text develops.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

This is the last chapter of my research report. It presents the conclusions derived from the whole analyses and discussion presented in the previous chapter. It also provides suggestions based on the research findings.

5.1 Conclusions

This study has analyzed how the cease-fire in Gaza conflict is represented by the writers of The Jakarta Post and The New York Times in their articles. I revisit the research questions as follows: (1) How is the cease-fire in Gaza conflict represented by the writers of the Jakarta Post in the article?; and (2) How is the cease-fire in Gaza conflict represented by the writers of The New York Times in the article? Based on the findings and discussions in Chapter IV, the conclusions can be drawn as follows.

Research question 1: How is the cease-fire in Gaza conflict represented by the writers of The Jakarta Post? The writers of The Jakarta Post start the article by summarizing the news about the cease-fire in a generic stage of a news item called Newsworthy Event. They then follow it with Background Event. The Background Event consists of three phases: the **'cease-fire'** phase, the **'Egyptian-mediated talks'** phase, and the **'campaign'** phase. The first phase, which is the **'cease-fire'**

phase, can be divided into three parts: **announcement** of the cease-fire, **description** about the cease-fire, and **assurance** all parties got about the cease-fire. The second phase, which is the **'Egyptian-mediated talks'** phase, can be divided into three parts: things happened **under the truce**, **delegation** to the talks, and **casualties** due to the previous campaign. The third phase of the article, which is the **'campaign'** phase, can be divided into two parts: **intensity** of the campaign, and **strike**. At the end of the article, the writers of The Jakarta Post provide Sources. The Sources consist of statements from Hamas and Israel related to the war they are involved.

There are four kinds of figures found in this article. They are figure of doing (material and behavioral processes), figure of saying (verbal process), figure of sensing (mental process), and figure of being (relational (attributive and identifying) process, and existential process). Among the four figures, figure of doing (material process) with actor and goal as the key participants dominate in the article. It is then followed by figure of saying, figure of being, and figure of sensing.

From the circumstances analysis, 58 circumstances are found in the article. They consist of nine different kinds of circumstances. They are circumstance of extent, circumstance of location, circumstance of manner, circumstance of causes, circumstance of contingency, circumstance of accompaniment, circumstance of role, circumstance of matter, and circumstance of angel. The circumstance of location is found to be the most dominant circumstance in the article written by the writers of The Jakarta Post.

Research question 2: How is the cease-fire in Gaza conflict represented by the writers of The New York Times? The writers of The New York Times began the article by recounting the summary of the news about the cease-fire in the Newsworthy Event. The writers then continued it by providing Background Event, which is the elaboration of what happened, to whom, and in what circumstances. The Background Event consists of three phases: the **'cease-fire'** phase, the **'Egyptian-mediated talks'** phase, and the **'combat'** phase. The first phase, which is the 'cease-fire' phase, can be divided into three parts: **announcement** of the cease-fire, **American officials**, and **agreement**. The 'Egyptian-mediated talks' phase can be divided into three parts: **delegation** to the talks, **choreography** of the talks, and **substance** of the talks. The 'combat' phase can be divided into two parts: **intensity** of the combat, and **strike**. To end the article, the writers of The New York Times provide comments from the authorities experts, such as the commissioner-general of the United Nations Relief and Works Agency, and the White House press secretary.

Four kinds of figures are found in this article. They are figure of doing (material and behavioral processes), figure of saying (verbal process), figure of sensing (mental process), and figure of being (relational (attributive and identifying) process, and existential process). Among the four figures, figure of doing (material process) with actor and goal as the key participants is found to be the most dominant figure in the article. It is then followed by figure of saying, figure of being, and figure of sensing.

There are 77 circumstances found in the article. They consist of seven different kinds of circumstances: circumstance of location, circumstance of manner, circumstance of causes, circumstance of contingency, circumstance of accompaniment, circumstance of role, and circumstance of matter. The circumstance of extent and circumstance of angel are not found in the article. The circumstance of location is found to be the most dominant circumstance in the article.

To conclude, the writers from The Jakarta Post and The New York Times already fulfil the generic stages of a news item in writing their article. They start with Newsworthy Event, followed it with Background Event, and end with Sources. In the Background Event, the writers of both newspapers wrote three phases: cease-fire phase, Egyptian-mediated talks phase, and campaign/combat phase. The writers of The Jakarta Post divide the cease-fire phase into three parts: announcement, description, and assurance. The Egyptian-mediated talks phase is divided into three parts: under the truce, delegation, and casualties. The campaign phase is divided into two parts: the intensity and the strike. Meanwhile, The writers of The New York Times divide the cease-fire phase into announcement, American officials, and agreement parts. The Egyptian-mediated talks phases is divided into delegation, choreography, and substance parts. The combat phase is divided into intensity and strike parts. The figure of doing (material process) with actor and goal as the main participants dominate in both articles. From the circumstances analysis, the writers of The Jakarta Post employ 58 circumstances

with nine different kinds of circumstances, while the writers of The New York Times employ 77 circumstances with seven different kinds of circumstances.

5.2 Suggestions

Suggestions dealing with this study are addressed to the readers, the next researchers and discourse analysts. The English language readers are suggested to enhance their ability in analyzing texts through discourse analysis and functional grammar. They are expected to be able to interpret how authors represent experience by exploring the sequences of ideational meanings or sequences of activities involving people and things. In addition, suggestion is also addressed to the next researchers and discourse analysts who are interested in the field of ideational meanings. Hopefully they would be able to demonstrate how lexicogrammar analysis is applied to uncover newspaper articles' ideational meanings.

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