LAPORAN PENELITIAN

MODEL PEMBELAJARAN MATA KULIAH
***FUNCTIONAL GRAMMAR* BERBASIS GENRE:**
Penelitian dan Pengembangan di Program Studi Pendidikan Bahasa dan Sastra
Inggris Universitas Negeri Padang

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FAKULTAS BAHASA DAN SENI
UNIVERSITAS NEGERI PADANG
2012

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ABSTRAK

Model Pembelajaran Mata Kuliah *Functional Grammar* Berbasis Genre: Penelitian dan Pengembangan di Prodi Pendidikan Bahasa dan Sastra Inggris Universitas Negeri Padang

Refnaldi

Model pembelajaran yang baik adalah model pembelajaran yang dikembangkan berdasarkan analisis kebutuhan dan analisis kelayakan. Penelitian ini bertujuan untuk mengembangkan model pembelajaran mata kuliah *Functional Grammar* berbasis pendekatan genre. Desain dari penelitian ini adalah riset dan pengembangan, yang terdiri dari tiga tahapan penelitian, yaitu (a) analisis kebutuhan mahasiswa, (b) analisis kelayakan bahan ajar yang digunakan, dan (c) pengembangan bahan ajar berdasarkan hasil analisis. Penelitian *survey* dilakukan untuk mendapatkan data yang berkaitan dengan kebutuhan mahasiswa terhadap model pembelajaran *Functional Grammar*, analisis dokumen dilakukan untuk mendapatkan data yang berkaitan dengan kelayakan bahan ajar, dan penerapan berbagai teori pembelajaran *Functional Grammar* dan pengembangan dilakukan dalam menyusun model pembelajaran yang baru. Temuan penelitian menunjukkan bahwa model pembelajaran yang sudah dan sedang digunakan selama beberapa tahun tidak layak lagi digunakan, hasil analisis kebutuhan menunjukkan bahwa responden menginginkan model pembelajaran yang menvariasikan berbagai macam penjelasan dan contoh yang berkaitan dengan *Functional Grammar*, tugas-tugas *Functional Grammar*, dan sumber-sumber bahan ajar. Terakhir, model pembelajaran yang dikembangkan didasarkan pada hasil analisis terdiri dari silabus perkuliahan, prototipe strategi pembelajaran, dan bahan ajar untuk digunakan di dalam kelas yang berbentuk kompilasi materi.

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PENGANTAR

Kegiatan penelitian mendukung pengembangan ilmu serta terapannya. Dalam hal ini, Lembaga Penelitian Universitas Negeri Padang berusaha mendorong dosen untuk melakukan penelitian sebagai bagian integral dari kegiatan mengajarnya, baik yang secara langsung dibiayai oleh dana Universitas Negeri Padang maupun dana dari sumber lain yang relevan atau bekerja sama dengan instansi terkait.

Sehubungan dengan itu, Lembaga Penelitian Universitas Negeri Padang bekerjasama dengan Pimpinan Universitas, telah memfasilitasi peneliti untuk melaksanakan penelitian tentang *Model Pembelajaran Mata Kuliah Function Grammar Berbasisi Genre:Penelitiaan dan Pengembangan di Prodi Pendidikan Bahsa dan Sastra Inggris UNP*, sesuai dengan Surat Penugasan Pelaksanaan Penelitian Percepatan Guru Besar Universitas Negeri Padang Tahun Anggaran 2012 Nomor: 358/UN35.2/PG/2012 Tanggal 25 Juni 2012.

Kami menyambut gembira usaha yang dilakukan peneliti untuk menjawab berbagai permasalahan pembangunan, khususnya yang berkaitan dengan permasalahan penelitian tersebut di atas. Dengan selesainya penelitian ini, Lembaga Penelitian Universitas Negeri Padang akan dapat memberikan informasi yang dapat dipakai sebagai bagian upaya penting dalam peningkatan mutu pendidikan pada umumnya. Di samping itu, hasil penelitian ini juga diharapkan memberikan masukan bagi instansi terkait dalam rangka penyusunan kebijakan pembangunan.

Hasil penelitian ini telah ditelaah oleh tim pembahas usul dan laporan penelitian, kemudian untuk tujuan diseminasi, hasil penelitian ini telah diseminarkan ditingkat Universitas. Mudah-mudahan penelitian ini bermanfaat bagi pengembangan ilmu pada umumnya dan khususnya peningkatan mutu staf akademik Universitas Negeri Padang.

Pada kesempatan ini, kami ingin mengucapkan terima kasih kepada berbagai pihak yang membantu terlaksananya penelitian ini, terutama kepada pimpinan lembaga terkait yang menjadi objek penelitian, responden yang menjadi sampel penelitian, dan tim pereviu Lembaga Penelitian Universitas Negeri Padang. Secara khusus, kami menyampaikan terima kasih kepada Rektor Universitas Negeri Padang yang telah berkenan memberi bantuan pendanaan bagi penelitian ini. Kami yakin tanpa dedikasi dan kerjasama yang terjalin selama ini, penelitian ini tidak akan dapat diselesaikan sebagaimana yang diharapkan dan semoga kerjasama yang baik ini akan menjadi lebih baik lagi di masa yang akan datang.

Terima kasih.

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UCAPAN TERIMAKASIH

Pertama-tama kami mengucapkan puji dan syukur ke hadirat Allah Yang Maha Kuasa yang telah memberikan kesempatan kepada kami untuk menyelesaikan lapaoran penelitian yang berjudul "Model Pembelajaran Mata Kuliah *Functional Grammar* berbasis genre: Penelitian dan Pengembangan di Prodi Pendidikan Bahasa dan Sastra Inggris Universitas Negeri Padang". Shalawat dan Salam juga kami sampaikan kepada nabi besar Muhammad SAW.

Padang, Desember 2012

Peneliti

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BAB I

PENDAHULUAN

A. Latar Belakang Masalah

Perubahan kurikulum yang dilakukan dilakukan oleh Program Studi Pendidikan Bhasa Inggris Universitas Negeri Padang berdapak cukup besar terhadap penawaran mata kuliah dan bobot kredit untuk setiap mata kuliah. Contoh, beberapa mata kuliah yang selama ini ditawarkan kepada mahasiswa Prodi Pendidikan Bahasa Inggris, seperti mata kuliah yang tergolong ke dalam kelompok mata kuliah paket, tidak lagi masuk ke dalam kurikulum baru, sedangkan beberapa mata kuliah yang selama ini tidak terdapat di dalam kurikulum, seperti *Functional Grammar, English Language Teaching Curriculum,* dan *English Language Teaching Materials,* menjadi bagian dari kurikulum yang sudah direvisi. Contoh lainnya adalah terjadinya perubahan bobot kredit untuk beberapa mata kuliah yang selama ini ditawarkan di dalam kurikulum lama dan kurikulum baru.

Salah satu mata kuliah baru yang ditawarkan di dalam kurikulum adalah mata kuliah *Functional Grammar* dengan bobot1 kredit teori dan 1 kredit praktek. Tujuan utama dari mata kuliah ini adalah untuk meningkatkan kemampuan dan keterampilan mahasiswa dalam memahami dan menerapkan prinsip-prinsip gramatika fungsional dalam memahami dan memproduksi berbagai macam teks (*genre*). Mahasiswa dituntut untuk mampu menganalisis klausa-klausa yang digunakan di dalam sebuah teks, menentukan jenis register dari teks tersebut dan menentukan jenis genre yang direalisasikan oleh teks tersebut. Dengan demikian, teori gramatika yang dipelajari mahasiswa mesti diterapkan untuk keperluan analisis dan pembentukan teks.

Sebagai salah satu mata kuliah baru, "*Functional Grammar*" belum memiliki desain pembelajaran yang sesuai dengan kebutuhan dosen pengampu mata kuliah dan mahasiswa yang mengambil mata kuliah ini. Kenyataan di lapangan menunjukkan bahwa terdapat beberapa buku teks gramatika fungsional yang dapat digunakan, seperti *Introduction to Functional Grammar* karangan M. A. K. Halliday (2002), *Introduction to Systemic Functional Linguistics* karangan Susan Eggins (2003), dan *Working with Functional Grammar* karangan Martin dan Mattiessen (1995), akan tetapi materi-materi tersebut belum tentu cocok dengan kebutuhan program studi pendidikan bahasa dan Sastra Inggris. Hal ini disebabkan oleh buku-buku tersebut diancang untuk keperluan mahasiswa-mahasiswa program linguistic yang belajar pada tingkata sarjana dan pascasarjana di luar negeri, bukan untuk keperluan dalam negeri.

Untuk mengatasi permasalahan berkenaan dengan model pembelajaran yang cocok dengan keperluan mahasiswa dan dosen pengampu mata kuliah, suatu studi pengembangan perlu dilakukan. Ini penting sekali dilakukan karena (1) model pembelajaran yang cocok akan berdampak positif terhadap peningkatan kemampuan mahasiswa, (2) mata kuliah ini merupakan mata kuliah yang ditawarkan secara beraturan di program studi dan merupakan mata kuliah wajib bagi seluruh mahasiswa, dan (3) Keberhasilan mata kuliah ini juga akan berdampak baik terhadap keberhasilan mata kuliah lain, terutama mata kuliah *reading* dan *writing*.

B. Fokus dan Sub-fokus Penelitian

1. Fokus Penelitian

Yang menjadi fokus dari penelitian ini adalah pengembangan model pembelajaran mata kuliah Functional Grammar berdasarkan pendekatan berbasis genre untuk mahasiswa Program Studi Pendidikan Bahasa dan Sastra Inggris Universitas Negeri Padang. Yang dimaksud dengan model pembelajaran di dalam penelitian ini adalah silabus perkuliahan yang dikembangkan berdasarkan hasil analisis kebutuhan dan kondisi objektif, prototipe strategi pembelajaran mata kuliah *Functional Grammar* yang dikembangkan berdasarkan silabus dan pendekatan berbasis genre, dan materi-materi perkuliahan yang dikembangkan berdasarkan silabus perkuliahan dan strategi pembelajaran. Materi-materi ini berupa informasi dalam bentuk penjelasan dan contoh (*input*) yang berkenaan dengan aspek kebahasaan (*language*) dan aspek isi (*content*), dan jenis-jenis aktivitas/tugas/latihan (*tasks*) yang betujuan untuk memperkaya, menguatkan dan meningkatkan keterampilan mahasiswa dalam menggunakan *Functional Grammar*. Dengan demikian, model pembelajaran ini pada hakikatnya berkaitan dengan pengaturan tentang apa yang akan dilakukan dosen dan mahasiswa di dalam mengorganisasikan pengalaman-pengalaman belajar *Functional Grammar* di dalam bahasa Inggris secara sistematis.

2. Sub Fokus Penelitian

Sub fokus penelitian ini mencakup: (a) kebutuhan mahasiswa dan dosen akan model pembelajaran *Functional Grammar* di dalam bahasa Inggris yang dapat membantu menyelesaikan tugas-tugas perkuliahan mereka dan sesuai dengan kebutuhan pengguna

lulusan, (b) analisis situasi yang berkenaan dengan profil dosen pengampu mata kuliah, kemampuan mahasiswa dalam memahami konsep *Functional Grammar*, dan kelayakan materi ajar yang digunakan sekarang, (c) model pembelajaran mata kuliah *Functional Grammar* yang diinginkan sesuai dengan hasil analisis kebutuhan dan analisis situasi.

C. Rumusan Masalah Penelitian

Masalah yang akan dibahas dalam penelitian dan pengembangan ini dirumuskan sebagai berikut:

Bagaimanakah model pembelajaran 'Functional Grammar' berbasis genre yang cocok bagi mahasiswa Program Studi Pendidikan Bahasa dan Sastra Inggris Universitas Negeri Padang?

Selanjutnya, rumusan masalah di atas digali secara lebih rinci dengan menggunakan pertanyaan-pertanyaan penelitian berikut ini:

1. Bagaimanakah kelayakan model pembelajaran "Functional Grammar" yang digunakan pada saat ini?

2. Bagaimanakah kebutuhan dosen pengampu mata kuliah 'Functional Grammar' terhadap model pembelajaran yang cocok?

3. Bagaimanakah kebutuhan mahasiswa mata kuliah 'Functional Grammar' terhadap model pembelajaran yang cocok?

4. Bagaimanakah model pembelajaran "Functional Grammar" yang cocok bagi mahasiswa Program Studi Pendidikan Bahasa dan Sastra - Inggris Universitas Negeri Padang?

5. Bagaimanakah penilaian para pakar tentang model pembelajaran "Functional Grammar" berbasis genre yang sudah dikembangkan?

D. Tujuan Khusus Penelitian

Sesuai dengan rumusan masalah dan rancangan penelitian, maka tujuan khusus dari penelitian ini adalah:

1. Mengidentifikasi kelayakan model pembelajaran *Functional Grammar* yang digunakan pada saat ini.

2. Mengidentifikasi kebutuhan dosen dan mahasiswa terhadap model pembelajaran *Functional Grammar* yang sesuai.

3. Menyusun dan mengembangkan model pembelajaran *Functional Grammar* yang cocok bagi mahasiswa Program Studi Pendidikan Bahasa dan Sastra Inggris Universitas Negeri Padang.

E. Keutamaan Penelitian

Penelitian dan pengembangan model pembelajaran mata kuliah *Functional Grammar* memiliki beberapa keutamaan dan layak dilakukan, yaitu:

- **Penelitian ini merupakan penelitian lanjutan dengan cakupan** yang lebih luas yang dilakukan di program studi pendidikan bahasa dan Sastra Inggris UNP dan merupakan penelitian yang menerapkan pengembangan yang cukup baru dalam bidang ilmu linguistik terapan. Hal ini dimungkinkan karena mata kuliah ini merupakan mata kuliah baru di dalam kurikulum program studi Pendidikan Bahasa

dan Sastra Inggris. Penelitian yang sudah dilakukan sebelumnya adalah pengembangan materi ajar mata kuliah *Functional Grammar* berbasis genre.

Produk akhir dari penelitian ini akan sangat bermanfaat bagi dosen pengampu mata kuliah dan mahasiswa dalam mengikuti mata kuliah *Functional Grammar* karena model pembelajaran yang akan dihasilkan merupakan hasil dari serangkaian penelitian yang bermuara kepada pengembangan model pembelajaran yang tepat. Kemampuan mahasiswa dalam memahami teks dan memproduksi teks secara tidak langsung akan dapat ditingkatkan melalui penggunaan model pembelajaran ini, karena sifat pengembangan modelnya bersinergi dengan keterampilan membaca dan menulis.

BAB II

TINJAUAN PUSTAKA

A. Pengembangan Model Pembelajaran

1. Hakikat Model Pembelajaran

Istilah model memiliki beragam makna. 'Model' dapat diartikan sebagai suatu benda tiruan yang ukurannya lebih kecil dari benda yang sesungguhnya. Dalam kehidupan sehari-hari, istilah model dapat berarti suatu versi tertentu dari produk pabrik, orang dengan profesi untuk memperagakan suatu jenis pakaian, panutan atau teladan suatu perilaku, subjek seniman, dan sebagainya. Isteliah model juga dapat diartikan sebagai suatu bentuk atau pola sebagai suatu hasil pengembangan. Selanjutnya, istilah model juga sering digunakan untuk merujuk pada langkah-langkah sistematis yang saling bertalian.

Pengertian model tidak terlepas dari konteks bidang keilmuan. Oleh karena itu istilah ini dapat berarti bermacam-macam tergantung pada bidang ilmu yang menggunakannya. Dalam kaitannya dengan pembelajaran, istilah model sering diartikan sebagai suatu kerangka konseptual yang digunakan sebagai pedoman untuk merancang dan melaksanakan kegiatan pembelajaran (Sagala, 2005: 175). Sebagai suatu kerangka konseptual, model pembelajaran (instructional model) menggambarkan prosedur yang sistematis untuk mengorganisasikan pengalaman belajar siswa/mahasiswa untuk mencapai tujuan belajar. Oleh karena itu, model pembelajaran berfungsi sebagai pedoman bagi para perancang pembelajaran dan para dosen/guru dalam merencanakan dan melaksanakan kegiatan pembelajaran.

Joyce, Weil dan Calhoun (2009: 6) mengatakan bahwa "*Model of teaching are reaaly models of learning*" (model pengajaran sesungguhnya merupakan model belajar). Mereka juga memaparkan bagaimana membantu siswa untuk belajar melalui pengaturan lingkungan belajar sehingga proses belajar pada diri peserta didik dapat terjadi. Lingkungan belajar dalam pengertian ini mencakup situasi pembelajaran, aktivitas, materi ajar, media, dan lainnya yang berpengaruh langsung terhadap kemungkinan terjadinya proses belajar pada diri peserta didik.

Dalam kaitannya dengan pembelajran bahasa, Richards dan Rogers (1986: 20) mengatakan bahwa model pembelajaran merupakan suatu bentuk hasil usaha untuk mengaplikasikan ilmu-ilmu bahasa yang dapat menunjang pembelajaran bahasa dan membuat hubungan yang paling efektif antara ilmu bahasa dan praktik pembelajaran bahasa. Berdasarkan pengertian ini, pengembangan model pembelajaran bahasa harus memperhatikan hakikat bahasa dan hakikat belajar bahasa. Pemahaman tentang hakikat bahasa dan belajar bahasa yang berbeda akan menghasilkan suatu model pembelajaran bahasa yang berbeda pula. Pengertian ini juga menunjukkan bahwa pengembangan model pembelajaran bahasa akan menghasilkan suatu kerangka koseptual tentang bagaimana cara mengelola atau mengorganisasikan pembelajaran bahasa secara efektif berdasarkan hakikat bahasa dan belajar bahasa.

Stern (1987: 35-36) menyatakan bahwa penghembangan model pembelajaran bahasa sesungguhnya merupakan suatu bentuk usaha untuk menentukan konsepsi-konsepsi dasar dalam merencanakan dan melaksanakan proses pembelajaran bahasa. Kosepsi-konsepsi itu didasarkan pada ilmu-ilmu bahasa, hakikat belajar bahasa dan faktor lain yang secara signifikan dapat mempengaruhi pembelajaran bahasa.

2. Komponen Model Pembelajaran

Model pembelajaran yang baik merupakan suatu produk temuan dari suatu proses pengembangan yang dilakukan melalui serangkaian tahapan kegiatan penelitian. Pengembangan model ini dilandasi oleh suatu tujuian dan pemikiran yang diperoleh dari hasil kajian teoretik, hasil penelitian terkait dan hasil identifikasi kebutuhan yang diimplementasikan di dalam komponen-komponen model pembelajaran itu sendiri. Joyce, Weil dan Calhoun (2009) mengatakan bahwa suatu model pembelajaran mencakup lima komponen atau variable utama: (a) sintak atau tahapan kegiatan, (b) system sosial, (c) prinsip reaksi, (d) system pendukung, dan (e) dampak instruksional dan pengiring.

Komponen sintak atau tahapan kegiatan berkaitan dengan langkah-langkah atau prosedur kegiatan pembelajaran yang harus dilakukan oleh dosen/guru dan mahasiswa/siswa dalam proses pembelajaran, yang sering disebut dengan siklus pembelajaran. Syah (2006: 114) mengatakan bahwa setiap proses belajar berlangsung dalam tiga tahapan: (a) tahap perolehan/penerimaan informasi, (b) tahap penyimpanan informasi, dan (c) tahap mendapatkan kembali informasi (retrival).

Komponen system sosial berkaitan dengan situasi atau suasana dan norma yang berlaku di dalam model pembelajaran (Winataputra, 2001: 8). Dalam kaitannya dengan pembelajaran menulis, system sosial itu menggambarkan suatu suasana pembelajaran yang diterapkan pada proses pembelajaran menulis. Hal ini dapat dilihat apakah aktivitas kelas dipusatkan pada guru atau siswa.

Prinsip reaksi merupakan pola kegiatan yang menggambarkan bagaimana seharusnya dosen/guru memandang dan memeperlakukan mahasiswa/siswa, termasuk bagaimana guru memberikan respons terhadap mereka (Winataputra, 2001: 9). Misalnya, apakah mahasiwa/siswa dipandang sebagai individu yang harus dibimbing, dilatih atau individu yang secara terus menerus diberi masukan dan dievaluasi di dalam proses pembelajaran aau di dalam setiap penyelesaian tugas-tugas belajarnya.

Sistem pendukung adalah segala sesuatu yang diperlukan untuk membantu pelaksanaan proses pembelajaran. Sistem pendukung ini dapat berupa sarana, bahan dan alat/media yang diperlukan di dalam proses pembelajaran. System pendukung ini sangat penting dalam membantu tercapainya tujuan pembelajaran yang telah ditetapkan. Sistem pendukung ini bukan saja bermanfaat bagi siswa tetapi juga bagi guru (Situmorang dkk, 2004: 7).

Winataputa (2001: 10) mengatakan dampak istruksional adalah hasil belajar yang dicapai secara langsung sebagai akibat langsung dari proses pembelajaran. Sebaliknya, dampak pengiring (*nurturing effect*) merupakan hasil belajar lainnya yang dihasilkan oleh suatu proses pembelajaran sebagai akibat dari terciptanya suasana pembelajaran yang secara langsung dialami oleh siswa tanpa pengarahan langsung dari guru.

3. Jenis-Jenis Model Pembelajaran

Joyce, Weil dan Calhoun (2009) mengelompokkan model pembelajaran menjadi empat rumpun. Keempat rumpun itu adalah (1) rumpun sosial (social family), (2) rumpun pemrosesan informasi (information processing family), rumpun personal (personal family), dan rumpun perilaku (behavioral family).

Rumpun sosial didasari oleh suatu pandangan bahwa seseorang individu dalam kehidupannya memerlukan orang lain. Oleh karena itu, yang diutamakan adalah terciptanya hubungan antara individu dengan individu lainnya dalam proses pembelajaran. Pusat perhatian rumpun sosial adalah realita sosial dipandang sebagai negosiasi sosial. Orientasi yang ditekankan oleh rumpun ini adalah kecakapan individu dalam berhubungan dengan orang lain dalam menyelesaikan tugas-tugas belajar.

Rumpun pomrosesan informasi menekankan pada bagaimana individu memberikan respons terhadap informasi ata data yang datang dari lingkungannya untuk memaknai dunia. Pembelajaran yang berorietasi pada rumpun ini diaplikasikan melalui tahapan-tahapan: (a) mengorganisasikan data, (b) merumuskan masalah, (c) mengembangkan konsep dan rencana pemecahan masalah dengan menggunakan symbol verbal dan non-verbal.

Rumpun personal berorientasi pada perkembangan diri individu. Rumpun personal lebih menitikberatkan pada perkembangan yang membantu individu membentuk dan mengorganisasikan sesuatu yang sedang dipelajari. Oleh karena itu, kegiatan pembelajaran lebih bersifat untuk menolong siswa dalam mengembangkan hubungan yang lebih produiktif dengan sekitarnya. Rumpun personal menekankan perhatiannya pada perspektif individu dan mendorong independensi yang produiktif, sehingga individu-individu itu menjadi peduli pada pada diri sendiri dan bertanggumg jawab terhadap tujuannya sendiri.

Rumpun perilaku secara umum dikembangkan atas dasar teori perilaku tentang bagaimana seseorang memberikan respons terhadap stimulus. Rumpun perilaku ini memusatkan perhatiannya pada perilaku yang dapaty diamati. Belajar tidak dipandang

sebagai sesuatu yang menyeluruh, tetapi diuraikan di dalam langkah-langkah yang kongkrit dan dapat diamati. Oleh karena itu, adany suatu perubahan perilaku yang dikehendaki merupakan suatu tanda adanya proses belajar dan keberhasilan belajar.

B. Analisis Kebutuhan

Peserta didik tidak dapat memperoleh segala sesuatu yang mereka butuhkan dalam meningkatkan keterampilan menulis mereka dalam waktu sekejap, dan mereka juga tidak dapat belajar secara efektif dari kumpulan latihan-latihan dan tugas-tugas yang bersifat acak. Dengan demikian pengajar harus mengembangkan suatu rencana sistematis tentang kebutuhan akan belajar, menyeleksi dan mengurutkan isi dan tugas yang akan memandu peserta didik kepada dampak belajar yang diinginkan. Ini mensyaratkan pengajar untuk mengembangkan silabus, rencana pembelajaran, dan materi ajar berdasarkan kebutuhan mereka tersebut.

Perancangan suatu silabus atau materi ajar menulis di dalam bahasa kedua dimulai dari pertanyaan "Mengapa para siswa/mahasiswa ini belajar "Functional Grammar"?" Jawaban terhadap pertanyaan ini dapat diungkap dengan melakukan analisis kebutuhan (*needs analysis*). Hyland (2003: 58) mengatakan bahwa istilah analisis kebutuhan digunakan untuk merujuk kepada teknik pengumpulan dan penganalisisan informasi yang berkenaan dengan kebutuhan mahasiswa: alat untuk membentuk bagaimana dan apa sebuah program pembelajaran. Analisis kebutuhan merupakan proses berkelanjutan sehingga pengajar dapat memodifikasi proses pembelajaran secara lebih baik dalam rangka mengakomodasi kebutuhan belajar mahasiswa.

Analisis kebutuhan adalah usaha untuk mencari dan menggambarkan kebutuhan bahasa yang dimiliki atau yang diinginkan oleh siswa/mahasiswa dalam suatu program. Analisis kebutuhan juga merupakan upaya mengumpulkan informasi mengenai kebutuhan kebutuhan siswa/mahasiswa dalam mempelajari bahasa atau pengalaman-pengalaman berbahasa yang dibutuhkan. Menurut Graves (2000: 98), analisis kebutuhan merupakan kerja sistematis dan proses yang terus dilakukan untuk mengumpulkan informasi tentang kebutuhan siswa dan kecenderungannya, menginterpretasi, kemudian membuat bahan ajar berdasarkan interpretasi tersebut agar mengena sasaran.

Sebetulnya analisis kebutuhan hanya merupakan satu dari beberapa aktivitas yang dilakukan di dalam merancang sebuah kurikulum pembelajaran bahasa. Nation dan Macalister (2010: 1-3) mengemukakan bahwa sebuah model desain kurikulum merupakan suatu desain yang terdiri dari tiga lingkaran luar (prinsip, lingkungan, kebutuhan) yang berhubungan dengan satu lingkaran dalam (tujuan) yang didukung oleh tiga komponen (isi dan tata urut, format dan presentasi, monitoring dan asesmen). Lingkaran luar mencakup pertimbangan-pertimbangan praktis dan teoretis yang akan memberikan pengaruh di dalam memandu proses nyata perancangan kurikulum. Lingkaran dalam memiliki tujuan sebagai pusat. Ini menunjukkan dan merefleksikan pentingnya bagi sebuah mata pelajaran atau mata kuliah untuk mempunyai tujuan yang jelas.
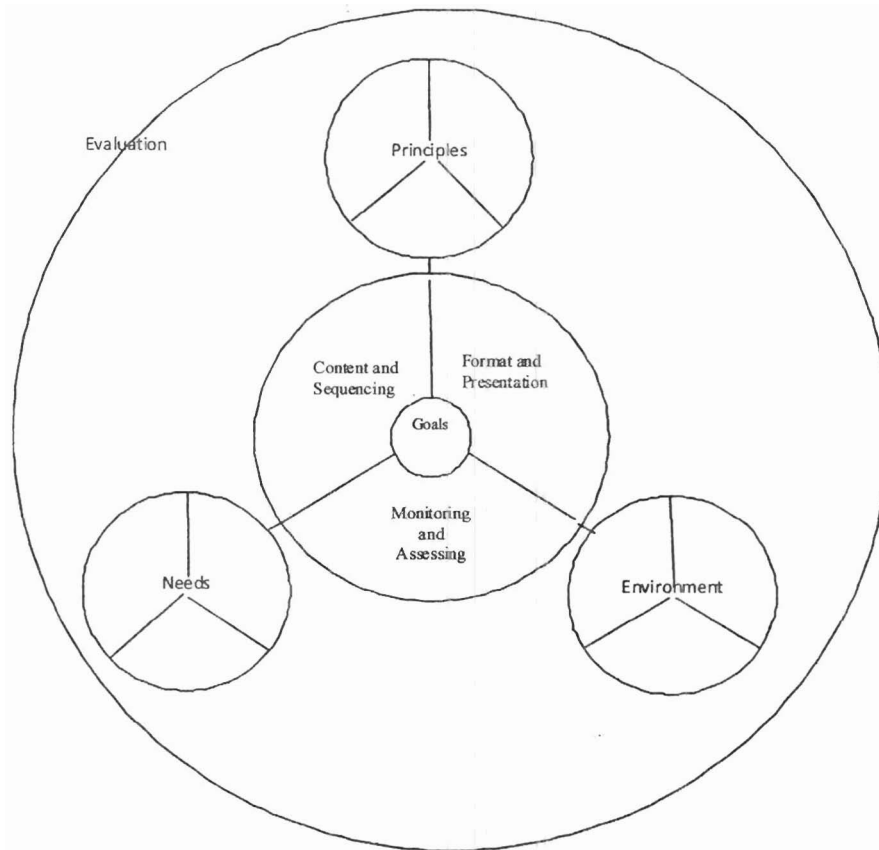
Selanjutnya, Nation dan Macalister (2010: 24) mengemukakan bahwa ada beberapa hal yang perlu diperhatikan dalam melakukan analisis kebutuhan. Pertama, analisis kebutuhan secara prinsip diarahkan pada tujuan dan isi sebuah mata pelajaran atau mata kuliah. Kedua, analisis kebutuhan mengungkap apa yang sudah diketahui oleh peserta didik dan apa yang perlu mereka ketahui. Selanjutnya, analisis kebutuhan membuat suatu keyakinan bahwa mata pelajaran atau mata kuliah berisi hal-hal relevan dan berguna bagi peserta didik. Suatu analisis kebutuhan yang baik mencakup pertanyaan-pertanyaan yang benar dan menemukan jawaban-jawabannya dengan cara yang paling efektif.

Analisis kebutuhan memiliki berbagai tujuan dalam pembelajaran bahasa, yaitu (1) mengetahui kebutuhan tentang keterampilan berbahasa peserta didik sehingga dapat melaksanakan peran tertentu, (2) membantu dalam menentukan ketepatan bahan ajar terhadap kebutuhan peserta didik berpotensi, (3) memilih peserta didik dalam satu kelompok yang betul-betul memerlukan keterampilan berbahasa tertentu, (4) mengenali kemungkinan peluang seseorang dalam kelompok merasa penting, (5) mengenali jarak antara apa yang mampu dilakukan peserta didik dan apa yang belum mampu mereka lakukan, dan (6) mengumpulkan informasi tentang pengalaman permasalah khusus peserta didik (Richards, 2001: 57-63).

Ada dua jenis informasi yang dapat dikumpulkan dengan analisis, kebutuhan, yaitu informasi tentang keadaan sekarang dan informasi ke depan (Hutchinson dan Waters, 1987). Informasi tentang keadaan sekarang mencakup (1) alasan peserta didik mengikuti program pembelajaran, (2) bagaimana peserta didik belajar, (3) siapa peserta didik, dan (4) apa yang diketahui peserta didik tentang menulis. Selanjutnya, analisis situasi target mencakup (1) kenapa peserta didik perlu belajar menulis, (2) genre-genre apa saja yang akan digunakan, (3) apa struktur tipikal dari genre-genre tersebut, (4) apa yang akan menjadi isi, (4) dengan siapa peserta didik akan menggunakan bahasa, dan (5) dimana peserta didik akan menggunakan bahasa tersebut.

C. Fungsi-Fungsi Komunikatif Bahasa

Banyak pandangan tradisional yang menggambarkan komunikasi sebagai penyampaian proposisi dari pikiran seorang interlocutor kepada pikiran interlocutor lainnya. Proposisi-proposisi tersebut berkenaan dengan beberapa kondisi, nyata atau

imajinasi. Di dalam penggambaran linguistic yang berkenaan dengan kondisi-kondisi (states of affairs), rujukan dibuat kepada entitas di dalam kondisi-kondisi tersebut, dan predikasi-predikasi dibuat tentang tindakan yang melibatkan entittas atau relasi antara entitas-entitas yang ada. Dalam hal ini pembicara membentuk representasi-representasi lingusitik dari situasi yang ada (Van Valin, 2001: 320). Tetapi bahasa digunakan tidak hanya untuk merepresentasikan kondisi-kondisi. Bahasa juga digunakan di dalam semua interaksi sosial verbal, seperti bertanya, memberikan perintah, berjanji, berharap, dll. Penggunaan bahasa yang seperti ini dikenal dengan tindak tutur.

Aliran fungsional pada umumnya menfokuskan diri pada fungsi-fungsi linguistik dari dua perspektif, perspektif pragmatik dan perspektif wacana. Perspektif pragmatik lebih terkonsentrasi pada makna dan kondisi-kondisi penggunaan tindak tutur yang berbeda-beda secara tepat. Perspektif yang kedua berkenaan dengan konstruksi wacana dan bagaimana piranti-piranti gramatikal dan yang lainnya digunakan untuk mencapai tujuan. Contoh, bagaimana seorang interlocutor menggunakan rujukan terhadap entitas-entitas yang ada di dalam kondisi-kondisi sehingga apa yang dimaksudkan oleh interlocutor sersebut dapat dipahami dengan mudah oleh interlocutor lainnya (Van Valin, 2001: 322).

Schiffrin (1987: 5) mengatakan bahwa bahasa selalu ditujukan pada penerima (recipient) sehingga bahasa selalu komunikatif. Pengertian komunikatif disini sangat luas. Beberapa analis berpendapat bahwa komunikasi hanya terjadi di bawah kondisi tertentu dari intensionalitas penutur. Contoh, Ekman dan Freisen dalam Schiffrin (1987: 5) membedakan pesan-pesan yang informative dengan pesan-pesan yang komunikatif. Pesan yang informative menimbulkan penafsiran yang serupa bagi pengamat tetapi

mungkin merupakan informasi yang tidak akurat tentang pengirim. Pesan yang komunikatif tidak perlu informative (mungkin tidak mendapat penafsiran yang konsisten) tetapi merupakan hal yang dimaksud oleh pengirim untuk disampaikan. Bentuk Pesan yang lain adalah interaktif. Pesan yang interaktif memodifikasi perilaku yang lain.

MacKay dalam Schiffrin (1987: 5) menawarkan perbedaan lainnya. Menurut dia, komunikasi haruslah mengarah pada tujuan dan ditafsirkan sebagai sesuatu yang mengarah pada tujuan; apapun yang tidak mengarah pada tujuan atau ditafsirkan tidak mengarah pada tujuan dimasukkan ke dalam 'category of conduct'.

Pandangan tentang komunikasi secara lebih luas disampaikan oleh beberapa ahli, seperti Ruesch dan bateson, dan Watzlawick, Beavin dan Jackson (dalam Schiffrin, 1987: 5). Mereka mengatakan bahwa apapun yang muncul dalam kehadiran pengirim dan penerima adalah komunikatif: sepanjang hal yang muncul tersebut tersedia bagi yang lainnya dalam ranah yang sama-sama diketahui, ini tidak perlu dimaksudkan sebagai pesan yang diperhitungkan sebagai komunikasi.

D. Pendekatan-Pendekatan Fungsional

Terdapat berbagai ragam pandangan yang dikemukakan oleh orang-orang yang menamakan dirinya fungsionalis. Satu dari ciri-ciri aliran fungsional dalam linguistik adalah kekurangan nyata dari teori yang dinamakan dan diartikulasi secara eksplisit. Van Valin (2001: 329) menyatakan ada tiga aliran fungsional, yaitu Gramatika fungsional (Functional Grammar) yang dikembangkan oleh Simon Dik, Gramatika Fungsional Sistemik (Systemic Functional Grammar) yang dikembangkan oleh M.A.K Halliday, dan Gramatika Peran dan Rujukan (Role and Reference Grammar) yang dikembangkan oleh

William Foley, Robert D. Van Valin, Jr., dan Randi J. LaPolla. Akan tetapi, berdasarkan perkembangan terbaru, ada satu aliran fungsional lagi yang juga dikenal luas di dalam bidang linguistik. Yang keempat ini adalah Gramatika Fungsional Leksikal (Lexical Functional Grammar) yang dikembangkan oleh Bressnan.

Butler (2003: 33-34) menyatakan justru sekurang-kurangnya, di luar varian setiap aliran, ada enam aliran fungsional yang berkembang dan menjadi perbincangan para linguis. Pertama adalah aliran fungsional generative. Aliran ini dikembangkan oleh Prince dan Kuno. Kedua adalah Gramatika Fungsional yang dipelopori oleh Simon Dik. Ketiga adalah Gramatika Peran dan Rujukan yang pada awalnya dirintis oleh Folley dan Van-Valin dan kemudian dikembangkan oleh Van-Valin dan rekan-rekannya. Keempat adalah Gramatika Fungsional Sistemik yang dikembangkan oleh M.A.K Halliday, dan kemudian didukung oleh murid-murid beliau yang tergabung di dalam aliran Sydney (Sydney School), seperti Martin, Matthiessen, Eggins, dll. Kelima adalah aliran Fungsional West Coast yang dikembangkan oleh beberapa linguis seperti Talmi Givon, Hopper dan Thompson. Yang keenam adalah Gramatika Kognitif yang dikembangkan oleh Langacker. Butler tidak menyebut Gramatika Fungsional Leksikal dalam bahasannya.

Nichols dalam Van Valin (2001: 330) menjelaskan tentang hasil survey terhadap pendekatan-pendekatan fungsionalis yang mengelompokan pendekatan-pendekatan ini pada kelompok ekstrim, moderat, dan konservatif. Menurut Nichols, tipe koservatif semata-mata hanya mengungkapkan ketidakmemadaian analisis formalis atau strukturalis tanpa mengajukan suatu analisis struktur yang baru. Tipe moderat tidak hanya mengungkap ketidakmemadaian analisis formalis atau strukturalis tetapi juga

mengusulkan suatu analisis fungsionalis terhadap struktur dan menggantikan atau

merubah pandangan formalis atau structural tentang struktur yang ada selama ini.

Fungsionalis ekstrim menolak realitas struktur sebagai struktur. Mereka mengklaim

bahwa kaidah semata-mata didasarkan kepada fungsi dan dengan demikian tidak ada

konstrain sintaksis murni; struktrur hanyalah fungsi yang dikodekan, atau semacamnya.

Menurut Van Valin (2001: 330), fungsionalis konservatif diwakili oleh hasil

karya Kuno dan Prince. Teori fungsional moderat yang sangat terkenal adalah Gramatika

Fungsional (Functional Grammar) dan Gramatika Peran dan Rujukan (Role and

Reference Grammar). Teori-teori ini menolak konsepsi struktur gramatikal yang

mendasari teori formal, tetapi masing-masing teori ini mengajukan penggantian

pandangan struktur yang berbeda. Aliran fungsionalis ekstrim dimanifestasikan oleh

karya-karya Hopper yang menolak validitas gagasan struktur selaian dari struktur wacana

dan mencari suatu pengrurangan radikal dari gramatika ke wacana. Dalam Pandangan ini,

gramatika dimotivasi kuat oleh wacana. Selanjutnya, di antara aliran moderat dan ekstrim

terdapat Gramatika Fungsional Sistemik (Sistemik Functional Grammar) yang secara

kuat menganut pandangan bahasa yang berorientasi pada wacana namun tidak menolak

realitas struktur di dalam bahasa.

E. Gramatika Fungsional Sistemik

1. Pendekatan Gramatika Fungsional Sistemik

–   Setiap kajian bahasa selalu berdasar pada suatu pendekatan (approach). Ini berarti

bahwa tidak ada kajian bahasa yang bebas dari nilai atau anggapan dasar (Halliday, 1994:

xvii). Dalam perspektif Gramatika Fungsional Sistemik, selanjutnya disingkat dengan

GFS, bahasa adalah system arti dan system lain (yakni system bentuk dan ekspresi) untuk merealisasikan arti tersebut. Kajian ini berdasar dua konsep yang mendasar yang membedakan GFS dari aliran linguistic lain, yaitu (a) bahasa merupakan fenomena sosial yang wujud sebagai semiotic sosial dan (b) bahasa merupakan teks yang berkonstrual (saling menentukan dan merujuk) dengan konteks sosial. Dengan demikian, kajian bahasa tidak terlepas dari konteks sosial.

Konsep pertama memiliki pengertian bahwa, sebagai semiotic lazimnya, bahasa terjadi dari dua unsur: arti dan ekspresi. Hubungannya adalah hubungan realisasi, yakni arti direalisasikan oleh ekspresi. Namun berbeda dengan semiotic biasa, semiotic sosial bahasa memiliki unsur lain, yaitu bentuk. Dengan demikian, bahasa dalam interkasi sosial terdiri atas tiga unsur: arti, bentuk, dan ekspresi. Hubungan ketiga unsur ini dapat dikatakan sebagai: arti (semantics atau discourse semantics) direalisasikan oleh bentuk (lexicogrammar) dan bentuk ini seterusnya dikodekan oleh ekspresi (phonology/ graphology). Dengan kata lain, dalam pandangan GFS bahasa terdiri dari tiga strata, yakni semantic, tata bahasa, dan fonologi/grafologi. Semantik direalisasikan oleh tata bahasa, dan selanjutnya tata bahasa diekspresikan oleh fonologi (dalam bahasa lisan) dan grafologi (dalam bahasa tulis). Sifat hubungan arti dan bentuk adalah alamiah (natural) dengan pengertian hubungan itu dapat dirujuk kepada konteks sosial, sedangkan hubungan arti dan ekspresi adalah arbitrar (arbitrary).

Saragih (2006: 3) mengatakan bahwa satu sifat bahasa sebagai semiotic sosial adalah bahasa berfungsi di dalam konteks sosial atau bahasa fungsional di dalam konteks sosial. Berkaitan dengan ini, terdapat tiga pengertian dalam konsep fungsional. Pertama, bahasa terstruktur berdasarkan fungsi bahasa dalam kehidupan manusia. Dengan kata

lain, bahasa terstruktur sesuai dengan kebutuhan manusia akan bahasa. Kedua, fungsi bahasa bahasa dalam kehidupan manusia mencakup tiga hal, yaitu memaparkan atau menggambarkan, mempertukarkan, dan merangkai pengalaman manusia. Ketiga fungsi ini disebut dengan metafungsi bahasa. Dengan demikian tata bahasa (lexicogrammar) merupakan teori pengalaman manusia yang mencakup teori paparan, pertukaran, dan organisasi makna. Pengertian ketiga adalah setiap unit bahasa adalah fungsional terhadap unit yang lebih besar, yang di dalamnya unit itu menjadi unsur. Dengan pengertian ini, grup nomina, verba, preposisi, klausa sisipan, atau unit lain berfungsi dalam tugasnya masing-masing untuk membangun klausa.

2. Konteks Pemakaian Bahasa

Konteks pemakaian bahasa dibatasi sebagai segala sesuatu yang berada di luar teks atau pemakaian bahasa. Kata konteks (context) dapat dirinci berasal dari kata co- yang berarti bersama atau mendampingi, dan text berarti setiap unit bahasa, karena pada prinsipnya setiap unit bahasa adalah teks. Dengan demikian, konteks mengacu kepada segala sesuatu yang mendampingi teks. Dengan pengertian ini, dalam perspektif GFS, konteks dapat dibedakan atas dua, yakni (1) konteks linguistic (yang disebut juga dengan konteks internal) dan (2) konteks sosial (yang disebut juga dengan konteks eksternal).

Konteks linguistik mengacu kepada unit lain yang mendampingi satu unit yang dibicarakan. Dengan batasan pengertian ini, dalam klausa *mereka akan pergi ke Bali bulan depan* unit *Mereka akan ... ke Bali bulan depan* merupakan konteks bagi unit *pergi* ketika seseorang membicarakan kata *pergi* tersebut. Unit linguistic lain yang mendampingi suatu unit linguistik yang sedang dibicarakan sering juga disebut dengan

konteks internal atau koteks (cotext). Dikatakan konteks internal karena kontek ini berada di dalam dan merupakan bagian dari dari teks yang dibicarakan.

Berbeda dengan konteks linguistik atau koteks, konteks sosial sosial mengacu kepada segala sesuatu di luar yang tertulis atau terucap, yang mendampingi bahasa atau teks dalam peristiwa pemakaian bahasa atau interaksi sosial. Martin (1992) membagi konteks sosial menjadi konteks situasi, konteks budaya (disebut juga genre), dan konteks ideology. Ketiga konteks sosial ini membentuk strata dengan pengertian strata yang lebih dekat ke bahasa lebih kongkrit dari pada strata yang lebih jauh dari bahasa. Berdasarkan strata kedekatan kepada bahasa, konteks sosial secara berurutan mulai dari konteks situasi, budaya, dan ideology.

Konteks situasi terdiri atas apa yang dibicarakan (field), siapa yang membicarakan sesuatu bahasan (tenor), dan bagaimana pembicaraan itu dilakukan (mode). *Field* menunjuk peran bahasa bahasa atau topic yang dibicarakan dalam interaksi sosial. *Tenor* menggambarkan status (sama atau setara, tidak sama atau berbeda), suka atau tidak suka (affect), hubungan (biasa atau baru pertama kali) antarpemakai bahasa. *Mode* mengurai medium atau saluran pemakaian bahasa yang dapat berupa lisan atau tulisan. Dalam interaksi bahasa, ketiga aspek konteks situasi itu dapat diidentifikasi. Namun, dalam beberapa situasi dapat terjadi satu aspek tidak jelas atau tidak terindentifikasi yang dalam kedaan demikian aspek situasi disebut netral.

Konteks budaya dibatasi sebagai aktivitas sosial berthap untuk mencapai tujuan (Martin, 1992). Dengan pengertian ini, konteks budaya mencakup tiga hal, yaitu (1) batasan kemungkinan ketiga unsur konteks situasi, (2) tahap yang harus dilalui dalam sutau interaksi sosial, dan (3) tujuan yang akan dicapai dalam interaksi sosial. Pada

dasarnya setiap interaksi sosial mempunyai tujuan tertentu. Tujuan ini sering juga disebut dengan fungsi teks tersebut.

Ideologi mengacu kepada konstruksi atau konsep sosial yang menetapkan apa seharusnya dan tidak seharusnya dilakukan oleh seseorang dalam satu interaksi sosial. Dengan batasan ini, ideology merupakan konsep atau gambar ideal yang diinginkan atau diidamkan oleh anggota masyarakat dalam satu komunitas, yang terdiri atas apa yang diinginkan dan yang tidak diinginkan terjadi.

Gambar berikut ini adalah contoh hubungan antar konteks yang ada:

Ideologi					
	Budaya				
		Situasi			
			Semantik	Tata Bahasa	Fonologi/ Grafologi
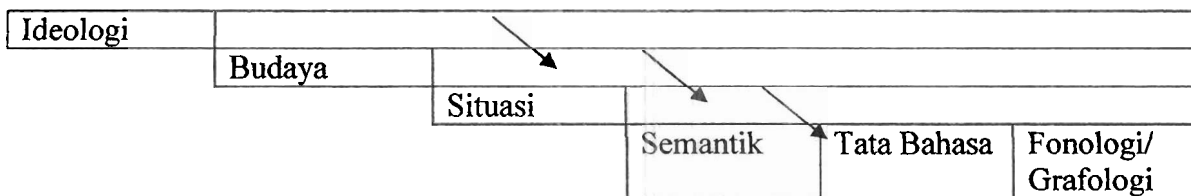
3. Metafungsi

Saragih (2006: 7) mengatakan bahwa metafungsi bahasa diartikan sebagai fungsi bahasa dalam pemakaian bahasa oleh penuturnya. Dalam setiap interaksi antarpemakai bahasa, penutur menggunakan bahasa untuk memapar, mempertukarkan, dan merangkai atau mengorganisasikan pengalaman. Dengan ketiga fungsi bahasa dalam kehidupan manusia, bahasa sekaligus disebut berfungsi tiga dalam komunikasi, yakni memapar, mempertukarkan, dan merangkai pengalaman yang secra teknis masing-masing disebut oleh Halliday sebagai *ideational function, interpersonal function* dan *textual function* (Halliday, 1994; Halliday dan Mathiessen, 2004; Martin, 1992; Eggins, 2004). Sejalan dengan ketiga fungsi ini, bahasa dikatakan membawa tiga arti, yakni makna pengalaman

(ideational meaning), makna antarpersona atau makna pertukaran (interpersonal meaning), dan makna perangkaian (textual meaning).

Seorang pemakai bahasa merealisasikan pengalamannya (pengalaman bukan linguistic) menjadi pengalaman linguistic. Pengalamam bukan linguistic dapat berupa kenyataan dalam kehidupan manusia atau kejadian sehari-hari, seperti pohon tumbang, angin berembus, matahari terbit, burung terbang, dan orang berjalan. Pengalaman bukan linguistic ini direalisasikan ke dalam pengalaman linguistic yang terdiri atas tiga unsur, yaiut proses, partisipan, dan sirkumstan (circumstance). Realisasi ini harus dilakukan pemakai bahasa karena hanya pengalaman linguistic ini yang dapat dipertukarkan (Saragih, 2006: 7).

Selanjutnya Halliday dalam Saragih (2006: 7) mengatakan bahwa pengalaman linguistic saling dipertukarkan dengan pengalaman orang lain sebagai lawan bicara sehingga terbentuk suatu interaksi dalam konteks komunikasi. Pada dasarnya, pertukaran ini harus terjadi karena manusia adalah makhluk sosial yang tidak dapat hidup sendiri atau terisolasi. Tata bahasa merupakan sumber daya untuk mempertukarkan pengalaman ini.

Dalam memapar pengalamannya dan mentransaksikannya, penutur bahasa memiliki cara untuk merangkai, menyusun, dan menyampaikan pengalaman dan transaksi tersebut. Tata bahasa memiliki mekanisme untuk mengurut pengalaman yang lebih dahulu disampaikan, yang kemudian mengikutinya, dan yang terakhir disampaikan.

–

a. Representasi Pengalaman dalam Bahasa

Satu unit pengalaman yang sempurna direalisasikan dalam klausa yang terdiri atas tiga unsur, yaitu proses, partisipan, dan sirkumstan. Proses merujuk kepada kegiatan atau aktivitas yang terjadi dalam klausa yang menurut tata bahasa tradisonal dan formal disebut kata kerja atau verba. Partisipan dibatasi sebagai orang atau benda yang yang terlibat di dalam proses tersebut. Sirkumstan adalah lingkungan tempat proses yang melibatkan partispan terjadi (Halliday, 1994: 107; Halliday dan Matthiessen, 2004). Inti dari satu pengalaman adalah proses. Dikatakan demikian karena proses menentukan jumlah dan kategori partisipan (Halliday, 1994: 168-172; Martin, 1992: 10). Proses juga menentukan sirkumstan secara tidak langsung dengan tingkat probilitas; misalnya proses material dan mental masing-masing lebih sering muncul dengan sirkumstan lokasi dan cara.

1) Proses (Process)

Berdasarkan sifat semantic dan sintaksisnya, proses dapat dirinci menjadi beberapa rincian. Dalam bahasa Inggris, pengelaman penutur bahasa digambarkan melalui enam jenis proses yang menentukan jenis pengalaman tersebut. Keenam jenis pengalaman itu dikelompokkan atas dua, yakni tiga pengalaman utama (primary process) yang terdiri atas pengalaman *material, mental,* dan *relational,* dan tiga pengalaman pelengkap (secondary process) yang terdiri atas pengalaman *verbal, behavioral,* dan *existential.*

Proses material adalah aktivitas atau kegiatan yang menyangkut fisik dan nyata dilakukan pelakunya. Secara semantic, proses material menunjukkan bahwa satu entitas (manusia, hewan, dan benda tidak bernyawa lainnya) melakukan satu kegiatan atau

kativtas dan kegiatan tersebut dapat diteruskan atau dikenakan ke maujud lain. Secara

sintaksis, khususnya dalam bahasa Inggris, proses ini dapat dinyatakan dalam bentuk kala

sedang (the progressive tense seperti *She is writing her proposal*). Contoh verba yang

dilabeli dengan proses material adalah *give, read, write, play, teach, study,* dan lain-lain

(Untuk penjelasan lebih lanjut, lihat Halliday, 1994; Halliday dan Matthiessen 2004;

Martin, 1992; Eggins, 2004).

Proses mental menunjukkan kegiatan atau aktivitas yang menyangkut indra,

kognisi, emosi, dan persepsi yang terjadi di dalam diri manusia, seperti *see, know, love,*

hate, hear. Secara semantic, proses mental menyangkut pelaku manusia saja atau maujud

lain yang dianggap atau berprilaku manusia (Untuk penjelasan lebih lanjut, lihat

Halliday, 1994; Halliday dan Matthiessen 2004; Martin, 1992; Eggins, 2004).

Proses relasional berfungsi menghubungkan satu entitas dengan maujud atau

lingkungan lain di dalam hubungan intensif, serkumstan, atau kepemilikan dan dengan

cara identifikasi atau atribut. Secara semantic, hubungan intensif menunjukkan hubungan

satu entitas dengan entitas lain, seperti *His father is a lawyer.* Hubungan sirkumstan

menunjukkan hubungan entitas dengan lingkungan yang terdiri dari lokasi (waktu,

tempat, dan urut), sifat, peran atau fungsi, sertaan, dan sudut pandang. Hubungan

kepemilikan menunjukkan kepunyaan, seperti *My brother has two new cars* dan *This*

book belongs to me.

Proses tingkah laku (behavioral) merupakan aktivitas atau kegiatan fisiologis

yang menyatakan tingkah laku fisik manusia (Halliday, 1994; Halliday dan Matthiessen

2004; Martin, 1992; Eggins, 2004). Secara semantic, kategori proses tingkah laku terletak

antara proses material dan proses mental. Implikasinya adalah sebgaian proses tingkah

laku memiliki sifat proses material dan sebagian lagi memiliki ciri proses mental. Contoh

verba yang termasuk proses tingkah laku adalah *breathe, cough, sleep, smile, laugh,* dan

lain-lain.

Proses verbal berada antara proses mental dan relasional. Secara semantic, proses

verbal menunjukkan aktivitas atau kegiatan yang menyangkut infromasi, seperti verba

say, ask, order, examine, tell, promise, swear, dan lain-lain. Karena sifatnya yang

menyangkut informasi, partisipan dalam proses verbal dapt berupa manusia atau bukan

manusia.

Proses wujud (exintential) menunjukkan keberadaan satu entitas (Halliday, 1994;

Halliday dan Matthiessen 2004; Martin, 1992; Eggins, 2004). Secara semantic proses

wujud terjadi antara proses material dan proses relasional. Di dalam bahasa Inggris,

lazimnya proses wujud ditandai dengan pemarkah klausa *there.*

2) Partisipan (Participant)

Saragih (2006: 42) mengatakan bahwa sebagai inti yang memiliki daya tarik atau

daya ikat (valency), proses potensial menentukan jumlah partisipan yang dapat diikat

oleh proses tersebut. Dengan sifatnya yang demikian, proses digunakan sebagai dasar

pelabelan partisipan dalam klausa. Paling tidak ada dua jenis partisipan, yaitu partisipan

yang melakukan proses (partisipan I) dan partisipan yang kepadanya prose situ

diarahkan/ditujukan.

Tabel berikut ini menggambarkan jenis partisipan untuk setiap proses.

Jenis Proses	Partisipan I	Partisipan II
Material	Actor	(Goal)
Mental	Senser	Phenomenon
Relational	Identifying: Token	Value

	Attributive: Carrier	Attribute
	Possession: Possessor	Possessed
Behavioral	Behaver	(Behavior or Phenomenon)
Verbal	Sayer	(Receiver) + Verbiage
Existential	Existent	

Beberapa contoh dari proses dan partisipan yang digunakan adalah sebagai berikut:

Mahmud	Went	To London
Actor	Material	

Mahmud	Bought	A book
Actor	Material	Goal

The bomb	Was carried	Onto the plane
Goal	Material	

She	Believed	His excuses
Senser	Mental	Phenomenon

3) Sirkumstan (Circumstance)

Saragih (2006: 44) mengatakan bahwa sirkumstan merupakan lingkungan, sifat, atau lokasi berlangsungnya proses. Sirkumstan bereda di luar jangkauan proses. Oleh karena itu, label sirkumstan berlaku untuk semua jenis proses. Sirkumnstan setara dengan keterangan seperti yang lazim digunakan di dalam tata bahasa tradisional.

Sirkumstan terdiri atas rentang (extent) yang dapat berupa jarak atau waktu, lokasi (location) yang dapat mencakupi tempat atau waktu, cara (manner), sebab (cause), lingkungan (contingency), penyerta (accompaniment), peran (role), masalah (matter), dan sudut pandangan (angle).

Berikut ini adalah beberapa contoh klausa yang terdiri dari proses, partisipan dan sirkumstan:

She	Travelled	To Israel	As a tourist
Actor	Material	Circ: location	Circ: role

The bomb	Was carried	Onto the plane
Goal	Material	Circ: location

I	've given	Blood	36 times
Actor	Material	Goal	Circ: extent

b. Bahasa sebagai Makna Antarpersona

Makna antarpersona menunjukkan tindakan yang dilakukan terhadap pengalaman dalam interaksi sosial. Makna antarpersona merupakan aksi yang dilakukan pemakai bahasa dalam saling bertukar pengalaman linguistic yang terepresentasikan dalam makna pengalaman (experiential meaning). Dengan kemampuan interaksi sosial, manusia mempertukarkan pengalaman untuk memenuhi kebutuhannya. Bersamaan dengan melakukan aksi dalam pertukaran pengalaman, pemakai bahasa mungkin atau dapat member pertimbangan, pendapat pribadi, komentar, atau 'bumbu penyedap' dalam komoditas yang disampaikan. Semua unsur pertimbangan pribadi ini disebut modalitas (modality), yang bersama aksi direalisasikan oleh _mood_ (Halliday, 1994; Halliday dan Matthiessen 2004; Martin, 1992; Eggins, 2004).

Dalam berbahasa penutur hanya melakukan dua peran, yaitu meminta dan member. Dalam membawakan kedua peran tersebut dua jenis komoditas terkait, yaitu informasi dan barang/jasa. Jika kedua variable peran dan komoditas diklasifikasi silang, empat jenis aksi akan didapat, seperti yang tergambar di dalam tabel berikut ini:

Peran	Komoditas	
	Informasi	Barang dan Jasa
Memberi	Pernyataan	Tawaran
Meminta	Pertanyaan	Perintah

Aksi 'pernyataan' dan 'pertanyaan' dikelompokkan ke dalam satu kategori yang disebut dengan proposisi (proposition), sedangkan aksi 'tawaran' dan 'perintah' dikelompokkan ke dalam satu kategori yang dinamakan proposal (proposal).

Realisasi aksi dalam lexicogrammar, khususnya dalam bahasa Inggris, dibangun oleh lima unsur, yaitu *Subject, Finite, Predicator, Complement, Adjunct. Subject* dan *Finite* membangun **Mood**, dan ketiga unsur lain: *Predicator, Complement, Adjunct* membentuk **Residue** (Halliday, 1994; Halliday dan Matthiessen 2004; Martin, 1992; Eggins, 2004). Contoh-contoh berikut ini menggambarkan bagaimana lima unsur digunakan dalam menganalisis klausa.

You	Read		Books	For fun
Subject	Finite	Predicator	Complement	Adjunct
MOOD		RESIDUE		

You	Didn't	Read	Books	For fun
Subject	Finite: Negative	Predicator	Complement	Adjunct
MOOD		RESIDUE		

What	Does	'quantum leap'	Mean?
WH/Complement	Finite	Subject	Predicator
Residue...	Mood		...Residue

c. Bahasa sebagai Pesan

Bahasa digunakan untuk menyampaikan pesan. Dalam menyampaikan pesan secara berpola atau bersistem, bahasa memiliki aturan bahwa pesan yang disampaikan disusun dan dirangkai dengan baik. Dengan penggunaan ini bahasa berfungsi untuk merangkai pengalaman yang di dalam rangkaian itu terbentuk keterkaitan: satu (unit) pengalaman (dalam experiential meaning dan interpersonal meaning) relevan dengan pengalaman yang telah dan akan disampaikan sebelum dan sesudahnya. Fungsi ini disebut fungsi tekstual (textual function). Dengan tugasnya membentuk kerelevanan pengalaman dengan pengalaman lain agar membentuk satu kesatuan (oneness), fungsi

tekstual berkaitan dengan lingkungan atau konteks satu pengalaman linguistic (Halliday, 1994; Halliday dan Matthiessen 2004; Martin, 1992; Eggins, 2004).

Konsep yang paling penting dalam makna tekstual adalah Tema (Theme) dan Rema (Rheme). Tema merupakan titik awal dari satu pesan (the starting point of the message) yang terealisasi di dalam klausa. Di dalam bahasa Inggris, tema ditandai dengan posisi, yakni posisi awal klausa atau unsur yang paling terdepan dari klausa. Tema dinyatakan dengan unsur pertama klausa. Dengan demikian, tema dapat berupa proses, partisipan, atau sirkumstan. Rema adalah unsur klausa sesudah tema. Dengan kata lain, jika tema satu unit pengalaman ditetapkan, unsur klausa berikutnya adalah rema (Halliday, 1994; Halliday dan Matthiessen 2004; Martin, 1992; Eggins, 2004).

Contoh-contoh berikut ini menggambarkan posisi Theme dan Rheme di dalam klausa bahasa Inggris.

You	Read		Books	For fun
Subject	Finite	Predicator	Complement	Adjunct
MOOD			RESIDUE	
Topical				
THEME		RHEME		

Can	You	Take	My bag	For me?
Finite	Subject	Predicator	Complement	Adjunct
MOOD			RESIDUE	
Interpersonal	Topical			
THEME			RHEME	

Jika kita gabungkan ketiga unsur makna di atas ke dalam analisis satu klausa, maka akan kelihatanlah cirri khas dari Gramatika Fungsional Sistemik (GFS). Contoh-contoh berikut ini menggambarkan bagaimana klausa dianalisis dengan menggunakan ketiga unsur yang sudah dibicarakan diatas. _

She	Travelled		To Israel	As a tourist
Actor	Material		Circ: location	Circ: role
Subject	Finite	Predicator	Adjucnt	Adjunct
MOOD		RESIDUE		
Topical				
THEME	RHEME			

Can	You	Take	My bag	For me?
	Actor	Material	Goal	Circumstance
Finite	Subject	Predicator	Complement	Adjunct
MOOD		RESIDUE		
Interpersonal	Topical			
THEME		RHEME		

Eggins (2004: 20-21) mengatakan bahwa secara ringkas GFS telah dideskripsikan sebagai satu pendekatan semantic fungsional terhadap bahasa yang mengeksplorasi bagaimana orang menggunakan bahasa di dalam konteks yang berbeda dan bagaimana bahasu disusun untuk penggunaannya sebagai satu system semiotic. Sebagai satu pendekatan linguistik terhadap makna di dalam teks, GFS memiliki persamaan dengan gramatika teks dan analisis wacana dari berbagai perspektif. GFS juga berkaitan dengan penelitian-penelitian dalam bidang sosiolinguistik dan etnografi berbicara. Sebagai satu pendekatan semiotic, GFS memiliki dasar yang sama dengan teori-teori semiotic dan sejalan dengan kelompok-kelompok yang mengikuti Fairclough yang bekerja dalam bidang analisis wacana kritis. Yang membedakan GFS dengan yang lainnya adalah GFS mengembangkan dua hal sekaligus, yaitu suatu teori tentang bahasa sebagai proses sosial dan suatu metodologi analitis yang membolehkan deskripsi pola-pola bahasa secara rinci dan sistematik.

F. *Road Map* Penelitian

Penelitian dan pengembangan di Program Studi Pendidikan bahasa dan Sastra Inggris termasuk yang tidak begitu populer. Hal ini dibuktikan dengan minimnya kuantitas penelitian dan pengembangan di prodi ini. Namun demikian terdapat beberapa penelitian dan pengembangan yang menjadi dasar bagi penelitian yang akan dilakukan ini.

Pertama, Adnan dan Refnaldi (2009) melakukan penelitian dan pengembangan materi ajar *Listening I* berbasis multimedia. Hasil dari penelitian ini adalah produk materi ajar *Listening I* berbasis multimedia yang terdiri dari produk audio, produk audio visual, dan produk komputer interaktif. Materi yang dikembangkan ini juga terbukti efektif dalam meningkatkan kemampuan menyimak mahasiswa.

Kedua, terinspirasi dengan penelitian yang dilakukan oleh Adnan dan Refnaldi, Refnaldi, Ningsih, dan Ardi (2010) melakukan penelitian dan pengembangan materi ajar mata kuliah *Functional Grammar*. Hasil penelitian ini adalah produk materi ajar mata kuliah *Functional Grammar* yang sesuai dengan kebutuhan mahasiswa dan dosen pengempu mata kuliah.

Ketiga, pada tahun yang sama, Rusdi Noor Rosa, Refnaldi, dan Muhammad Al Hafizh (2010) juga melakukan penelitian dan pengembangan materi ajar mata kuliah *Semantics and Pragmatics*. Produk dari penelitian ini adalah materi ajar yang berbasis multimedia yang dapat digunakan oleh mahasiswa sebagai bahan perkuliahan di kelas dan sebagai bahan untuk belajar mandiri.

Keempat, Refnaldi, Al Havizh, dan Ardi (2011) melakukan penelitian dan pengembangan materi ajar mata kuliah *Writing I* berbasis genre. Produk dari penelitian

ini adalah materi ajar menulis paragraf dan esai yang digunakan sebagai materi pokok mata kuliah *Writing I* di Program Studi Pendidikan Bahasa dan Sastra Inggris Universitas Negeri Padang.

Kelima, Refnaldi (2012) menyelesaikan penelitian disertasi yang berjudul "Materi Ajar Menulis esai dalam Bahasa Inggris Berbasis Pendekatan Proses-Genre: Penelitian dan Pengembangan di Prodi Pendidikan Bahasa dan Sastra Inggris UNP". Produk dari disertasi ini adalah materi ajar menulis esai dalam bahasa Inggris yang terdiri dari buku mahasiswa, buku kerja mahasiswa, dan pedoman pengajar. Materi ini juga terbukti efektif dalam meningkatkan kemampuan mahasiswa di dalam menulis esai berbahasa Inggris.

Selain dari penelitian-penelitian yang dikemukakan di atas, penelitian yang berkaitan dengan menulis yang juga menjadi dasar bagi penelitian ini adalah penelitian yang dilakukan oleh Rozimella.

Rozimella (2005) melakukan penelitian tentang efektifitas dan nilai pembelajaran menulis berbasis genre dalam menulis esai argumentatif dan diskusi bagi mahasiswa jurusan Bahasa dan Sastra Inggris UNP. Hasil penelitiannya menunjukkan bahwa mahasiswa lebih senang belajar menulis dengan pendekatan berbasis genre dan kemampuan menulis mereka meningkat dengan baik. Hal ini dibuktikan dengan rata-rata peningkatan nilai menulis mereka yang cukup tinggi. Karena dalam proses pembelajaran, yang digunakan pendekatan berbasis genre, maka bahan ajar yang digunakan juga disusun berdasarkan pendekatan berbasis genre. Dengan demikian, materi ajar yang cocok juga berkontribusi terhadap peningkatan kemampuan menulis mahasiswa.

Berdasarkan pada penjelasan di atas, dapat disimpulkan bahwa penelitian dan pengembangan yang dilaksanakan baru menyentuh satu bagian dari desain pembelajaran,

yaitu materi ajar. Sedangkan bagian yang lain seperti, silabus, langkah-langkah pembelajaran dan sistem evaluasi belum digarap sama sekali. Pada hal, silabus, materi dan media pembelajaran, langkah-langkah pembelajaran, dan evaluasi merupakan empat hal yang tidak bisa dipisah di dalam proses belajar mengajar. Jadi penelitian ini akan mengisi ruang yang belum digarap dalam penelitian dan pengembangan yang ada di Program Studi Pendidikan Bahasa dan Sastra Inggris Universitas Negeri Padang.

BAB III

METODOLOGI PENELITIAN

A. Metodologi

1. Tujuan Penelitian

Penelitian ini dimaksudkan untuk mengembangkan model pembelajaran mata kuliah *Functional Grammar* berbasis genre pada Program Studi Pendidikan Bahasa dan Sastra Inggris Universitas Negeri Padang. Model ini diharapkan dapat membantu dosen pengampu mata kuliah dalam menentukan bentuk-bentuk penjelasan dan latihan yang tepat dalam mengajarkan *Functional Grammar* kepada mahasiswa. Dengan demikian, keterampilan mahasiswa dalam memahami dan menganalisis berbagai jenis teks dapat ditingkatkan secara signifikan. Secara operasional, penelitian ini dilaksanakan untuk menjawab pertanyaan bagaimana model pembelajaran mata kuliah *Functional Grammar* yang cocok bagi mahasiswa program studi Pendidikan Bhasa dan Sastra Inggris UNP?

2. Tempat dan Waktu Penelitian

Penelitian ini dilaksanakan di Program Studi Pendidikan Bahasa dan Sastra Inggris Universitas Negeri Padang pada semester Ganjil tahun akademik 2012. Pengumpulan dan analisis data analisis kebutuhan dan kelayakan bahan ajar yang ada dilaksanakan selama 3 bulan. Pengembangan bahan dilaksanakan selama 3 bulan dan revisi bahan selama 1 bulan. Namun demikian, beberapa data penting lainnya akan dikumpulkan sesegera mungkin.

3 Fokus dan Sub-Fokus Penelitian

Fokus penelitian ini adalah bagaimana mengembangkan model pembelajaran mata kuliah *Functional Grammar* yang cocok bagi dosen dan mahasiswa program studi Pendidikan Bahasa dan Sastra Inggris UNP.

4 Metode Penelitian

a. Metode yang digunakan

Metode yang digunakan digunakan pada penelitian ini adalah penelitian dan pengembangan *(research and development)*. Tujuan utama dari penelitian pengembangan adalah mengembangkan produk yang efektif untuk dapat digunakan oleh Prodi Pendidikan Bahasa dan Sastra Inggris. Penggunaan metode penelitian dan pengembangan cukup menjanjikan digunakan dalam bidang pendidikan karena menyangkut hubungan yang erat antara evaluasi program yang sistematis dengan pengembangan program di masa yang akan datang (Gall dan Gall, 2003: 569).

b. Instrumen Pengumpul data

Data penelitian ini dikumpulkan dengan menggunakan instrumen berikut:

1) Kuesioner

Penggunaan kuesioner ditujukan pada dan mahasiswa yang sedang belajar *Functional Grammar*. Pertama, kuesioner dimaksudkan untuk mengumpulkan data tentang penggunaan model pembelajaran *Functional Grammar* yang digunakan selama ini. Kedua, kuesioner dimaksudkan untuk mendapatkan kebutuhan mahasiswa akan model pembelajaran *Functional Grammar* yang tepat.

2) Analisis Dokumen

Dokumen-dokumen yang dianalisis berupa silabus, SAP, dan buku teks atau buku pelajaran yang digunakan dosen pengampu di dalam mengajar mata kuliah *Functional Grammar*.

5. Langkah-langkah Riset Pengembangan

Langkah-langkah penelitian yang akan diterapkan disini adalah yang dikemukakan Sugiyono (2007), tetapi dalam penelitian ini, hanya 5 langkah yang digunakan, sesuai dengan kebutuhan. Kelima langkah tersebut dijabarkan sebagai berikut.

a. Potensi dan Masalah

Dosen Pengampu berpotensi untuk dapat lebih meningkatkan keterampilan dalam menggunakan Functional Grammar di dalam menganalisis berbagai macam teks. Potensi tersebut dapat diwujudkan dengan menggunakan metode dan strategi pembelajaran yang tepat, media pembelajaran yang sesuai dengan pokok bahasan, dan materi ajar yang cocok dengan tujuan yang sudah ditetapkan di dalam kurikulum. Salah satu hal yang berpengaruh tehadap kemampuan mahasiswa dalam menggunakan Functional Grammar adalah penggunaan model pembelajaran yang tepat dan didukung oleh penggunaan media yang tepat. Masalahnya adalah model pembelajaran *Functional Grammar* yang digunakan selama ini belum memenuhi standar yang dimaksud.

b. Pengumpulan Data Analisis Kebutuhan

Informasi perlu dikumpulkan dari dosen pengampu mata kuliah dan mahasiswa. Informasi dikumpulkan melalui kuesioner, observasi, dan wawancara untuk

mengungkap masalah yang mereka alami, berupa pendapat mereka tentang model dan materi ajar yang mereka gunakan sekarang dan bagaimana sebaiknya model pembelajaran mata kuliah *Functional Grammar* untuk masa yang akan datang. Selanjutnya, informasi juga akan dikumpulkan melalui analisis isi materi ajar yang beredar dan digunakan dalam mengajar.

c. Desain Materi Ajar

Model pembelajaran yang dikembangkan tentu yang diyakini akan dapat memecahkan permasalahan di atas. Sebelum model pembelajaran yang baru dikembangkan, perlu diadakan suatu pengkajian yang dapat mengungkapkan kelemahan-kelemahan yang terdapat pada model pembelajaran yang digunakan selama ini. Di samping itu, perlu juga pertimbangkan masukan-masukan dari para dosen pengampu, para ahli pembelajaran linguistik bahasa Inggris, dan para penulis materi ajar lainnya. Yang tidak kalah pentingnya adalah pengkajian rujukan-rujukan yang tersedia yang berisikan model pengembangan materi ajar terbaru.

6. Data dan Sumber Data

Data awal yang diperlukan dalam penelitian ini adalah hasil jawaban terhadap quesioner yang disebarkan kepada mahasiswa, hasil observasi terhadap materi yang digunakan dosen pengampu dalam mengajar mata kuliah *Functional Grammar* dan hasil analisis dokumen terhadap buku pelajaran yang digunakan. Semua data ini akan digunakan untuk menetapkan model pembelajaran mata kuliah *Functional Grammar*.

7. Teknik Analisis Data

Teknik analisis data yang digunakan disesuaikan dengan tahapan penelitian dan pengembangan yang digunakan di dalam penelitian ini. Setiap tahapan penelitian mempunyai tujuan dan data yang berbeda-beda maka teknik analisisnya juga berbeda-beda. Data-data kuantitatif yang berasal dari angket didapatkan dengan mengkonversi pilihan jawaban responden menjadi skor. Misalnya, Untuk data yang berkaitan dengan masalah yang dihadapi mahasiswa di dalam proses belajar *Functional Grammar*, terdapat empat pilihan jawaban untuk setiap butir. Pilihan jawaban 'tidak layak' diberi nilai satu, 'kurang layak' diberi nilai dua, 'layak' diberi nilai tiga, dan 'sangat layak' diberi nilai empat. Selanjutnya rerata skor untuk setiap butir dikategorikan ke dalam beberapa kategori sesuai dengan kelompok rentangan skornya. Tabel di bawah ini digunakan untuk mengkategorikan rerata skor yang berkaitan dengan masalah-masalah yang dihadapi mahasiswa di dalam proses belajar menulis esai dalam bahasa Inggris.

Tabel 3.
Kategori tingkat masalah yang dihadapi mahasiswa dalam belajar menulis esai

No	Rentangan Skor	Kategori	Keterangan
1	1.00 - 1.75	Rendah	Tidak bermasalah
2	1.76 - 2.50	Sedang	Tidak bermasalah
3	2.51 - 3.25	Tinggi	Bermasalah
4	3.25 - 4.00	Sangat tinggi	Bermasalah

Data-data yang berkaitan dengan keinginan mahasiswa didapatkan dengan mengkonversi pilihan jawaban responden menjadi skor. Terdapat empat pilihan setiap item yang ada. Pilihan jawaban 'tidak penting' diberi nilai satu, 'kurang penting' diberi nilai dua, 'penting' diberi nilai tiga, dan 'sangat penting' diberi nilai empat. Selanjutnya rerata skor untuk setiap butir dikategorikan ke dalam beberapa kategori sesuai dengan

penilai. Terdapat lima pilihan nilai yang diberikan oleh penilai. Nilai 1 diberikan bila pernyataan memenuhi 1% sampai 20% kriteria yang dinilai, nilai 2 untuk tingkat pemenuhan kriteria antara 21% dan 40%, nilai 3 untuk tingkat pemenuhan kriteria antara 41% dan 60%, nilai 4 untuk tingkat pemenuhan kriteria antara 61% sampai 80%, dan nilai 5 untuk tingkat pemenuhan kriteria antara 80% sampai 100%. Selanjutnya rerata skor untuk setiap butir dikategorikan ke dalam beberapa kategori sesuai dengan kelompok rentangan skornya. Tabel di bawah ini digunakan untuk mengkategorikan rerata skor yang berkaitan dengan penilaian pakar terhadap bahan ajar yang dikembangkan berdasarkan hasil analisis kebutuhan dan analisis situasi/kondisi.

Tabel 3.
Kategori penilaian pakar tentang materi ajar yang dikembangkan

No	Rentangan Skor	Kategori	Keterangan
1	1.00 - 1.80	tidak baik	Buang/Revisi
2	1.81 - 2.60	kurang baik	Revisi
3	2.61 - 3.40	Sedang	Revisi
4	3.41 - 4.20	Baik	Pertahankan
5	4.21 - 5.00	sangat baik	Pertahankan

B. Langkah-Langkah Riset Pengembangan

Bagan di bawah ini menggambarkan langkah-langkah yang dilakukan di dalam riset dan pengembangan model pembelajaran mata kuliah *Functional Grammar*:
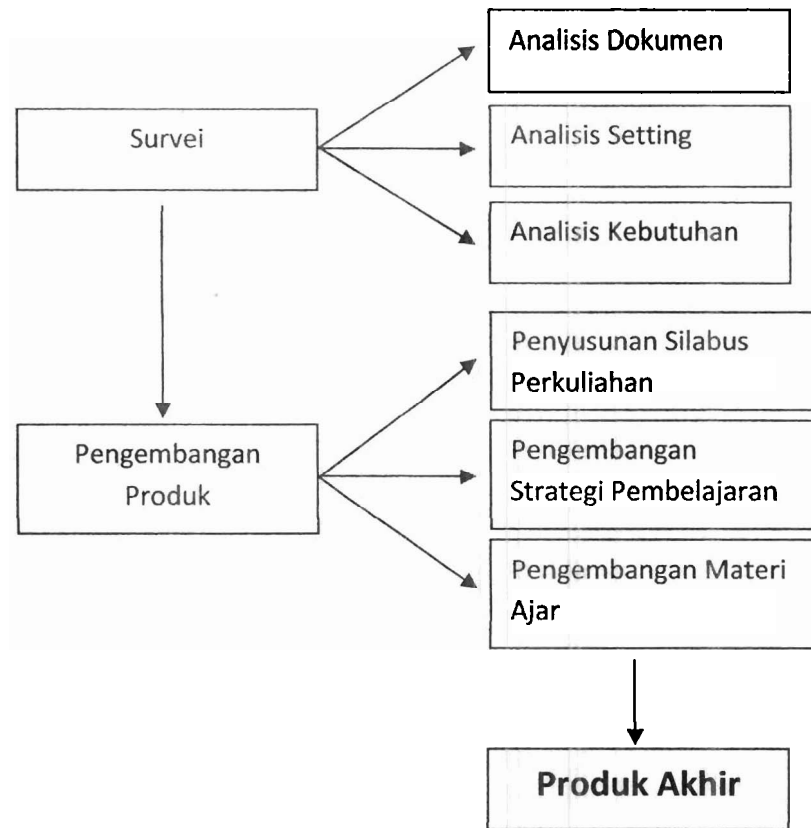
C. **Perencanaan dan Penyusunan Model Pembelajaran**

1. **Survei**

Kegiatan pertama yang dilakukan adalah mengadakan survei. Survei ini dimaksudkan untuk melihat dan melakukan (a) analisis dokumen terhadap bahan apa yang digunakan di dalam perkuliahan, (b) analisis letak terhadap model/strategi pengembangan bahan yang digunakan, dan (c) analisis kebutuhan mahasiswa terhadap model pembelajaran yang cocok dengan kemampuan akademiknya dan perkembangan informasi dan teknologi.

2. Pengembangan Produk

Dari hasil kegiatan survey selanjutnya dilakukan kegiatan pengembangan yang terdiri dari (a) menyusun silabus berdasarkan hasil survei, (b) pengembangan prototipe strategi pembelajaran, dan (c) pengembangan materi ajar. Silabus perkuliahan disusun berdasarkan synopsis yang sudah dirumuskan di dalam buku pedoman akademik, kebutuhan mahasiswa akan meteri ajar yang cocok, dan perkembangan teknologi dan informasi. Protiope strategi pembelajaran dikembangkan berdasarkan silabus yang sudah disusun dan pendekatan berbasis genre. Pengembangan materi ajar dilakukan berdasarkan silabus yang sudah disusun, protipe model strategi pembelajaran, dan didukung oleh materi-materi terbaru untuk pembelajaran *Functional Grammar* baik yang dikomersialisasikan atau pun yang disusun sendiri oleh dosen pengampu.

BAB IV

HASIL PENELITIAN

Bab IV ini membahas (a) kerangka model teoretis, (b) hasil analisis butuhan mahasiswa, (c) hasil analisis kelayakan model pembelajaran dan bahan ajar yang ada, dan (d) deskripsi model pembelajaran yang dikembangkan.

A. Kerangka Model Teoretis

Kerangka model teoretis pengembangan model pembelajaran *functional grammar* yang dikembangkan dalam penelitian ini didasarkan pada teori-teori *functional grammar* yang dikembangkan Halliday (1985, 1994, dan 2004), David Butt dkk (1994 dan 2000), Suzanne Eggins (1994 dan 2004), 2000), Linda Gerot dan Peter Wignell (1994), Collerson (1994), dan J. R. Martin dkk (1997). Sedangkan kerangka pengembangan model pembelajaran itu sendiri didasarkan pada toeri-teori pembelajaran berbasis teks yang dikemukakan oleh feez (1998) dan pengembangan bahan ajar yang dikemukakan oleh Hutchinson dan Waters (1987), Cunningsworth (1995), Jolly dan Bolitho (1998) dan Tomlinson (1998 dan 2003).

Teori-teori yang dirujuk di atas diimplementasikan dengan memasukkan hasil analisis terhadap model pembelajaran yang digunakan sekarang dan hasil analisis terhadap kebutuhan mahasiswa terhadap bahan ajar *Functional Grammar* yang lebih baik. Perkembangan teknologi juga menjadi bahan pertimbangan penting di dalam pengembangan bahan ajar ini. Hasilnya adalah kerangka teoretis pengembangan bahan ajar Functional Grammar, seperti yang tergambar pada diagram berikut ini:

B. Analisis Kebutuhan Mahasiswa

1. Penjelasan konsep dan contoh

a. Pentingnya penjelasan konsep dan contoh

Untuk mengungkap pentingnya penjelasan konsep dan contoh bagi mahasiswa, terdapat 22 item pernyataan yang berkenaan topik yang disajikan dalam mata kuliah *Functional Grammar* disajikan pada responden. Urutan topik/sub-topik dari yang paling penting ke yang kurang penting bagi responden dapat dilihat pada tabel berikut ini:

Tabel 4.1
Skor Tanggapan Responden tentang Pentingnya penjelasan konsep dan contoh

NO	Item	TP	TBP	P	SP	Jumlah
1	*Clause complex*	3	16	141	228	388
2	*Text types*	2	26	138	216	382
3	*Mode analysis*	1	24	156	200	381
4	*Modality*	2	18	168	192	380
5	*Lexico-grammar*	2	12	189	176	379
6	*Tenor* analysis	2	30	135	212	379
7	*Participants*	3	18	168	188	377
8	*Processes*	3	22	159	192	376
9	*Cohesion*	3	24	153	196	376
10	*Field analysis*	2	28	150	196	376
11	*Adjunct*	3	22	165	184	374
12	*Functional grammar and language teaching*	1	26	180	164	371
13	*Register: Context of situation in text*	3	18	192	156	369
14	*Finite*	2	34	156	176	368
15	*Genre: context of culture in text*	2	22	204	136	364
16	*Mood*	4	28	171	160	363
17	*Circumstances*	3	38	150	172	363
18	*Formal and functional grammar*	2	22	210	128	362
19	*Residue*	4	26	180	152	362
20	*Rheme*	3	32	192	128	355
21	*Theme*	4	32	189	128	353
22	*What is a text?*	7	30	201	104	342

Ket: TP = Tidak Perlu, TBP = Tidak Begitu Perlu, P = Perlu, SP = Sangat Perlu

- Tabel di atas menggambarkan bahwa konsep *Functional Grammar* yang dianggap paling penting oleh responden adalah penjelasan dan contoh yang berkenaan dengan klausa kompleks (clause complex), dengan skor 388, diikuti oleh penjelasan dan contoh

yang berkaitan dengan jenis-jenis teks (text types) dengan skor 382, *Mode analysis* dengan skor 381, dan *Modality* dengan skor 380. Hal ini menunjukkan bahwa penjelasan tentang keterkaitan antara satu klausa dengan klausa lainnya merupakan hal yang sangat penting bagi responden. Mereka perlu dibekali dengan penjelasan tentang teori hubungan antar klausa serta contoh-contoh yang tepat untuk meningkatkan pemahaman mereka tentang konsep klausa kompleks.

Selanjutnya, mereka juga perlu dibekali dengan penjelasan yang rinci tentang berbagai jenis teks. Penjelasan tentang jenis teks ini harus mencakup tentang fungsi sosial dari sebuah teks, struktur generik dari teks tersebut, dan penggunaan fitur-fitur leksikogramatikal yang dominan di dalam setiap jenis teks. Setiap penjelasan mesti diikuti oleh contoh agar tingkat pemahman mahasiswa menjadi lebih meningkat.

Penjelasan dan contoh-contoh yang berkaitan dengan analisis *mode* dan modalitas (*modality*) juga sangat penting bari responden. Kedua jenis konsep ini mendapat skor 381 dan 382. Hal ini menunjukkan bahwa penggunaan modalitas merupakan hal yang sangat penting diketahui oleh mahasiswa karena modalitas merupakan alat di dalam memberikan argumentasi terhadap suatu persoalan. Kekuatan argumen yang diberikan dapat dilihat dari jenis model yang digunakan di dalam proposisi yang disampaikan. Kekuatan suatu argumentasi harus ditunjang oleh kemampuan menganalisis hubungan antar partisipan atau hubungan antara penulis dengan audiens. Jenis hubungan yang berbeda akan menentukan pilihan penggunaan modalitas yang tepat.

- Dari tabel di atas juga dapat disimpulkan bahwa responden menganggap bahwa penjelasan-penjelasan dan contoh-contoh yang berkenaan analisis moda (mode analysis), leksikogramatika (lexico-grammar), kohesi (cohesion), jenis-jenis partisipan, *field*

analysis, dan penjelasan tentang *adjunct*. Namun demikian, topic-topik lainnya juga merupakan hal yang penting untuk dibahas. Hanya saja, pembahasannya tidak serinci topic-topik yang sudah didiskusikan di atas.

b. *Masalah dalam memahami penjelasan konsep dan contoh*

Aspek kedua yang dibahas berkenaan dengan masalah mahasiswa adalah permasalahan di dalam memahami penjelasan konsep dan contoh yang disajikan di dalam proses perkuliahan. Penjelasan konsep dan contoh ini dapat saja muncul pada presentasi kelompok maupun pada penjelasan secara eksplisit oleh dosen pengampu mata kuliah *Functional Grammar*. Untuk mengungkap masalah yang dihadapi mahasiswa dalam memahami penjelasan konsep dan contoh, 22 item pernyataan yang berkenaan topic yang disajikan dalam mata kuliah Functional Grammar disajikan pada responden. Urutan topik/sub-topik dari yang paling bermasalah ke yang kurang bermasalah bagi responden dapat dilihat pada tabel berikut ini:

Tabel 4.2:
Masalah yang berkenaan dengan penjelasan konsep dan contoh

NO	Item	HTP	KK	S	SS	Jumlah
1	*Adjunct*	1	20	150	216	387
2	*Processes*	4	16	138	228	386
3	*Participants*	3	10	168	204	385
4	*Clause complex*	5	20	120	240	385
5	*Field analysis*	4	22	129	228	383
6	*Mode analysis*	5	16	138	224	383
7	*Circumstances*	2	26	138	216	382
8	*Cohesion*	6	12	144	220	382
9	*Modality*	3	20	150	208	381
10	*Lexico-grammar*	3	10	192	172	377
11	*Residue*	3	20	168	184	375
12	*Tenor* analysis	7	20	135	212	374
13	*Theme*	4	22	159	188	373
14	*Rheme*	5	24	150	192	371

15	*Mood*	4	22	168	176	370
16	*Finite*	2	32	156	180	370
17	*Formal and functional grammar*	3	26	192	144	365
18	*Text types*	10	20	135	200	365
19	*Genre: context of culture in text*	2	26	195	140	363
20	*Functional grammar and language teaching*	3	32	171	156	362
21	*What is a text?*	2	52	174	116	344
22	*Register: Context of situation in text*	1	50	204	84	339

Ket: HTP = Hampir Tdk Pernah, KK = Kadang-Kadang, S = Sering, SS = Sangat Sering

Berbeda dengan pentingnya penjelasan konsep dan contoh, tabel 4.2 di atas menggambarkan mahasiswa menghadapi masalah terbesar dengan topik yang berkenaan dengan *Adjunct* , dengan skor 387, diikuti oleh topik yang berkenaan dengan *Processes*, dengan skor 386, *Participants* (skor 385) dan clause complex (skor 385). Hal ini menunjukkan bahwa menentukan jenis keterangan, jenis proses dan jenis partisipan merupakan masalah terbesar bagi mahasiswa. Dengan demikian, mereka perlu mendapat porsi yang lebih banyak dalam hal penjelasan dan contoh yang berkaitan dengan *adjunct*. Selanjutnya, mereka juga perlu dibekali dengan penjelasan rinci dan contoh-contoh tepat tentang penggunaan leksikogramatika karena ini sangat menentukan jenis teks yang akan dihasilkan. Pemahaman terhadap tiga analisis, yaitu analisis tenor, analisis mode, dan analisis field juga merupakan hal yang perlu mendapat perhatian di dalam materi ajar.

Masalah dalam memahami *field analysis* dan *mode analysis* juga cukup tinggi (dengan skor 383) dan penjelasan tentang circumstance (skor 382) juga merupakan masalah bagi responden. Ketiga topik ini menunjukkan bahwa mereka mendapat masalah dengan melihat keterkaitan anatara satu konsep dengan konsep yang lainnya. Dengan demikian, proporsi penjelasan dan contoh yang berkenaan dengan keterkaitan antar konsep perlu medapat perhatian di dalam model pembelajaran *Functional*

Grammar. Pemahaman terhadap satu konsep akan menunjang pemahaman mahasiswa

terhadap keterkaitan anatara satu konsep dengan konsep lainnya.

Perbandingan antara butir-butir yang dianggap penting dan butir-butir dengan

tingkat masalah yang tinggi dapat dilihat pada tabel 4.3 berikut ini:

Tabel 4.3:
Perbandingan antara 'tingkat pentingnya topic dan tingkat masalah yang muncul

Degree of Importance	Frequency of the problem	Rank
Clause complex	*Adjunct*	1
Text types	*Processes*	2
Mode analysis	*Participants*	3
Modality	*Clause complex*	4
Lexico-grammar	*Field analysis*	5
Tenor analysis	*Mode analysis*	6
Participants	*Circumstances*	7
Processes	*Cohesion*	8
Cohesion	*Modality*	9
Field analysis	*Lexico-grammar*	10
Adjunct	*Residue*	11
Functional grammar and language teaching	*Tenor* analysis	12
Register: Context of situation in text	*Theme*	13
Finite	*Rheme*	14
Genre: context of culture in text	*Mood*	15
Mood	*Finite*	16
Circumstances	*Formal and functional grammar*	17
Formal and functional grammar	*Text types*	18
Residue	*Genre: context of culture in text*	19
Rheme	*Functional grammar and language teaching*	20
Theme	*What is a text?*	21
What is a text?	*Register: Context of situation in text*	22

Dari tabel di atas juga dapat disimpulkan bahwa topic-topik/sub-topik yang perlu

mendapat penjelasan lebih rinci dan disertai contoh yang tepat yang perlu ada di dalam

sebuah model pembelajaran mata kuliah *Functional Grammar* melalui pendekatan

berbasis genre adalah sebagai berikut:

- *Clause complex*	*- Adjunct*	*-Text types*	*- Processes*
- *Modality*	*- Tenor analysis*	*-Mode analysis*	*-Field analysis*
- *Participants*	*- Cohesion*	*-Circumstances*	
- *Lexico-grammar*			

2. Tugas dan Latihan

a. Pentingnya tugas/latihan

Untuk mengungkap jenis tugas/latihan yang dianggap penting oleh mahasiswa, 22 item pernyataan yang berkenaan dengan jenis tugas menyimak disajikan pada responden. Urutan pentingnya setiap topik tergambar di dalam tabel berikut ini:

Tabel 4.4:
Pentingnya tugas/latihan dalam Functional Grammar

NO	Item	TP	TBP	P	SP	Jml
1	*Clause complex*	0	6	144	248	398
2	*Cohesion*	0	10	159	220	389
3	*Mode analysis*	0	16	147	224	387
4	*Processes*	1	18	138	228	385
5	*Field analysis*	0	22	135	228	385
6	*Tenor* analysis	0	20	144	220	384
7	*Adjunct*	0	20	147	216	383
8	*Text types*	0	20	153	208	381
9	*Modality*	0	22	150	208	380
10	*Circumstances*	1	22	141	216	380
11	*Participants*	3	12	165	196	376
12	*Theme*	1	18	165	192	376
13	*Rheme*	1	18	165	192	376
14	*Residue*	1	20	168	184	373
15	*Lexico-grammar*	3	8	192	168	371
16	*Mood*	2	22	168	176	368
17	*Finite*	1	30	156	180	367
18	*Genre: context of culture in text*	0	26	195	140	361
19	*Functional grammar and language teaching*	1	32	171	156	360
20	*Formal and functional grammar*	2	26	186	144	358
21	*What is a text?*	2	48	174	116	340
22	*Register: Context of Situation in text*	0	48	204	84	336

Ket: TP = Tidak Perlu, TBP = Tidak Begitu Perlu, P = Perlu, SP = Sangat Perlu

Tabel di atas menggambarkan bahwa jenis tugas/latihan semantics and pragmatics yang dianggap paling penting oleh responden adalah klausa kompleks (clause complex), dengan skor 398, diikuti oleh latihan/tugas yang berkenaan dengan *cohesion* (dengan skor 389), *mode analysis* (dengan skor 387), *processes* (dengan skor 385), dan *field analysis* (dengan skor 385). Hal ini menunjukkan bahwa tugas/latihan menganalisis berbagai macam klausa kompleks merupakan hal yang sangat penting bagi responden. Mereka juga perlu dilatih menganalisis hubungan antara satu klausa dengan klausa lainnya dengan memperhatikan piranti-piranti kohesi yang digunakan untuk menghubungkan dua klausa.

Tugas/latihan yang berkenaan dengan tenor analysis dan adjunct juga sangat penting bari responden. Kedua topic ini menunjukkan bahwa kemampuan menganalisis tenor dari sebuah klausa dan kemampuan mementukan jenis-jenis adjunct yang digunakan dalam sebuah klausa perlu mendapat latihan yang memadai. Dengan demikian, tugas dan latihan yang berkenaan dengan kedua topic ini perlu tersedia secaracmemadai di dalam materi ajar "Functional Grammar". Disamping itu, tugas/latihan tentang memahami berbagai jenis teks dan penggunaan modalitas juga merupakan hal yang penting diadakan pada materi ajar.

Dari tabel di atas juga dapat disimpulkan bahwa responden menganggap bahwa tugas/latihan yang berkenaan dengan topic-topik *clause complex, cohesion, mode analysis, processes, field analysis, tenor analysis, adjunct, text types, modality*, dan *circumstances* merupakan hal yang sangat penting adanya di dalam sebuah materi ajar "Functional Grammar".

b. Masalah berkenaan dengan tugas/latihan

Selanjutnya, ditinjau dari tingkat keseringan masalah yang muncul, terdapat perbedaan pilihan tanggapan responden bila dibandingkan dengan tingkat pentingnya suatu topic/sub-topik. Hal ini dapat dilihat pada tabel 4.5 di bawah ini, yang berisi urutan topic yang dianggap menimbulkan masalah bagi responden.

Tabel 4.5:
Masalah berkenaan dengan tugas/latihan

No	Item	HTP	KK	S	SS	Jumlah
1	*Cohesion*	1	84	195	20	300
2	*Field analysis*	3	78	195	24	300
3	*Tenor* analysis	1	102	165	24	292
4	*Clause complex*	7	84	168	32	291
5	*Mode analysis*	6	90	174	16	286
6	*Text types*	6	92	171	16	285
7	*Lexico-grammar*	16	92	129	32	269
8	*Register: Context of situation in text*	5	128	123	12	268
9	*Formal and functional grammar*	6	126	126	8	266
10	*Genre: context of culture in text*	6	130	123	4	263
11	*Functional grammar and language teaching*	15	116	114	8	253
12	*Processes*	16	114	114	8	252
13	*Circumstances*	17	116	111	4	248
14	*Adjunct*	20	114	93	20	247
15	*Rheme*	22	116	78	28	244
16	*What is a text?*	15	136	90	0	241
17	*Participants*	17	132	84	8	241
18	*Modality*	24	124	78	4	230
19	*Residue*	32	100	87	8	227
20	*Theme*	28	126	57	12	223
21	*Mood*	33	116	60	8	217
22	*Finite*	39	100	63	12	214

Berbeda dengan pentingnya tugas/latihan yang berkenaan konsep functional grammar, tabel 4.5 di atas menggambarkan bahwa tugas functional grammar and pragmatics yang dianggap paling bermasalah oleh responden adalah cohesion (dengan skor 300), diikuti oleh Field analysis (dengan skor 300) dan Tenor analysis (dengan skor

292). Hal ini menunjukkan bahwa ketiga tugas ini perlu mendapat porsi yang lebih banyak dalam kegiatan functional grammar.

Masalah yang berkaitan dengan clause complex juga perlu mendapat perhatian (dengan skor 291) dan yang berikutnya adalah mode analysis (dengan skor 286). Kedua aktivitas ini perlu mendapat bagian yang cukup dalam materi ajar semantics and pragmatics. Pemahaman terhadap konsep yang ada harus ditunjang dengan berbagai bentuk tugas/latihanyang bervariasi, seperti penggunaan strategi yang berbeda untuk tujuan yang berbeda, dan penggunaan pengetahuan latar yang memadai dalam membuat suatu simpulan.

Perbandingan antara item yang dianggap penting dan item dengan tingkat masalah yang tinggi dapat dilihat pada tabel 4.6 berikut ini:

Tabel 4.6:
Perbandingan antara 'pentingnya tugas/latihan dan frekwensi masalah yang muncul

Degree of Importance	Frequency of the problem	Rank
Clause complex	Cohesion	1
Cohesion	Field analysis	2
Mode analysis	Tenor analysis	3
Processes	Clause complex	4
Field analysis	Mode analysis	5
Tenor analysis	Text types	6
Adjunct	Lexico-grammar	7
Text types	Register: Context of situation in text	8
Modality	Formal and functional grammar	9
Circumstances	Genre: context of culture in text	10
Participants	Functional grammar and language teaching	11
Theme	Processes	12
Rheme	Circumstances	13
Residue	Adjunct	14
Lexico-grammar	Rheme	15
Mood	What is a text?	16
Finite	Participants	17
Genre: context of culture in text	Modality	18
Functional grammar and language teaching	Residue	19
Formal and functional grammar	Theme	20
What is a text?	Mood	21
Register: Context of situation in text	Finite	22

Dari tabel di atas juga dapat disimpulkan bahwa tugas/latihan yang perlu ada di dalam sebuah materi ajar "Functional Grammar" adalah *Cohesion, Clause complex, Field analysis, Mode analysis, Tenor analysis, Text types, Adjunct, Register, Modality, Circumstances, Formal and functional grammar, Process*

Masalah-masalah lainnya yang dihadapi mahasiswa dalam belajar Functional Grammar adalah hal-hal yang berkenaan dengan cara penyajian materi ajar dan kemampuan mahasiswa sendiri dalam memahami kosep-konsep yang ditawarkan. Tabel berikut ini menggambarkan sepuluh masalah yang dihadapi mahasiswa dan total skor yang diberikan untuk setiap masalah.

Tabel 4.7:
Masalah-masalah berkenaan dengan cara penyajian materi

No	Item	Rank
1	Saya mendapat kesulitan dalam memhami penjelasan konsep karena saya tidak mempunyai pengetahuan latar yang memadai	65
2	Saya mendapat kesulitan dalam memahami penjelasan konsep karena kerumitan bahasa yang digunakan	64
3	Saya mendapat kesulitan dalam mengerjakan latihan-latihan karena kerumitan bahasan yang digunakan	59
4	Saya mendapat kesulitan dalam mengerjakan latihan-latihan yang diberikan karena tidak sesuai dengan penjelasan dan contoh	50
5	Saya mendapat kesulitan dalam memhami penjelasan konsep karena tidak disertai dengan contoh yang mudah dipahami	46
6	Saya mendapat kesulitan dalam memhami penjelasan konsep karena penyajiannya yang tidak disertai dengan ilustrasi atau bagan	39
7	Saya mendapat kesulitan dalam mengerjakan latihan-latihan karena tidak disertai dengan contoh cara mengerjakan latihan-latihannya	34
8	Saya mendapat kesulitan dalam memhami penjelasan konsep karena penyajiannya tidak bersifat multimedia –	28
9	Saya mendapat kesulitan dalam memhami penjelasan konsep karena penyajiannya yang tidak lengkap	27
10	Saya mendapat kesulitan dalam memhami penjelasan konsep karena penyajiannya yang bertele-tele	25

Tabel di atas menggambarkan bahwa masalah terbesar yang dihadapi oleh mahasiswa adalah kesulitan dalam memahami konsep karena mereka tidak mempunyai pengetahuan latar yang memadai (skor 65). Hal ini menunjukkan bahwa materi ajar yang cocok bagi mereka adalah materi ajar pengantar yang tidak mensyaratkan pengetahuan latar tertentu, sehingga dengan hanya membaca materi ajar yang ada mereka sudah mampu memahami konsep-konsep yang ditawarkan. Kesulitan yang kedua adalah berkenaan dengan tingkat kerumitan bahasa yang digunakan (skor 64). Karena kemampuan bahasa Inggris mereka masih terbatas, maka bahasa yang digunakan di dalam memaparkan konsep-konsep yang ditawarkan harus sesederhana mungkin. Selanjutnya, bahasa yang rumit juga berakibat terhadap munculnya masalah dalam mengerjakan tugas/latihan (skor 59). Kesulitan yang keempat adalah berkenaan dengan tugas/latihan yang tidak relevan dengan penjelasan dan contoh-contoh yang disajikan (skor 50). Masalah yang kelima adalah berkenaan dengan kesulitan memahami konsep yang tidak disertai dengan contoh nyata dan mudah dipahami (skor 56). Jadi, kelima masalah ini sangat perlu mendapat perhatian di dalam pengembangan materi ajar "Functional Grammar".

3. Jenis Sumber Bahan

Untuk mengungkap jenis sumber bahan yang dianggap penting oleh mahasiswa, 10 item pernyataan yang berkenaan dengan jenis sumber bahan mata kuliah Functional Grammar disajikan pada responden. Rangking dari kesepuluh item ini dapat dilihat pada table berikut ini:

Tabel 4.8:
Jenis Sumber Bahan berdasarkan tingkat kepentingannya

No	Item	TP	TBP	P	SP	Jml
1	Materi ajar yang disampaikan secara tertulis dalam bentuk buku ajar	6	38	165	132	341
2	Materi ajar yang disampaikan secara secara digital berbasis multimedia interaktif	5	42	162	132	341
3	Latihan/tugas yang disajikan secara tertulis	5	46	159	128	338
4	Materi ajar yang disampaikan secara digital dalam bentuk presentasi power-point	4	58	162	104	328
5	Materi ajar yang disampaikan secara lisan dalam bentuk rekaman audio-visual	5	64	168	80	317
6	Latihan/tugas yang disampaikan secara digital yang berbasis multimedia interaktif	8	76	147	72	303
7	Latihan/tugas yang disampaikan secara digital dalam bentuk presentasi power-point	9	74	150	68	301
8	Latihan/tugas yang disampaikan secara lisan dalam bentuk rekaman audio visual	10	92	135	48	285
9	Materi ajar yang disampaikan secara lisan dalam bentuk rekaman audio	16	84	114	68	282
10	Latihan/tugasyang disajikan secara lisan dalam bentuk rekaman audio	15	102	108	44	269

Tabel di atas menggambarkan bahwa jenis sumber bahan mata kuliah functional grammar yang dianggap paling penting oleh responden adalah materi ajar yang disampaikan secara tertulis dalam bentuk buku ajar (dengan skor 341), diikuti oleh materi ajar yang disampaikan secara digital dalam bentuk bahan ajar berbasis multimedia interaktif (dengan skor 341) dan latihan/tugas yang disajikan secara tertulis (dengan skor 338). Hal ini menunjukkan bahwa jenis sumber bahan functional grammar berbentuk tertulis (konvesional) seperti buku masih menjadi prioritas utama bagi mahasiswa. Mereka perlu membaca dan berlatih secara berulang kali dengan materi tertulis agar pemahamn mereka meningkat baik. Selanjutnya, mereka juga memerlukan materi-materi yang berbentuk bahan berbasis multimedia interaktif yang dapat dipelajari melalui computer multimedia. Penggunaan materi-materi seperti ini diyakini dapat meningkatkan

minat mereka dalam belajar functional grammar dan tentu saja berdampak positif terhadap peningkatan kemampuan mereka dalam memahami berbagai konsep functional grammar.

C. Analisis Kelayakan Bahan Ajar yang Ada

1. Analisis Dokumen

Evaluasi yang dilakukan terhadap buku ajar yang digunakan mengungkapkan beberapa hal menarik. Pertama, buku yang digunakan adalah buku yang berjudul *Making Sense of Functional Grammar*. Buku ini ditulis oleh Linda Gerot dan Peter Wignell, dan diterbitkan oleh Antipodean Educational Enterprises pada tahun 1994 (kurang lebih 17 tahun yang lalu). Buku ini menjadi buku wajib untuk semua kelas Functional Grammar. Dengan kata lain, semua dosen pengampu menggunakan materi yang sama. Buku ini merupakan buku kerja khusus untuk mahasiswa sebagai pelengkap buku An Introduction to Functional Grammar yang ditulis oleh Michael Halliday. Karena ini merupakan buku kerja, maka buku ini cocok untuk dipakai di luar kelas, bukan di dalam kelas. Penjelasan konsep yang ada di dalam buku ini secara umum tidak memadai. Buku ini juga tidak dilengkapi dengan software-software penunjang yang bersifat multimedia intraktif yang dapat digunakan mahasiswa dengan menggunakan fasilitas computer.

Kedua, buku *Making Sense of Functional Grammar ini* terdiri dari 10 unit pelajaran, dan setiap pelajaran yang ada di dalam buku ini menyajikan topic/sub-topik yang berfariasi. Latihan-latihan yang terdapat di dalam setiap unit kelihatannya masih sederhana dan belum menggunakan banyak variasi model latihan. Tabel berikut ini menggambarkan topic/sub-topik yang diajarkan di dalam buku ini:

Tabel 4.9:

Topik-topik dalam buku Making Sense of Functional Grammar

No	Pelajaran	Judul	Topik/Sub-topik
1	Chapter 1	Genre and Grammar, Text and Context	- Grammar - The context-text connection - Genre
2	Chapter 2	Mood	- Clause as an exchange - The mood element - Residue - Mood types
3	Chapter 3	Transitivity	- The clause as representation - Circumstances - Processes - Extra participants and causation
4	Chapter 4	Clauses and clause complexes	- Clause vs. sentence - Recognizing clause boundaries - Clause complexes
5	Chapter 5	Theme and Rheme	- The clause as message - Theme and Rheme - Theme and Mood - Theme and Text - Theme and text development
6	Chapter 6	Nominal Groups	- Nominal group structure - Nominalization - Grammatical metaphor
7	Chapter 7	Spoken and Written language	- Spoken and written language and mode - Differences between spoken and written language
8	Chapter 8	Cohesion	- Cohesion - Reference - Lexical cohesion and field - Conjunction
9	Chapter 9	The genre-grammar connection	- Genre - Genre used in this workbook - Other common genres
10	Chapter 10	Genre across the curriculum	- Genre and curriculum - How do different subjects work? - Implication for learning and teaching

Ketiga, Buku ini sudah dipublikasikan semenjak 17 tahun yang lalu dan sudah dianggap tidak cocok lagi dengan perkembangan ilmu functional grammar dan perkembangan teknologi. Buku ini juga digunakan sebagai buku utama sedangkan buku ini dirancang hanya sebagai buku kerja. Dengan demikian banyak konsep functional

grammar yang tidak dimuat di dalam buku ini karena penekanannya pada latihan-latihan untuk penguatan pada konsep-konsep tertentu yang ada pada buku teks yang biasa dipakai untuk di dalam proses belajar mengajar di dalam kelas.

Selanjutnya, buku ini dijadikan buku teks. Sedangkan fungsinya hanya sebagai buku kerja. Tanpa buku teks yang memadai mahasiswa akan mendapat kesulitan dalam memahami konsep-konsep functional grammar secara lebih mendalam. Karena, hanya bergantung kepada buku kerja, maka jenis-jenis topik/sub-topik yang disajikan menjadi lebih terbatas.

Dari uraian di atas, dapat disimpulkan bahawa materi yang digunakan sekarang sebetulnya sudah tidak layak digunakan sebagai bahan ajar karena beberapa hal. Pertama materinya sudah cukup usang dan sudah dikenali oleh mahasiswa, sehingga tidak dapat dipercayai mampu meningkatkan kemampuan menyimak mahasiswa. Kedua, buku ini dirancang untuk buku kerja, bukan sebagai buku teks, sehingga konsep-konsep yang disajikan sangat terbatas. Ketiga, materinya tidak dilengkapi dengan CD-Rom yang berisi software pelajaran functional grammar yang dapat digunakan mahasiswa secra mandiri di luar kelas dengan menggunakan fasilitas computer.

Berdasarkan kesimpulan di atas, dapat dinyatakan bahwa materi baru untuk mata kuliah Functional Grammar di program studi Pendidikan Bahasa dan Sastra Inggris UNP perlu diganti. Pengembangan materi ajar yang sesuai dengan kebutuhan mahasiswa dan perkembangan teknologi sangat mendesak adanya.

2. Evaluasi buku "Making Sense of Functional grammar"

Materi ajar yang dianalisis disini hanya materi ajar yang menjadi bahan wajib bagi seluruh mahasiswa dan digunakan oleh seluruh kelas mata kuliah "Functional Grammar". Yang menjadi bahan wajib adalah sebuah buku functional grammar yang berjudul *Making Sense of Functional Grammar*. Buku ini ditulis oleh Linda Gerot dan Peter Wignell.

Untuk mempertahankan realibilitas hasil, materi ajar ini dinilai oleh tiga orang dosen pengampu mata kuliah 'Functional Grammar'. Selanjutnya, terdapat empat aspek yang dinilai untuk menentukan tingkat kelayakan materi ajar ini. Aspek-aspek tersebut adalah (a) tujuan dan pendekatan, (b) desain dan organisasi bahan ajar, (c) jenis input yang disajikan, dan jenis aktifitas.

a. Tujuan dan pendekatan

Aspek pertama yang harus dinilai dari sebuah materi ajar adalah tujuan dan pendekatan. Setiap materi ajar harus mengungkapkan tujuan dan pendekatan yang digunakan secara jelas dan terinci. Tujuan dan pendekatan di dalam materi ajar ini diungkap dengan menggunakan Sembilan item penilaian. Penilaian masing-masing penilai, rerata skor, dan tingkat kelayakan setiap item dapat dilihat pada tabel 4.10 berikut ini.

Tabel 4.10
Hasil Penilaian terhadap tujuan dan pendekatan

No	Item yang Dinilai	TA	TM	M	SM	Total Nilai	Rata-Rata	Status
1	Penjelasan tentang tujuan umum pembelajaran *Functional Grammar*		3			6	2.00	TM
2	Penjelasan tentang tujuan khusus pembelajaran *Functional Grammar* untuk setiap unit pembelajaran	2	1			4	1.33	STM
3	Penjelasan tentang pendekatan pembelajaran yang dianut	2	1			4	1.33	STM
4	Penjelasan tentang cakupan materi ajar	1	1	1		6	2.00	TM
5	Penjelasan tentang kemampuan awal mahasiswa yang disyaratkan		2	1		7	2.33	TM
6	Penjelasan tentang tingkat keterlibatan mahasiswa yang disyaratkan	1		2		7	2.33	TM
7	Penjelasan tentang teknik-teknik yang digunakan di dalam menyajikan gagasan	1	2			5	1.67	TM
8	Kecocokan antara pendekatan yang digunakan di dalam materi ajar dengan pendekatan yang dianut institusi			3		9	3.00	M
9	Kecocokan antara tujuan pembelajaran di dalam materi ajar dengan tujuan yang ingin dicapai oleh matu kuliah, program studi, dan institusi			3		9	3.00	M
	Total					57	2.11	TM

Ket: TA = Tidak Ada, TM = Tidak Memadai, M = Memadai, SM = Sangat Memadai

Fakta-fakta yang digambarkan pada tabel diatas menunjukkan bahwa secara umum tingkat kelayakan materi ajar yang digunakan ditinjau dari aspek tujuan dan pendekatan adalah *Tidak Memadai*. Dari Sembilan item yang dinilai, hanya dua item yang masuk kedalam kategori memadai. Sisanya berada pada kategori Tidak Memadai dan Sangat Tidak Memadai. Item yang mendapat skor tertinggi adalah Kecocokan antara tujuan pembelajaran di dalam materi ajar dengan tujuan yang ingin dicapai oleh matu kuliah, program studi, dan institusi (rerata skor 3,00) dan Kecocokan antara pendekatan yang digunakan di dalam materi ajar dengan pendekatan yang dianut institusi (rerata skor 3,00).

Selanjutnya, dua item berada pada kategori Sangat Tidak Memadai. Keuda item yang berada pada kategori ini adalah Penjelasan tentang tujuan khusus pembelajaran *Functional Grammar* untuk setiap unit pembelajaran (rerata skor 1,33) dan Penjelasan tentang pendekatan pembelajaran yang dianut (rerata skor 1,33). Selanjutnya, item yang berkaitan dengan Penjelasan tentang tujuan umum pembelajaran *Functional Grammar* *dan* Penjelasan tentang cakupan materi ajar berada pada posisi terendah ketiga dan keempat, dengan rerata skor 2,00.

Dari data-data yang digambarkan di atas, dapat disimpulkan bahwa materi ajar yang digunakan belum memuat Penjelasan tentang tujuan khusus pembelajaran *Functional Grammar* untuk setiap unit pembelajaran sehingga materi ini mungkin saja tidak cocok bagi mahasiswa. Materi ini juga tidak menggambarkan secara jelas tentang penjelasan yang berkaitan dengan pendekatan pembelajaran yang dianut sehingga sulit bagi dosen menentukan pendekatan yang lebih tepat dalam menyampaikan materi ini.

b. Desain dan organisasi materi ajar

Aspek kedua yang harus dinilai dari sebuah materi ajar adalah desain dan organisasi bahan ajar. Aspek ini sangat penting adanya karena desain yang tepat dan pengorganisasian matari yang teratur akan berdampak terhadap minat dan motivasi mahasiswa menggunakan bahan ajar tersebut. Desain dan organisasi bahan ajar diungkap dengan menggunakan sepuluh item penilaian. Penilaian masing-masing penilai, rerata skor, dan tingkat kelayakan setiap item dapat dilihat pada tabel 4.11 berikut ini.

Tabel 4.11
Hasil Penilaian terhadap desain dan organisasi bahan ajar

No	Item yang Dinilai	TA	TM	M	SM	Total Nilai	Rata-Rata	Status
1	Penjelasan tentang bagaimana materi disusun		3			6	2.00	TM
2	Pengurutan materi berdasarkan tingkat kesulitan materi		1	2		8	2.67	M
3	Keluwesan urutan unit, materi bacaan, dan aktivitas-aktivitas belajar terhadap perubahan silabus dan kebutuhan mahasiswa		2	1		7	2.33	TM
4	Kecocokan komponen materi ajar dengan gaya belajar yang beragam	1	1	1		6	2.00	TM
5	Kebaharuan materi ajar ditinjau dari aspek perkembangan teori *Functional Grammar* dan perkembangan ilmu pengetahuan dan teknologi		1	2		8	2.67	M
6	Penggunaan gambar atau media visual lainnya		3			6	2.00	TM
7	Penggunaan media audio	3				3	1.00	STM
8	Penggunaan multimedia	3				3	1.00	STM
9	Pedoman bagi pengajar	3				3	1.00	STM
10	Buku kerja mahasiswa		2	1		7	2.33	TM
	TOTAL					57	1.90	TM

Ket: TA = Tidak Ada, TM = Tidak Memadai, M = Memadai, SM = Sangat Memadai

Berdasarkan pada fakta-fakta yang terdapat pada tabel diatas, dapat dinyatakan bahwa secara umum tingkat kelayakan materi ajar yang digunakan ditinjau dari aspek desain dan organisasi bahan ajar adalah *Tidak Memadai*. Dari sepuluh item yang dinilai, hanya dua item yang berada pada kategori Memadai. Item-item ini adalah Pengurutan materi berdasarkan tingkat kesulitan materi (rerata skor 2,67) dan Kebaharuan materi ajar ditinjau dari aspek perkembangan teori *Functional Grammar* dan perkembangan ilmu pengetahuan dan teknologi (rerata skor 2,67). Ini menunjukkan bahwa materi ini sangat memperhatikan urutan materi yang didasarkan pada tingkat kesulitan materi ini sendiri. Materi ajar yang baik adalah materi ajar yang dimulai dengan materi yang dekat dan sudah sebagian besar dikenali mahasiswa dan diakhiri dengan materi ajar yang sama sekali baru bagi mahasiswa.

Akan tetapi, sebagian besar, sekitar 80%, item-item yang dinilai masih berada pada kategori yang dianggap belum layak, yaitu tiga item berada pada ketegori Sangat Tidak Memadai dan Lima item berada pada ketegori Tidak Memadai. Tiga item yang medapat rerata skor terendah atau berada pada kategori Sangat Tidak Memadai adalah Penggunaan Media Audio (rerata skor 1,00), Penggunaan Multimedia (rerata skor 1,00), dan Pedoman bagi Pengajar (rerata skor 1,00). Dengan demikian buku ini masih perlu dilengkapi dengan bahan-bahan yang berbentuk audio, multimedia dan pedoman bagi dosen dalam menggunakan bahan ajar ini.

Dari data-data yang digambarkan di atas, dapat disimpulkan bahwa materi ajar yang digunakan baru layak digunakan setelah dilengkapi dengan berbagai materi pendukung, seperti media audio, pedoman bagi pengajar, dan materi berbasis multimedia. Selanjutnya, hal-hal yang berkenaan dengan Kecocokan komponen materi ajar dengan gaya belajar yang beragam, Kebaharuan materi ajar ditinjau dari aspek perkembangan teori, praktek pembelajaran, dan perkembangan ilmu pengetahuan, teknologi, dan Integrasi antara keterampilan menulis dengan keterampilan berbahasa lainnya juga perlu lebih ditingkatkan.

c. *Jenis informasi yang disajikan*

Jenis input yang disajikan merupakan aspek ketiga yang harus dinilai dari sebuah materi ajar. Aspek ini sangat penting adanya karena aspek ini merupakan salah satu representasi fisik dari materi ajar. Input berperan di dalam memperkaya pengetahuan mahasiswa. Input dapat berupa penjelasan, contoh, ilusrasi, tabel, grafik ataupun gambar yang berfungsi menyediakan informasi bagi mahasiswa. Input diungkap dengan

menggunakan dua puluh dua item penilaian. Penilaian masing-masing penilai, rerata

skor, dan tingkat kelayakan setiap item dapat dilihat pada tabel 4.12 berikut ini.

Tabel 4.12
Hasil Penilaian terhadap Input

No	Item yang Dinilai	TA	TM	M	SM	Total Nilai	Rata-Rata	Status
1	*Formal and functional grammar*		2	1		7	2.33	TM
2	*Functional grammar and language teaching*		3			6	2.00	TM
3	*What is a text?*		2	1		7	2.33	TM
4	*Genre: context of culture in text*		3			6	2.00	TM
5	*Register: Context of situation in text*		3			6	2.00	TM
6	*Lexico-grammar*			3		9	3.00	M
7	*Mood*			3		9	3.00	M
8	*Finite*			3		9	3.00	M
9	*Residue*			3		9	3.00	M
10	*Adjunct*			3		9	3.00	M
11	*Modality*	1	1	1		6	2.00	TM
12	*Participants*			3		9	3.00	M
13	*Processes*			3		9	3.00	M
14	*Circumstances*			3		9	3.00	M
15	*Theme*		1		2	10	3.33	M
16	*Rheme*		1		2	10	3.33	M
17	*Clause complex*		1	2		8	2.67	M
18	*Cohesion*			3		9	3.00	M
19	*Field analysis*	2	1			4	1.33	STM
20	*Tenor* analysis	2	1			4	1.33	STM
21	*Mode analysis*	2	1			4	1.33	STM
22	*Text types*		1	1	1	9	3.00	M
						168	2.54	M

Ket: TA = Tidak Ada, TM = Tidak Memadai, M = Memadai, SM = Sangat Memadai

Tabel di atas menggambarkan sekitar 55% atau tujuh item yang dinilai sudah

berada pada kategori Memadai, walaupun tingkat kelayakannya secara umum dari segi

input masih berada pada kategori batas bawah Memadai (rerata skor 2,54). Dua dari dua

belas item yang berada pada kategori memadai adalah input tentang Theme dan Rheme,

dengan rerata skor 3,33. Ini menunjukkan bahwa materi ini sangat mementingkan strategi-strategi pengembangan theme dan Rheme dari sebuah teks.

Akan tetapi, masih ada sepuluh item yang dinilai masih berada pada kategori, yang dianggap belum layak, yaitu tiga item berada pada ketegori Sangat Tidak Memadai, dan tujuh item berada pada kategori Tidak Memadai. Tiga item yang mendapat skor terendah adalah Penjelasan tentang *Field Analysis* (rerata skor 1,33), Penjelasan tentang *Mode Analysis* (rerata skor 1,33) dan Penjelasan tentang *Tenor Analysis* (rerata skor 1,33) Dengan demikian buku ini masih perlu dilengkapi dengan bahan-bahan penunjang lainnya.

Dari data-data yang digambarkan di atas, dapat disimpulkan bahwa ditinjau dari aspek input yang disajikan, sebagian materi ajar yang digunakan belum layak digunakan untuk memenuhi kebutuhan mahasiswa akan materi ajar "Functional Grammar".

d. *Latihan-latihan yang disajikan*

Jenis latihan yang disajikan merupakan aspek keempat yang harus dinilai dari sebuah materi ajar. Aspek ini sangat penting adanya karena aspek ini merupakan salah satu representasi fisik dari materi ajar. Jenis latihan berperan di dalam memantapkan pemahaman mahasiswa. Jenis Latihan diungkap dengan menggunakan dua puluh dua item penilaian. Penilaian masing-masing penilai, rerata skor, dan tingkat kelayakan setiap item dapat dilihat pada tabel 4.13 berikut ini.

Tabel 4.13
Hasil Penilaian terhadap Jenis Latihan

No	Item yang Dinilai	TA	TM	M	SM	Total Nilai	Rata-Rata	Status
1	*Formal and functional grammar*	3				3	1.00	STM
2	*Functional grammar and language teaching*	3				3	1.00	STM
3	*What is a text?*	1	2			5	1.67	TM
4	*Genre: context of culture in text*	3				3	1.00	STM
5	*Register: Context of situation in text*	2	1			4	1.33	STM
6	*Lexico-grammar*		3			6	2.00	TM
7	*Mood*			3		9	3.00	M
8	*Finite*			3		9	3.00	M
9	*Residue*			3		9	3.00	M
10	*Adjunct*			3		9	3.00	M
11	*Modality*	2	1			4	1.33	STM
12	*Participants*			3		9	3.00	M
13	*Processes*			3		9	3.00	M
14	*Circumstances*			3		9	3.00	M
15	*Theme*		2	1		7	2.33	TM
16	*Rheme*		2	1		7	2.33	TM
17	*Clause complex*		2	1		7	2.33	TM
18	*Cohesion*		3			6	2.00	TM
19	*Field analysis*	2	1			4	1.33	STM
20	*Tenor* analysis	2	1			4	1.33	STM
21	*Mode analysis*	2	1			4	1.33	STM
22	*Text types*		2	1		7	2.33	TM
	TOTAL					137	2.07	TM

Ket: TA = Tidak Ada, TM = Tidak Memadai, M = Memadai, SM = Sangat Memadai

Berdasarkan pada fakta-fakta yang terdapat pada tabel diatas, dapat dinyatakan bahwa secara umum tingkat kelayakan materi ajar yang digunakan ditinjau dari aspek jenis latihan yang disajikan adalah **Tidak Memadai**. Dari dua puluh dua item yang dinilai, hanya tujuh item yang berada pada kategori Memadai. Item-item ini berada pada bagian latihan yang berkenaan dengan analisis MOOD/RESIDUE dan analisis TRANSITIVITY. Rerata ketujuh item ini sama, yaitu 3,00. Ini menunjukkan bahwa

materi ini sangat memperhatikan latihan yang berkenaan dengan analisis MOOD/RESIDUE dan latihan yang berkenaan dengan menentukan jenis partisipan, jenis proses, dan jenis sirkumstan.

Akan tetapi, sebagian besar, sekitar 68%, item-item yang dinilai masih berada pada kategori yang dianggap belum layak, yaitu delapan item berada pada ketegori Sangat Tidak Memadai dan tujuh item berada pada ketegori Tidak Memadai. Tiga item yang medapat rerata skor terendah atau berada pada kategori Sangat Tidak Memadai adalah *Formal and functional grammar, Functional grammar and language teaching,* dan *Genre: context of culture in text. Rerata ketiga item ini sama, yaitu 1,00.* Dengan demikian buku ini masih perlu dilengkapi dengan latihan-latihan yang dapat memperkaya pemahaman mahasiswa terhadap konsep Functional Grammar.

Dari Hasil analisis terhadap keempat komponen yang dibahas di atas, dapat disimpulkan bahwa materi ajar ini tidak cocok dengan kebutuhan mahasiswa Program Studi Pendidikan Bahasa dan Sastra Inggris. Oleh sebab itu, perlu dikembangkan materi baru atau penyesuaian materi yang sudah ada untuk memenuhi kebutuhan mahasiswa.

D. Model Pembelajaran Functional Grammar

Berdasarkan pada analisis terhadap silabus, strategi pembelajaran dan materi ajar yang digunakan dalam pembelajaran *Functional Grammar* dan hasil analisis kebutuhan mahasiswa, maka dikembangkan suatu model pembelajaran mata kuliah *Functional Grammar* yang cocok dengan kebutuhan mahasiswa. Model ini mencoba mengakomodasi kebutuhan mahasiswa dan dosen pengampu.

Model yang dikembangkan ini terdiri dari tiga komponen utama, yaitu silabus perkuliahan, strategi pembelajaran functional grammar, dan materi ajar. Uraian berikut ini mengupas secara detail tentang setiap komponen yang ada di dalam model.

1. Silabus

Silabus merupakan komponen yang sangat penting di dalam mengembangkan model pembelajaran secara sistematis. Silabus dikembangkan berdasarkan hasil analisis kebutuhan. Hasil anailisis kebutuhan ini dijabarkan ke dalam setiap komponen yang ada di dalam silabus. Komponen-komponen yang membentuk sebuah silabus mata kuliah bervariasi, tetapi sekurang-kurangnya silabus harus memuat informasi umum, deskripsi mata kuliah, standar kompetensi mata kuliah, kompetensi dasar mata kuliah, ragangan dasar perkuliahan, dan sistem penilaian.

Informasi umum berisi nama mata kuliah, SKS mata kuliah, hari dan jam pelaksanaan perkuliahan dan dosen pengampu mata kuliah. Deskripsi mata kuliah biasanya dikutip dari kurikulum yang dikembangkan oleh program studi sedangkan yang lainnya harus dikembangkan sendiri oleh dosen pengampu mata kuliah.

Silabus yang dikembangkan disini adalah silabus campur (mixed syllabus) karena silabus ini dikembangkan dari aktivitas menggabungkan prinsip-prinsip dasar yang berasal dari empat macam silabus yaitu silabus berbasis isi, silabus berbasis teks, silabus berbasis topik/tema dan silabus berbasis gramatika. Dengan demikian silabus ini memuat isi atau materi perkuliahan yang dibutuhkan, jenis-jenis teks yang diperlukan oleh mahasiswa, dan unsur-unsur leksikogramatika yang penting dikuasai oleh mahasiswa dalam membentuk teks tertentu.

Silabus campur dipilih berdasarkan temuan-temuan pada analisis kebutuhan dan analisis kondisi objektif. Pertama, hasil analisis kebutuhan menunjukkan bahwa peserta didik memerlukan jenis-jenis teks/genre sangat membantu pentelesaian tugas-tugas perkuliahan mereka dan juga membantu mereka nantinya sewaktu mengajar di sekolah menengah. Hal ini mengerah kepada penggunaan silabus berbasis teks. Kedua, kemampuan mahasiswa dalam memproduksi kalimat-kalimat dengan menggunakan leksikogramatika yang tepat masih rendah. Sebagain besar mereka masih bermasalah dalam penggunaan unsur-unsur gramatika tertentu. Denagn demikian, aspek-aspek leksikogramatika yang berkaitan langsung dan tidak langsung dengan teks yang akan ditulis perlu diajarkan kepada peserta didik sehingga unsur-unsur yang ada pada silabus struktural perlu digabungkan ke dalam silabus berbasis teks. Ketiga, peserta didik menginginkan topik-topik yang bervariasi agar mereka tidak bosan dan juga mendapat pengetahuan baru dari topik yang diangkat. Dengan demikian, dosen pengampu perlu mengatur topik-topik yang ditawarkan untuk setiap unit pembelajaran agar tidak terjadi pengulanagn topik pada unit yang berbeda. Akhirnya, silabus yang dihasilkan merupakan silabus yang menggabungkan beberapa unsur yang ada pada silabus berbasis isi, silabus berbasis teks, silabus struktural, dan silabus berbasis topik.

Komponen inti dari silabus itu sendiri adalah ragangan dasar perkuliahan selama satu semester. Ragangan ini terdiri dari beberapa unsur penting. Unsur pertama adalah beberapa kompetensi dasar yang dikembangkan dari standar kompetensi. Unsur yang kedua adalah indikator keberhasilan mahasiswa untuk setiap kompetensi dasar. Satu kompetensi dasar bisa saja memiliki lebih dari satu indikator keberhasilan. Unsur yang ketiga adalah pengalaman belajar mahasiswa yang dituangkan di dalam bentuk langkah-

langkah umum pembelajaran. Unsur yang keempat adalah gambaran umum tentang

materi ajar yang digunakan berdasarkan langkah-langkah pembelajaran. Unsur yang

terakhir adalah bentuk penilaian yang disiapkan untuk mengukur keberhasilan

mahasiswa.

Kesemua komponen yang dibahas di atas merupakan unsur penting di dalam

pengembangan silabus. Hubungan antar unsur yang ada dapat digambarkan sebagai

berikut:

Diagram 4.1
Komponen-Komponen Pembentuk Silabus
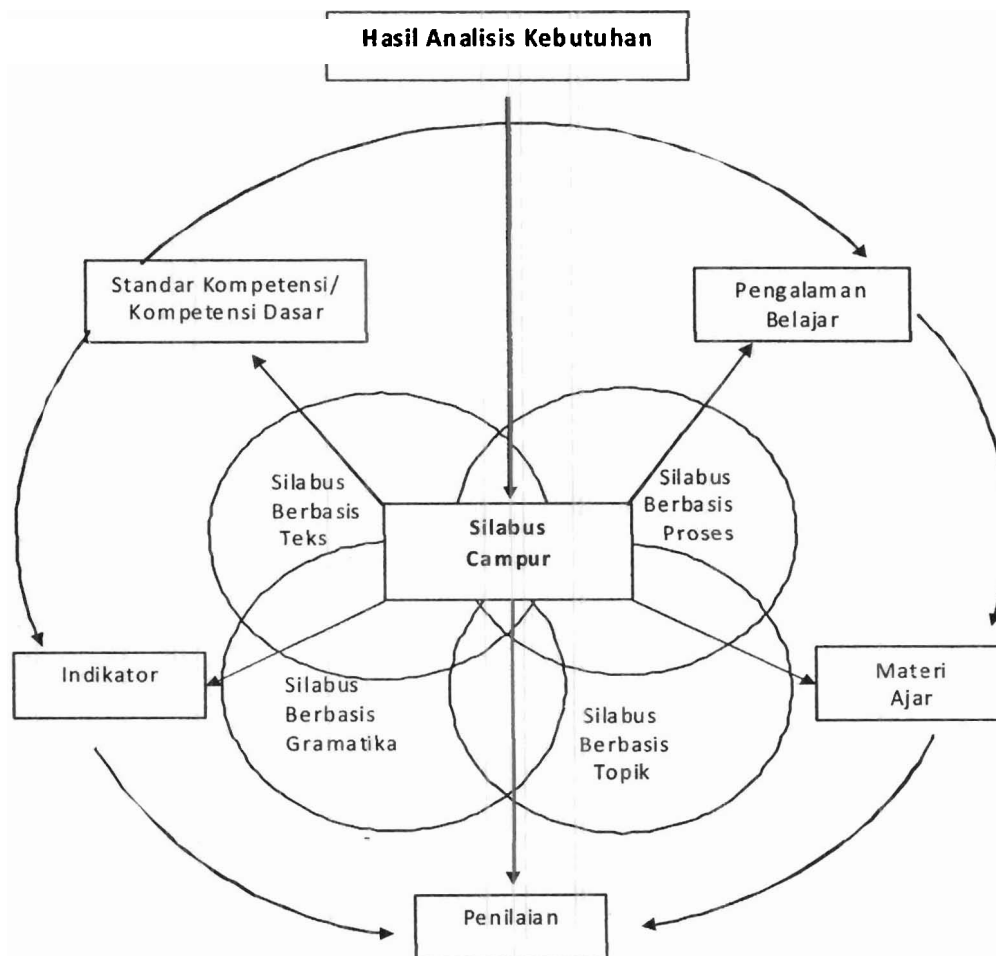
Salah satu komponen penting silabus adalah standar kompetensi dan kompetensi dasar mata kuliah *Functional Grammar*. Hasil analisis kebutuhan menunjukkan bahwa mahasiswa membutuhkan berbagai konsep dasar tentang Functional Grammar dan mereka juga mampu menggunakan Functional Grammar dalam menganalisis berbagai macam bentuk teks (genre). Dengan demikian standar kompetensi untuk mata kuliah ini adalah: Mahasiswa mampu memahami konsep-konsep dasar Functional Grammar dan mampu menggunakannya di dalam menganalisis berbagai macam teks (genre).

Kompetensi dasar yang dikembangkan dari standar kompetensi yang telah dirumuskan mencakup beberapa kompetensi tentang penguasaan berbagai konsep dasar Functional Grammar. Berdasarkan hasil analisis kebutuhan maka kompetensi dasar yang harus dimiliki mahasiswa yang berkenaan dengan berbagai konsep dasar Functional Grammar adalah:

- *The students are able to understand the grammar of experential meaning, and are able to use this grammar in analyzing various texts.*
- *The students are able to understand the grammar of interpersonal meaning, and are able to use this grammar in analyzing various texts.*
- *The students are able to understand the grammar of logical meaning, and are able to use this grammar in analyzing various texts.*
- *The students are able to understand the grammar of textual meaning, and are able to use this grammar in analyzing various texts.*
- *The students are able to understand the concept of nominal groups, and are able to use this concept in analyzing various texts.*
- *The students are able to understand the concepts of spoken and written language, and are able to use these concepts in analyzing various texts.*
- *The students are able to understand the concepts of cohesion, and are able to use these concepts in analyzing various texts.*

Unsur yang kedua adalah indikator keberhasilan mahasiswa untuk setiap kompetensi dasar. Unsur yang ketiga adalah pengalaman belajar mahasiswa yang

dituangkan di dalam bentuk langkah-langkah umum pembelajaran. Unsur yang keempat

adalah gambaran umum tentang materi ajar yang digunakan berdasarkan langkah-langkah

pembelajaran. Unsur yang terakhir adalah bentuk penilaian yang disiapkan untuk

mengukur keberhasilan mahasiswa.

Tabel berikut ini menggambarkan format silabus yang digunakan dan contoh satu

unit pembelajaran.

Tabel 4.14

Format Silabus dan Contoh Isi Dua Unit Pembelajaran

Week	Specific Competence	Indicators	Topics/ Materials	Learning Experiences	Assessment	Time allotment
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I	The Students are able to understand what Functional Grammar is	The students are able: - To understand the notions of grammar - To understand the ideas of traditional grammar - To understand the basic ideas of a functional grammar, - To understand Clauses and their constituent parts.	An Overview of A Functional Grammar	- Exploration - Explicit Instruction and reinforcement - Collaborative activities - Individual activities	- Group presentation - Text analysis	3 x 50 minutes
II	The Students are able to understand the concepts of the grammar of experiential meaning, and to use these conceps in analysing various texts	The Students are able: - To identify the types of porcess; - To identify the types of participants, - To identify the types of circumstances, - To analyze the types of pocess, participant, and circumstance in a text	The Grammar of Experientia l meaning	- Exploration - Modelling and reinforcement - Collaborative writing activities - Individual writing activities	- Group presentation - Text analysis	5 x 50 minutes

Tabel di atas menunjukkan bahwa terdapat satu kompetensi dasar yang harus

dicapai oleh peserta didik pada minggu pertama (kolom 2). Ketercapaian kompotensi

dasar ini dapat dilihat dari kemampuan peserta didik dalam mencapai target-target yang

menjadi indikor dari kompetensi dasar ini (kolom 3). Indikator target ini dapat dicapai

dengan materi ajar yang dikemukakan pada kolom selanjutnya (kolom 4). Agar materi

ajar dapat disampaikan dengan baik, dosen perlu melaksanakan langkah-langkah

pembelajaran yang sudah ditetapkan pada kolom 5. Hal-hal yang berkenaan dengan

penilaian ditempatkan pada kolom 6, sedang kan waktu yang disediakan untuk

menyampaikan materi ini terdapat pada kolom 7. Silabus lengkap dari perkuliahan

Functional Grammar ini dapat dilihat pada lampiran yang terdapat pada bagian belakang

dari laporan.

2. Strategi Pembelajaran

Strategi pembelajaran mata kuliah Functional Grammar untuk mahasiswa

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dikembangkan berdasarkan hasil analisis kebutuhan terhadap model pembelajaran dan

berdasarkan silabus yang sudah dikembangkan. Strategi pembelajaran yang

dikembangkan didasarkan teori dasar pembelajaran berbasis genre yang dikemukakan

oleh Martin (1995) dan Feez (1998) dan pada empat komponen materi pembelajaran

bahasa yang dikemukakan oleh Hutchinson dan Water yang meliputi masukan (*input*)

komponen kebahasaan (*language*) komponen isi (*content*) dan komponen aktivitas (*task*).

Diagram berikut ini menggambarkan prototipe strategi pembelajaran mata kuliah

Functional Grammar berdasarkan pendekatan pembelajaran bahasa berbasis genre.

Diagram 4.2
Prototipe Strategi Pembelajaran Functional Grammar

Context Exploration

1. The lecturer introduces the topic and ask some general questions about the topic.
2. The students read and try to understand a text that will be analyzed in the collaborative activities
3. The students answer the questions related to the text.

Explicit Instruction and Reinforcement

1. The students work in groups of four discussing the learning materials.
2. The students presents the result of the group discussion
3. The lecturer explains the problems that cannot be solved in the group discussion and explains some new concepts
4. The students do the exercises regarding the use of the concepts being learned.

Collaborative Activities

1. In the group of four, the students analyze the text provided by the lecturer.
2. The groups exchange the result of the analysis and correct the work of the other groups
3. The class discuss the result of the group analysis
4. Every group chooses their own text of the same genre and analyze the text

Individual Activities

1. Every student analyzes the text provided by the lecturer.
2. The students exchange the result of the analysis and correct the work of the other students.
3. The class discuss the result of the group analysis
4. Every student chooses his/her own text of the same genre and analyze the text.

3. Materi Ajar

Materi ajar ini berbentuk kompilasi berbagai materi yang disusun berdasarkan ragangan materi ajar yang dirumuskan.

Komponen-komponen materi ajar yang dikembangkan adalah materi yang digunakan di dalam kelas, atau yang lebih dikenal dengan classroom materials dan materi yang digunakan oleh mahasiswa di luar kelas (buku kerja).

Materi yang disusun terdiri dari 11 (sebelas) bab. Setiap pelajaran terdiri dari beberapa sub-bab dan latihan-latihan. Setiap bab juga terdiri dari satu sub-bab yang berkenaan dengan penerapan materi yang dibahas di dalam pembelajaran bahasa (Implication for language teaching).

Topik-topik yang diangkat dalam kegiatan materi ajar ini bervariasi. Tabel berikut ini menggambarkan topik-topik yang disajikan untuk setiap pelajaran:

Tabel 4.14
Topik-Topik untuk Setiap Pelajaran

No	Pelajaran	Topik
1	Chapter 1	An overview of functional grammar
2	Chapter 2	Introduction to Lexico-grammar
3	Chapter 3	The grammar of experiential meaning: Transitivity
4	Chapter 4	The grammar of interpersonal meaning: Mood
5	Chapter 5	The grammar of logical meaning: Clause Complex
6	Chapter 6	The Grammar of Textual meaning: Theme
7	Chapter 7	Groups and Phrases
8	Chapter 8	Spoken and Written Language
9	Chapter 9	Discourse semantics: cohesion and discourse
10	Chapter 10	Context of situation: Register
11	Chapter 11	Context of culture: Genre

Bab I dari materi ajar yang dikembangkan ini terdiri dari lima bagian, satu implikasi bagi pembelajaran bahasa dan latihan. Ragangan untuk Bab I ini adalah *(a) Notions of grammar, (b) Building on traditional grammar, (c) Toward a functional grammar, (d) Clauses and their constituent parts, (e) Implication for language teaching, dan (e) exercises.*Bab II yang berjudul *Introduction to Lexico-grammar* terdiri dari *(a) Introduction, (b) The demands we make of language, (c) Principles of grammatical analysis, (c) Descriptive grammar and the notion of 'appropriacy', (d) Implication for language teaching, dan (e) Exercises.*

Bab III yang berjudul *The grammar of experiential meaning: Transitivity* terdiri dari *(a) Introduction, (b) Modeling experience of change, (c) Material clauses, (d) Mental clauses, (e) Behavioral clauses, (f) Relational clauses, (g) Verbal clauses, (h) Other process types, (i) Circumstance elements, (j) Implication for language teaching,* dan *(k) Exercises.* Sedangkan Bab IV yang berjudul *The grammar of interpersonal meaning: Mood* terdiri dari *(a) The nature of dialog, (b) The Mood element, (c) Residue, (d) Mood types, (e) Adjuncts, (f) Polarity and modality, (g) Absence of elements of the modal structure, (h) Implication for language teaching,* dan *(i) Exercises.*

Bab V dengan judul *The grammar of logical meaning: Clause Complex'* terdiri dari *(a) The notion of clause complex, (b) Types and relationship between clauses, (c) Taxis, (d) Kinds of expansion, (e) Kinds of projection, (f) Implication for language teaching,* and *(g) Exercises.* Bab VI yang berjudul *'The Grammar of Textual meaning: Theme'* terdiri dari *(a) Theme and Rheme, (b) Group or phrase complexes as Theme, (c) Theme and Mood, (d) Types of Theme, (e) Marked Theme, (f) Thematic progression, (g) Implication for language teaching,* dan *(h) Exercises. Bab VII* dengan judul *'Groups and*

Phrases' terdiri dari (a) Groups and phrases, (b) Nominal Group, (c) Verbal group, (d) Adverbial group, conjunction group, preposition group, (e) Prepositional phrase, (f) Word classes and group function, (g) Implication for language teaching, dan *(h) Exercises.*

Bab VIII dengan judul *'Spoken and Written Language' terdiri dari (a) Spoken and written language and mode, (b) Differences between spoken and written language, (c) Implication for language teaching,* dan *(d) Exercises.* Bab IX yang berjudul *'Discourse semantics: cohesion and discourse'* terdiri dari *(a) The concept of text, (b) The lexicogrammatical resources of Cohesion, (c) Conjunction, (d) Reference, (e) Ellipsis and substitution, (f) Lexical cohesion, (g) The creation of texture, (h) Implication for language teaching,* dan *(i) Exercises.*

Bab X dengan judul *'Context of situation: Register'* terdiri dari *(a) Field analysis, (b) Tenor analysis, (c) Mode analysis, (d) Implication for language teaching,* dan *(e) Exercises.* Bab XI dengan judul *'Context of culture: Genre'* terdiri dari *(a) Genre, (b) Text Types, (c) The social function of a text, (d) The generic structure of a text, (e) The lexicogrammatical features of a text, (f) Implication for language teaching,* dan *(g) Exercises.*

Model lengkap dari materi ini terdapat pada lampiran khusus yang terpisah dari laporan penelitian ini.

BAB V

KESIMPULAN, KETERBATASAN PENELITIAN DAN REKOMENDASI

A. Kesimpulan

Berdasarkan hasil penelitian yang dikemukakan pada BAB IV, kesimpulan yang dapat dikemukakan adalah bahwa model pembelajaran mata kuliah *Functional Grammar* bagi mahasiswa Program Studi Pendidikan Bahasa dan Sastra Inggris Universitas Negeri Padang yang tepat adalah model yang desainnya menarik, sesuai dengan kebutuhan mahasiswa dan dosen, dan didukung oleh kemajuan teknologi. Model tersebut mencakup tiga komponen utama pembelajaran, yaitu (a) silabus perkuliahan, (b) prototipe strategi pembelajaran, dan (c) materi ajar untuk digunakan di dalam kelas (student material). Setiap bab dari materi yang dikembangkan mencakup penjelasan konsep dan contoh-contoh, implikasi di dalam pembelajaran bahasa, dan latihan-latihan.

B. Keterbatasan Penelitian

Penelitian ini baru tebatas pada tiga tahapan dari lima tahapan utama penelitian pengembangan. Penelitian ini baru melaksanakan tahapan analisis kelayakan model pembelajaran yang ada, analisis kebutuhan mahasiswa dan dosen, dan pengembangan model pembelajaran berdasarkan analisis dokumen dan analisis kebutuhan dan dikung oleh teori-teori terkini tentang *Functional Grammar* dan pengembangan materi ajar bahasa. Hal-hal yang belum dicakup dalam penelitian ini adalah pelaksanaan uji pakar terhadap materi yang baru saja dikembangkan dan uji coba lapangan untuk melihat efektivitas model pembelajaran dalam meningkatkan kemampuan mahasiswa. Karena

semua langkah penelitian pengembangan belum dilaksanakan, maka model pembelajaran ini baru bersifat draf awal yang perlu dikaji ulang lewat penilaian pakar dan uji lapangan.

C. Rekomendasi

Berdasarkan simpulan dan keterbatasan penelitian yang dikemukakan di atas, terdapat dua hal yang perlu direkomendasikan untuk penelitian selanjutnya. Pertama, penelitian evaluasi yang berupa uji para pakar terhadap model pembelajaran yang baru saja dikembangkan sangat perlu dilakukan. Hal ini untuk melihat apakah model pembelajaran ini betul-betul layak dari sudut pandang peneliaian pakar. Kedua, yang lebih penting lagi adalah serangkaian penelitian uji coba lapangan untuk melihat efektivitas model pembelajaran ini sangat perlu dilaksanakan. Uji coba ini mencakup uji coba perorangan, uji coba kelompok, dan uji coba kelas. Uji coba kelas dapat dilakukan dengan menggunakan desain penelitian eksperimen, dengan membandingkan model pembelajaran yang lama dengan model pembelajaran yang baru saja dikembangkan. Jika semua langkah penelitian pengembangan ini sudah terlaksana, barulah dapat diperoleh draf akhir dari sebuah model pembelajaran.

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LAMPIRAN 1:
INSTRUMEN YANG DIGUNAKAN DI DALAM PENELITIAN

INSTRUMEN I:

FORMAT PENILAIAN KELAYAKAN MATERI AJAR
FUNCTIONAL GRAMMAR
(Diisi oleh Dosen Pengampu Mata Kuliah *Functional Grammar*)

Data Reviewer

Nama   : _____

NIP   : _____

Kualifikasi Pendidikan   _____

Petunjuk:
1. Penilaian yang Saudara berikan akan sangat bermanfaat untuk memperbaiki model pembelajaran mata kuliah *Functional Grammar*.
2. Penilaian yang Saudara berikan akan dijaga kerahasiaannya, karena itu berikanlah penilaian seobjektif mungkin sehingga dapat diperoleh masukan yang akurat.
3. Berikan tanda centang (v) pada kolom yang ada sesuai dengan penilaian Saudara. Contoh:

No	Item yang Dinilai	Tidak Ada	Tidak Memadai	Memadai	Sangat Memadai
1	Penjelasan tentang tujuan umum pembelajaran *Functional Grammar*			v	

4. Jika Saudara merasa perlu memberikan penilaian atau komentar tambahan, silahkan Saudara tuliskan pada kolom yang sudah disediakan
5. Terimakasih atas bantuan dan kerjasama Saudara.

A. Tujuan dan Pendekatan

No	Item yang Dinilai	Tidak Ada	Tidak Memadai	Memadai	Sangat Memadai
1	Penjelasan tentang tujuan umum pembelajaran *Functional Grammar*				
2	Penjelasan tentang tujuan khusus pembelajaran *Functional Grammar* untuk setiap unit pembelajaran				
3	Penjelasan tentang pendekatan pembelajaran yang dianut				
4	Penjelasan tentang cakupan materi ajar				
5	Penjelasan tentang kemampuan awal mahasiswa yang disyaratkan				
6	Penjelasan tentang tingkat keterlibatan mahasiswa yang disyaratkan				
7	Penjelasan tentang teknik-teknik yang digunakan di dalam menyajikan gagasan				
8	Kecocokan antara pendekatan yang digunakan di dalam materi ajar dengan pendekatan yang dianut institusi				
9	Kecocokan antara tujuan pembelajaran di dalam materi ajar dengan tujuan yang ingin dicapai oleh matu kuliah, program studi, dan institusi				

Jika Saudara merasa bahwa ada beberapa penjelasan lainnya yang berkaitan dengan penilaian Saudara terhadap tujuan dan pendekatan, silahkan Saudara tuliskan pada kolom yang tersedia di bawah ini:

_____

_____

_____

_____

B. Desain dan Organisasi Materi Ajar

No	Item yang Dinilai	Tidak Ada	Tidak Memadai	Memadai	Sangat Memadai
1	Penjelasan tentang bagaimana materi disusun				
2	Pengurutan materi berdasarkan tingkat kesulitan materi				
3	Keluwesan urutan unit, materi bacaan, dan aktivitas-aktivitas belajar terhadap perubahan silabus dan kebutuhan mahasiswa				
4	Kecocokan komponen materi ajar dengan gaya belajar yang beragam				
5	Kebaharuan materi ajar ditinjau dari aspek perkembangan teori *Functional Grammar* dan perkembangan ilmu pengetahuan dan teknologi				
6	Penggunaan gambar atau media visual lainnya				
7	Penggunaan media audio				
8	Penggunaan multimedia				
9	Pedoman bagi pengajar				
10	Buku kerja mahasiswa				

Jika Saudara merasa bahwa ada beberapa penjelasan lainnya yang berkaitan dengan penilaian Saudara terhadap desain dan organisasi materi ajar, silahkan Saudara tuliskan pada kolom yang tersedia di bawah ini:

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

C. Jenis Informasi yang Disajikan (Input)

Bagaimanakah penilaian anda terhadap penjelasan dan contoh-contoh yang berkaitan dengan topic-topik berikut ini:

No	Item yang Dinilai	Tidak Ada	Tidak Memadai	Memadai	Sangat Memadai
1	*Formal and functional grammar*				
2	*Functional grammar and language teaching*				
3	*What is a text?*				
4	*Genre: context of culture in text*				
5	*Register: Context of situation in text*				
6	*Lexico-grammar*				
7	*Mood*				
8	*Finite*				
9	*Residue*				
10	*Adjunct*				
11	*Modality*				
12	*Participants*				
13	*Processes*				
14	*Circumstances*				
15	*Theme*				
16	*Rheme*				
17	*Clause complex*				
18	*Cohesion*				
19	*Field analysis*				
20	*Tenor* analysis				
21	*Mode analysis*				
22	*Text types*				
22					

Jika Saudara merasa bahwa ada beberapa komentar lainnya yang perlu ditambahkan, silahkan Saudara tuliskan pada kolom yang tersedia di bawah ini

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D. Latihan-Latihan yang disajikan

Bagaimanakah penilaian anda terhadap latihan-latihan atau tugas-tugas yang berkaitan dengan topik-topik berikut ini:

No	Item yang Dinilai	Tidak Ada	Tidak Memadai	Memadai	Sangat Memadai
1	*Formal and functional grammar*				
2	*Functional grammar and language teaching*				
3	*What is a text?*				
4	*Genre: context of culture in text*				
5	*Register: Context of situation in text*				
6	*Lexico-grammar*				
7	*Mood*				
8	*Finite*				
9	*Residue*				
10	*Adjunct*				
11	*Modality*				
12	*Participants*				
13	*Processes*				
14	*Circumstances*				
15	*Theme*				
16	*Rheme*				
17	*Clause complex*				
18	*Cohesion*				
19	*Field analysis*				
20	*Tenor* analysis				
21	*Mode analysis*				
22	*Text types*				

Jika Saudara merasa bahwa ada beberapa komentar lainnya yang perlu ditambahkan, silahkan Saudara tuliskan pada kolom yang tersedia di bawah ini

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INSTRUMEN II:

KUESIONER
ANALISIS KEBUTUHAN MAHASISWA TERHADAP MODEL
PEMBELAJARAN *FUNCTIONAL GRAMMAR*
(Diisi oleh Mahasiswa)

Data Responden

Nama   _____

NIM   _____

Semester   _____

Petunjuk:
1. Jawaban yang saudara berikan pada kuesioner ini akan sangat bermanfaat untuk memperbaiki model pembelajaran *Functional Grammar*.
2. Jawaban yang Saudara berikan akan dijaga kerahasiaannya, karena itu berikanlah jawaban yang seobjektif mungkin sehingga dapat diperoleh masukan yang akurat.
3. Berikan tanda centang (√) pada kolom yang ada sesuai dengan pendapat Saudara.

No	Item	Hampir Tidak Pernah	Kadang Kadang	Sering	Sangat Sering
1	*Formal and functional grammar*		√		

4. Terimakasih atas bantuan dan kerjasama Saudara.

A. Masalah dalam memahami penejelasan konsep dan contoh

Seberapa seringkah Saudara mengalami masalah dalam memahami penjelasan dan contoh-contoh yang berkaitan dengan topik-topik berikut ini?:

No	Item	Hampir Tidak Pernah	Kadang Kadang	Sering	Sangat Sering
1	*Formal and functional grammar*				
2	*Functional grammar and language teaching*				
3	*What is a text?*				
4	*Genre: context of culture in text*				
5	*Register: Context of situation in text*				
6	*Lexico-grammar*				
7	*Mood*				
8	*Finite*				
9	*Residue*				
10	*Adjunct*				
11	*Modality*				
12	*Participants*				
13	*Processes*				
14	*Circumstances*				
15	*Theme*				
16	*Rheme*				
17	*Clause complex*				
18	*Cohesion*				
19	*Field analysis*				
20	*Tenor* analysis				
21	*Mode analysis*				
22	*Text types*				

Jika Saudara merasa bahwa ada beberapa masalah lain yang Saudara alami di dalam memahami penjelasan dan contoh yang ada, silahkan Saudara tuliskan pada kolom yang tersedia di bawah ini:

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B. Masalah dalam mengerjakan latihan dan tugas

Seberapa seringkah Saudara mengalami masalah dalam mengerjakan latihan dan tugas yang berkaitan dengan topic-topik berikut ini?:

No	Item	Hampir Tidak Pernah	Kadang Kadang	Sering	Sangat Sering
1	*Formal and functional grammar*				
2	*Functional grammar and language teaching*				
3	*What is a text?*				
4	*Genre: context of culture in text*				
5	*Register: Context of situation in text*				
6	*Lexico-grammar*				
7	*Mood*				
8	*Finite*				
9	*Residue*				
10	*Adjunct*				
11	*Modality*				
12	*Participants*				
13	*Processes*				
14	*Circumstances*				
15	*Theme*				
16	*Rheme*				
17	*Clause complex*				
18	*Cohesion*				
19	*Field analysis*				
20	*Tenor* analysis				
21	*Mode analysis*				
22	*Text types*				

Jika Saudara merasa bahwa ada beberapa masalah lain yang Saudara alami di dalam mengerjakan latihan/tugas, silahkan Saudara tuliskan pada kolom yang tersedia di bawah ini:

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C. Pilih 5 (lima) dari masalah-masalah berikut ini yang paling sering Saudara alami! Lingkari nomor pilihan Saudara!

1. Saya mendapat kesulitan dalam memahami penjelasan konsep karena kerumitan bahasa yang digunakan
2. Saya mendapat kesulitan dalam memhami penjelasan konsep karena penyajiannya yang bertele-tele
3. Saya mendapat kesulitan dalam memhami penjelasan konsep karena saya tidak mempunyai pengetahuan latar yang memadai
4. Saya mendapat kesulitan dalam memhami penjelasan konsep karena penyajiannya yang tidak lengkap
5. Saya mendapat kesulitan dalam memhami penjelasan konsep karena tidak disertai dengan contoh yang mudah dipahami
6. Saya mendapat kesulitan dalam memhami penjelasan konsep karena penyajiannya yang tidak disertai dengan ilustrasi atau bagan
7. Saya mendapat kesulitan dalam memhami penjelasan konsep karena penyajiannya tidak bersifat multimedia
8. Saya mendapat kesulitan dalam mengerjakan latihan-latihan karena kerumitan bahasan yang digunakan
9. Saya mendapat kesulitan dalam mengerjakan latihan-latihan yang diberikan karena tidak sesuai dengan penjelasan dan contoh yang diberikan
10. Saya mendapat kesulitan dalam mengerjakan latihan-latihan karena tidak disertai dengan contoh cara mengerjakan latihan-latihannya

D. Pentingnya Topik yang beragam
Seberapa pentingkah informasi dan contoh-contoh yang berkaitan dengan topik-topik berikut ini berikut ini bagi Saudara?

	Jenis Informasi	Tidak perlu	Tidak begitu perlu	Perlu	Sangat perlu
1	*Formal and functional grammar*				
2	*Functional grammar and language teaching*				
3	*What is a text?*				
4	*Genre: context of culture in text*				
5	*Register: Context of situation in text*				
6	*Lexico-grammar*				
7	*Mood*				
8	*Finite*				
9	*Residue*				
10	*Adjunct*				
11	*Modality*				
12	*Participants*				

13	Processes				
14	Circumstances				
15	Theme				
16	Rheme				
17	Clause complex				
18	Cohesion				
19	Field analysis				
20	Tenor analysis				
21	Mode analysis				
22	Text types				

Jika Saudara merasa bahwa ada beberapa penjelasan lainnya yang menurut Saudara perlu dimasukkan ke dalam model pembelajaran ini, silahkan Saudara tuliskan pada kolom yang tersedia di bawah ini:

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E. Pentingnya latihan/tugas yang beragam

Seberapa pentingkah latihan/tugas yang berkaitan dengan topic-topik berikut ini berikut ini bagi Saudara?

No	Topik	Tidak perlu	Tidak begitu perlu	Perlu	Sangat perlu
1	Formal and functional grammar				
2	Functional grammar and language teaching				
3	What is a text?				
4	Genre: context of culture in text				
5	Register: Context of situation in text				
6	Lexico-grammar				
7	Mood				
8	Finite				
9	Residue				

10	*Adjunct*				
11	*Modality*				
12	*Participants*				
13	*Processes*				
14	*Circumstances*				
15	*Theme*				
16	*Rheme*				
17	*Clause complex*				
18	*Cohesion*				
19	*Field analysis*				
20	*Tenor* analysis				
21	*Mode analysis*				
22	*Text types*				

Jika Saudara merasa bahwa ada beberapa jenis teks lainnya yang menurut Saudara perlu dimasukkan ke dalam model pembelajaran ini, silahkan Saudara tuliskan pada kolom yang tersedia di bawah ini:

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F. Jenis Media yang digunakan dalam penyampaian materi ajar
Seberapa pentingkah hal-hal berikut ini bagi Saudara?

No	Item	Tidak perlu	Tidak begitu perlu	Perlu	Sangat perlu
1	Materi ajar yang disampaikan secara tertulis dalam bentuk buku ajar				
2	Materi ajar yang disampaikan secara lisan dalam bentuk rekaman audio				
3	Materi ajar yang disampaikan secara digital dalam bentuk presentasi power-point				

4	Materi ajar yang disampaikan secara lisan dalam bentuk rekaman audio-visual				
5	Materi ajar yang disampaikan secara secara digital dalam bentuk bahan ajar berbasis multimedia interaktif				
6	Latihan/tugas yang disajikan secara tertulis				
7	Latihan/tugasyang disajikan secara lisan dalam bentuk rekaman audio				
8	Latihan/tugas yang disampaikan secara lisan dalam bentuk rekaman audio visual				
9	Latihan/tugas yang disampaikan secara digital dalam bentuk presentasi power-point				
10	Latihan/tugas yang disampaikan secara digital yang berbasis multimedia interaktif				

Jika Saudara merasa bahwa ada beberapa hal lain yang menurut Saudara perlu dimasukkan, silahkan Saudara tuliskan pada kolom yang tersedia di bawah ini:

_____

_____

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_____

LAMPIRAN II

Tanggapan Responden terhadap Masalah Dalam Memahami Penjelasan Konsep dan Contoh

NO	Item	Hampir Tidak Pernah	Kadang Kadang	Sering	Sangat Sering
1	*Formal and functional grammar*	9	64	38	2
2	*Functional grammar and language teaching*	6	63	42	2
3	*What is a text?*	28	73	12	0
4	*Genre: context of culture in text*	14	72	25	2
5	*Register: Context of situation in text*	11	67	31	4
6	*Lexico-grammar*	6	45	52	10
7	*Mood*	35	50	26	2
8	*Finite*	44	50	17	2
9	*Residue*	39	48	24	2
10	*Adjunct*	18	63	28	4
11	*Modality*	33	55	23	2
12	*Participants*	21	66	24	2
13	*Processes*	13	66	33	1
14	*Circumstances*	18	53	38	4
15	*Theme*	27	60	23	3
16	*Rheme*	26	59	27	1
17	*Clause complex*	23	52	31	7
18	*Cohesion*	4	35	68	6
19	*Field analysis*	9	40	57	7
20	*Tenor* analysis	3	47	58	5
21	*Mode analysis*	4	47	55	7
22	*Text types*	11	76	24	2
JUMLAH		402	1251	756	77

LAMPIRAN III

Tanggapan Responden terhadap Masalah Dalam Mengerjakan Latihan dan Tugas

NO		Hampir Tidak Pernah	Kadang Kadang	Sering	Sangat Sering
1	*Formal and functional grammar*	6	63	42	2
2	*Functional grammar and language teaching*	15	58	38	2
3	*What is a text?*	15	68	30	0
4	*Genre: context of culture in text*	6	65	41	1
5	*Register: Context of situation in text*	5	64	41	3
6	*Lexico-grammar*	16	46	43	8
7	*Mood*	33	58	20	2
8	*Finite*	39	50	21	3
9	*Residue*	32	50	29	2
10	*Adjunct*	20	57	31	5
11	*Modality*	24	62	26	1
12	*Participants*	17	66	28	2
13	*Processes*	16	57	38	2
14	*Circumstances*	17	58	37	1
15	*Theme*	28	63	19	3
16	*Rheme*	22	58	26	7
17	*Clause complex*	7	42	56	8
18	*Cohesion*	1	42	65	5
19	*Field analysis*	3	39	65	6
20	*Tenor* analysis	1	51	55	6
21	*Mode analysis*	6	45	58	4
22	*Text types*	6	46	57	4
Jumlah		335	1208	866	77

LAMPIRAN IV
Distribusi Pilihan Responden terhadap 5 Masalah yang Paling Sering dialami

NO	MASALAH										JUMLAH
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	
1	1	1	1						1		4
2	1	1	1							1	4
3	1				1			1	1	1	5
4		1	1		1			1		1	5
5	1		1		1			1	1		5
6			1						1		2
7	1		1		1			1	1		5
8											0
9	1	1					1		1	1	5
10											0
11	1		1	1					1	1	5
12		1	1				1	1		1	5
13	1							1	1	1	4
14		1		1	1				1	1	5
15	1			1	1		1		1		5
16	1	1	1			1	1				5
17	1		1	1	1	1					5
18	1		1		1			1	1		5
19	1		1		1			1	1		5
20	1			1		1	1	1			5
21	1		1				1	1	1		5
22	1		1	1				1	1		5
23			1	1		1	1	1			5
24	1	1				1		1	1		5
25			1			1	1			1	4
26	1		1		1			1	1		5
27	1	1		1	1			1			5
28										1	1
29	1		1			1		1	1		5
30	1	1	1					1	1		5
31	1	2			1	1				1	6
32		1	1	1				1	1		5
33	1		1			1	1	1			5
34											0
35	1		1		1	1		1			5

36	1	1			1		1	1			5
37	1	1			1		1	1			5
38	1	1			1	1				1	5
39	1		1		1	1		1			5
40	1		1		1	1		1			5
41											0
42	1		1			1		1	1		5
43	1	1			1	1				1	5
44			1								1
45	1		1	1				1	1		5
46	1		1		1	1		1			5
47	1		1		1			1	1		5
48											0
49											0
50	1		1		1	1		1			5
51									1		1
52			1						1		2
53	1		1	1					1	1	5
54	1	1	1		1			1			5
55	1				1	1			1	1	5
56			1	1		1		1			4
57				1	1	1			1	1	5
58	1		1	1		1				1	5
59	1			1	1	1	1				5
60		1	1			1			1	1	5
61			1				1	1	1	1	5
62	1	1	1					1	1		5
63											0
64	1		1					1	1	1	5
65			1		1			1			3
66	1		1		1			1	1		5
67	1		1	1	1			1			5
68	1		1		1	1		1			5
69	1		1		1	1		1			5
70											0
71	1		-		1				1	1	4
72			1	1		1	1			1	5
73	1	1	1		1			1			5
74	1			1		1		1	1		5
75											0

No	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Jumlah
76			1	1	1	1				1	5
77											0
78			1			1	1	1		1	5
79											0
80	1		1				1	1			4
81		1		1	1		1	1			5
82				1	1	1	1			1	5
83	1		1				1	1	1		5
84			1		1		1	1	1		5
85	1		1		1		1	1			5
86											0
87				1	1	1		1			4
88	1		1	1					1	1	5
89											0
90	1							1	1		3
91	1		1			1		1		1	5
92			1		1			1	1	1	5
93							1				1
94			1								1
95	1			1	1	1					4
96	1		1			1		1			4
97			1			1			1	1	4
98	1		1			1	1		1		5
99	1				1			1	1		4
100	1		1		1				1	1	5
101		1		1				1	1		4
102		1					1	1	1	1	5
103			1								1
104	1		1			1	1	1			5
105	1		1		1	1			1		5
106			1								1
107							1				1
108	1			1	1			1	1		5
109		1					1	1	1	1	5
110			1	1		1	1	1			5
111				-							0
112							1				1
113	1				1		1		1	1	5
JUMLAH	64	25	65	27	46	39	28	59	50	34	

Keterangan:

1. Saya mendapat kesulitan dalam memahami penjelasan konsep karena kerumitan bahasa yang digunakan
2. Saya mendapat kesulitan dalam memhami penjelasan konsep karena penyajiannya yang bertele-tele
3. Saya mendapat kesulitan dalam memhami penjelasan konsep karena saya tidak mempunyai pengetahuan latar yang memadai
4. Saya mendapat kesulitan dalam memhami penjelasan konsep karena penyajiannya yang tidak lengkap
5. Saya mendapat kesulitan dalam memhami penjelasan konsep karena tidak disertai dengan contoh yang mudah dipahami
6. Saya mendapat kesulitan dalam memhami penjelasan konsep karena penyajiannya yang tidak disertai dengan ilustrasi atau bagan
7. Saya mendapat kesulitan dalam memhami penjelasan konsep karena penyajiannya tidak bersifat multimedia
8. Saya mendapat kesulitan dalam mengerjakan latihan-latihan karena kerumitan bahasan yang digunakan
9. Saya mendapat kesulitan dalam mengerjakan latihan-latihan yang diberikan karena tidak sesuai dengan penjelasan dan contoh yang diberikan
10. Saya mendapat kesulitan dalam mengerjakan latihan-latihan karena tidak disertai dengan contoh cara mengerjakan latihan-latihannya

LAMPIRAN V

Distribusi Tanggapan Responden terhadap Pentingnya Topik yang Beragam

NO	Item	Tidak Perlu	Tidak Begitu Perlu	Perlu	Sangat Perlu
1	*Formal and functional grammar*	0	11	70	32
2	*Functional grammar and language teaching*	0	12	60	41
3	*What is a text?*	5	15	67	26
4	*Genre: context of culture in text*	0	11	68	34
5	*Register: Context of situation in text*	1	9	64	39
6	*Lexico-grammar*	2	4	63	44
7	*Mood*	2	14	57	40
8	*Finite*	2	17	50	44
9	*Residue*	2	13	60	38
10	*Adjunct*	2	11	54	46
11	*Modality*	1	8	56	48
12	*Participants*	2	9	55	47
13	*Processes*	3	10	53	47
14	*Circumstances*	1	19	50	43
15	*Theme*	3	15	63	32
16	*Rheme*	2	16	63	32
17	*Clause complex*	1	8	47	57
18	*Cohesion*	1	12	51	49
19	*Field analysis*	1	13	50	49
20	*Tenor* analysis	0	15	45	53
21	*Mode analysis*	1	11	51	50
22	*Text types*	2	11	46	54
Jumlah		34	264	1243	945

LAMPIRAN VI

Distribusi Tanggapan Responden terhadap Pentingnya Latihan/Tugas yang Beragam

NO	Item	Tidak Perlu	Tidak Begitu Perlu	Perlu	Sangat Perlu
1	*Formal and functional grammar*	2	13	62	36
2	*Functional grammar and language teaching*	1	16	57	39
3	*What is a text?*	2	24	58	29
4	*Genre: context of culture in text*	0	13	65	35
5	*Register: Context of situation in text*	0	24	68	21
6	*Lexico-grammar*	3	4	64	42
7	*Mood*	2	11	56	44
8	*Finite*	1	15	52	45
9	*Residue*	1	10	56	46
10	*Adjunct*	0	10	49	54
11	*Modality*	0	11	50	52
12	*Participants*	3	6	55	49
13	*Processes*	1	9	46	57
14	*Circumstances*	1	11	47	54
15	*Theme*	1	9	55	48
16	*Rheme*	1	9	55	48
17	*Clause complex*	0	3	48	62
18	*Cohesion*	0	5	53	55
19	*Field analysis*	0	11	45	57
20	*Tenor* analysis	0	10	48	55
21	*Mode analysis*	0	8	49	56
22	*Text types*	0	10	51	52
JUMLAH		19	242	1189	1036

LAMPIRAN VII

Distribusi Tanggapan Responden terhadap Jenis Media yang Digunakan dalam Penyampaian Materi Ajar

NO	Item	Tidak Perlu	Tidak Begitu Perlu	Perlu	Sangat Perlu
1	Materi ajar yang disampaikan secara tertulis dalam bentuk buku ajar	6	19	55	33
2	Materi ajar yang disampaikan secara lisan dalam bentuk rekaman audio	16	42	38	17
3	Materi ajar yang disampaikan secara digital dalam bentuk presentasi power-point	4	29	54	26
4	Materi ajar yang disampaikan secara lisan dalam bentuk rekaman audio-visual	5	32	56	20
5	Materi ajar yang disampaikan secara secara digital dalam bentuk bahan ajar berbasis multimedia interaktif	5	21	54	33
6	Latihan/tugas yang disajikan secara tertulis	5	23	53	32
7	Latihan/tugasyang disajikan secara lisan dalam bentuk rekaman audio	15	51	36	11
8	Latihan/tugas yang disampaikan secara lisan dalam bentuk rekaman audio visual	10	46	45	12
9	Latihan/tugas yang disampaikan secara digital dalam bentuk presentasi power-point	9	37	50	17
10	Latihan/tugas yang disampaikan secara digital yang berbasis multimedia interaktif	8	38	49	18
JUMLAH		83	338	490	219

LAMPIRAN VIII

Syllabus

A. General Information

Faculty : Languages and Arts

Departmeht : English Language and Literature

Study Program : English Language Teaching

Course Name : **Functional Grammar**

Credit : 2 (two)

B. Course Description

This course introduces the students to the theories of Functional Grammar and its application in analysing texts.

C. General Competence

The students are able to understand the concepts of Functional Grammar and are able to use their knowledge of Functional Grammar in analysing English texts.

D. Course Outline

Week	Specific Competence	Indicators	Topics/ Materials	Learning Experiences	Assessment	Time allotme nt
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I	The Students are able to understand what Functional Grammar is	The students are able: - To understand the notions of grammar - To understand the ideas of traditional grammar - To understand the basic ideas of a functional grammar,	An Overview of A Functional Grammar	- Exploration - Explicit Instruction and reinforcement - Collaborative activities - Individual	- Group presentation - Text analysis	3 x 50 minutes

		- To understand Clauses and their constituent parts.		activities		
II-IV	The Students are able to understand the concepts of the grammar of experiential meaning, and to use these conceps in analysing various texts	The Students are able: - To identify the types of porcess; - To identify the types of participants, - To identify the types of circumstances, - To analyze the types of pocess, participant, and circumstance in a text	The Grammar of Experiential meaning	- Exploration - Modelling and reinforcement - Collaborative writing activities - Individual writing activities	- Group presentation - Text analysis	5 x 50 minutes
V-VI	*The students are able to understand the grammar of interpersonal meaning, and are able to use this grammar in analyzing various texts.*	The students are able to: - Identify metalanguage for Discussing Language as Interaction - Identify and understand the Mood Element - Identify and understand Residue - Identify and understand Mood Types - Identify and understand Modality	The Grammar of Interpersonal Meaning	- Exploration - Modelling and reinforcement - Collaborative writing activities - Individual writing activities	- Group presentation - Text analysis	4 x 50 minutes
VII-VIII	*The students are able to understand the grammar of logical meaning, and are able to use this grammar in analyzing*	- Clause - Introduction to Clause Complex - The Structure and Systems of Clause Complex - The Basic Opposition: Projection vs. Expansion - Analysis of Clause	The Grammar of Logical Meaning	- Exploration - Modelling and reinforcement - Collaborative writing activities - Individual writing activities	- Group presentation - Text analysis	4 x 50 minutes

No	Learning Objective	Topic	Sub-topic	Learning Activities	Assessment	Time
IX	*various texts.*	Complexes		•	-	2 x 50 minutes
X-XI	*The students are able to understand the grammar of textual meaning, and are able to use this grammar in analyzing various texts.*	**Mid Semester Test** - THEME/RHEME: The System - Types of Themes - THEME and MOOD - Patterns of Theme Choi	Th Grammar of textual Meaning	- Exploration - Modelling and reinforcement - Collaborative writing activities - Individual writing activities	- Group presentation - Text analysis	4 x 50 minutes
XII	*The students are able to understand the concept of nominal groups, and are able to use this concept in analyzing various texts.*	- Nominal Group Structure - Nominalization and Grammatical Metaphor	Nominal groups	- Exploration - Modelling and reinforcement - Collaborative writing activities - Individual writing activities	- Group presentation - Text analysis	2 x 50 minutes
XIII	*The students are able to understand the concepts of spoken and written language and are able to use these concepts in analyzing various texts.*	- Spoken and written language and mode - Spoken and Written Language Differences	Spoken and written Language	- Exploration - Modelling and reinforcement - Collaborative writing activities - Individual writing activities	- Group presentation - Text analysis	2 x 50 minutes
XIV	*The students are*	- Cohesion	Cohesion	- Exploration	- Group	

	able to understand the concepts of cohesion, and are able to use these concepts in analyzing various texts.	- Conjunction		- Modelling and reinforcement - Collaborative writing activities - Individual writing activities	presentation - Text analysis
XV	-	- Interpreting Context - From Lexicogrammatical Analysis to Contextual Description	Exploring Context	- Exploration - Modelling and reinforcement - Collaborative writing activities - Individual writing activities	- Group presentation - Text analysis
XVI		- Texture - Text Structure - An Exploration of Text Types	Exploring Text	- Exploration - Modelling and reinforcement - Collaborative writing activities - Individual writing activities	- Group presentation - Text analysis

E. Evaluation Criteria

The students' final grade is based on the following components:

1. Summary writing   15%
2. Assignments   10%
3. Quiz   20%
4. Midterm test   25%
5. Final test   30%

F. References

1. Martin, J. R., Christian M I M Matthiessen and Clare Painter. 1997. *Working with Functional Grammar*. London: Arnold
2. Gerot, Linda and Peter Wignell. 1994. *Making Sense of Functional Grammar: An Introductory Workbook.* Sydney: Antipodean Educational Enterprises·
3. Eggins, Suzanne. 2004. *An Introduction to Systemic Functional Linguistics (2nd edition)*. New York: Continuum
4. Halliday, M. A. K. dan C. M. I. M. Matthiessen. 2004. *An Introduction to Functional Grammar (3rd Edition)*. London: Edward Arnold
5. Martin, James R. 1992. *English Text: System and Structures*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Company

LAMPIRAN IX
STRATEGI PEMBELAJARAN

SATUAN ACARA PEMBELAJARAN
(SAP)

Nama Bahan Kajian   : Functional Grammar   SKS   : 2 (dua)
Program Studi   : Pendidikan Bahasa san Sastra Inggris   Kode   :
Pertemuan Ke-   : I
Dosen   : Dr. Refnaldi, M.Litt

Learning Outcome (Capaian Pembelajaran) Mata Kuliah Terkait KKNI

The students are able to understand the concepts of Functional Grammar and are able to use their knowledge of Functional Grammar in analysing English texts. Softskill/Karakter: - Kejujuran ilmiah   - Berpikir analitis dan sintesis   - Kerja kelompok

Materi:

1. Introduction
2. Traditional Grammar, Formal Grammar and Functional Grammar
3. Toward Functional Grammar

Kegiatan Pembelajaran

Tahap Kegiatan	Kegiatan Dosen	Kegiatan Mahasiswa	Teknik Penilaian	Media
Pendahuluan	Menjelaskan silabus perkuliahan	Memperhatikan penjelasan dosen		Laptop LCD Projector
	Menandatangani kontrak perkuliahan	Ketua kelas menandatangani kontrak perkuliahan		
Penyajian	Menjelaskan perbedaan antara traditional Grammar, Formal Grammar, dan Functional Grammar	Memperhatikan penjelasan dosen dan menanyakan konsep-konsep yang belum dipahami	Summary writing	
	Menjelaskan konsep	Memperhatikan		

	dasar Functional Grammar	penjelasan dosen dan menanyakan konsep-konsep yang belum dipahami		
Penutup	Meminta mahasiswa menyampaikan konsep-konsep penting dari materi yang sudah dipelajari	Menyampaikan konsep-konsep penting dari materi yang sudah dipelajari		
	Menjelaskan secara umum topik yang akan dibahas pada pertemuan selanjutnya	Memperhatikan penjelasan dosen		

Rubrik Penilaian Ringkasan

No	Skor	Kriteria	Keterangan
1	4	- Ringkasan ditulis dengan menggunakan bahasa sendiri - Semua konsep penting tertuang di dalam ringkasan - Hampir tidak ada kesalahan dalam penggunaan bahasa bahasa Inggris	
2	3	- Sebagian besar ringkasan ditulis dengan menggunakan bahasa sendiri - Terdapat beberapa konsep penting yang tidak tertuang di dalam ringkasan - Terdapat beberapa kesalahan dalam penggunaan bahasa bahasa Inggris	
3	2	- Sebagian besar ringkasan dikutip langusng dari sumber asli - Banyak konsep penting yang tidak tertuang di dalam ringkasan - Terdapat banyak kesalahan dalam penggunaan bahasa bahasa Inggris	
4	1	- Ringkasan ditulis dengan mengutip langsung dari sumber asli - Sebagian besar konsep penting tidak tertuang di dalam ringkasan - Kesalahan dalam penggunaan bahasa Inggris cukup dominan	

Daftar Pustaka

1. Martin, J. R., Christian M I M Matthiessen and Clare Painter. 1997. *Working with Functional Grammar*. London: Arnold
2. Gerot, Linda and Peter Wignell. 1994. *Making Sense of Functional Grammar: An Introductory Workbook.* Sydney: Antipodean Educational Enterprises
3. Eggins, Suzanne. 2004. *An Introduction to Systemic Functional Linguistics (2nd edition)*. New York: Continuum
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5. Martin, James R. 1992. *English Text: System and Structures*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Company

SATUAN ACARA PEMBELAJARAN
(SAP)

Nama Bahan Kajian	: Functional Grammar	SKS	: 2 (dua)
Program Studi	: Pendidikan Bahasa san Sastra Inggris	Kode	:
Pertemuan Ke-	: II-IV		
Dosen	: Dr. Refnaldi, M.Litt		

Learning Outcome (Capaian Pembelajaran) Mata Kuliah Terkait KKNI

The students are able to understand the concepts of Functional Grammar and are able to use their knowledge of Functional Grammar in analysing English texts.

Softskill/Karakter:
- Kejujuran ilmiah
- Berpikir analitis dan sintesis
- Kerja kelompok

Materi:

The Grammar of Experiential Meaning
- Types of process
- Types of Participants
- Types of Circumstances
- The transitivity analysis of a text

Kegiatan Pembelajaran

Tahap Kegiatan	Kegiatan Dosen	Kegiatan Mahasiswa	Teknik Penilaian	Media
Pendahuluan	Mereviu konsep-konsep yang diplajari pada pertemuan sebelumnya	Menjawab pertanyaan dosen tentang konsep-konsep yang dipelajari pada pertemuan terdahulu	–	Laptop LCD Projector
	Meminta kelompok yang sudah ditunjuk untuk menyajikan topik tentang *The*	Satu kelompk menyajikan materi tentang the grammar of	Performance test	

	grammar of experiential meaning	experiential meaning , sedangkan yang lainnya memperhatikan penyajian kelompok dan mencatat hal-hal penting dari penyajian kelompok		
Penyajian	Menjadi fasilitator di dalam tanya jawab setelah penyajian kelompok	Menanyakan kepada kelompok penyaji teantag konsep-konsep yang belum dipahami dengan baik	Summary writing	
	Memberi penjelasan lebih rinci tentang *the grammar of experiential meaning.*	Memperhatikan penjelasan dosen dan menanyakan konsep-konsep yang belum dipahami		
	Memberikan latihan-latihan kelompok tentangmenganalisis *experiential meaning of a text*	Mengerjakan latihan-latihan kelompok tentang *the experiential meaning of a text*	Performance assessment	
	Memberikan latihan-latihan individu tentangmenganalisis *experiential meaning of a text*	Mengerjakan latihan-latihan individu tentang *the experiential meaning of a text*	Performance assessment	
Penutup	Meminta mahasiswa menyampaikan konsep-konsep penting dari materi yang sudah dipelajari	Menyampaikan konsep-konsep penting dari materi yang sudah dipelajari		
	Menjelaskan secara umum topik yang akan dibahas pada pertemuan selanjutnya	Memperhatikan penjelasan dosen	-	

Rubrik Penilaian Ringkasan

No	Skor	Kriteria	Keterangan
1	4	- Ringkasan ditulis dengan menggunakan bahasa sendiri - Semua konsep penting tertuang di dalam ringkasan - Hampir tidak ada kesalahan dalam penggunaan bahasa bahasa Inggris	
2	3	- Sebagian besar ringkasan ditulis dengan menggunakan bahasa sendiri - Terdapat beberapa konsep penting yang tidak tertuang di dalam ringkasan - Terdapat beberapa kesalahan dalam penggunaan bahasa bahasa Inggris	
3	2	- Sebagian besar ringkasan dikutip langusng dari sumber asli - Banyak konsep penting yang tidak tertuang di dalam ringkasan - Terdapat banyak kesalahan dalam penggunaan bahasa bahasa Inggris	
4	1	- Ringkasan ditulis dengan mengutip langsung dari sumber asli - Sebagian besar konsep penting tidak tertuang di dalam ringkasan - Kesalahan dalam penggunaan bahasa Inggris cukup dominan	

Rubrik Penilaian Presentasi Kelompok

No	Skor	Kriteria	Keterangan
1	4	- Presentasi disajikan dengan menggunakan bahasa sendiri - Semua konsep penting tertuang di dalam presentasi - Semua anggota kelompok mendapat porsi yang lebih kurang sama di dalam penyajian - Semua anggota kelompok berpartisipasi aktif di dalam menjawab perntayaan-pertanyaan yang diajukan oleh kelompok lain - Hampir tidak ada kesalahan dalam penggunaan bahasa bahasa Inggris	
2	3	- Sebagian besar dari presentasi disampaikan dengan menggunakan bahasa sendiri - Terdapat beberapa konsep penting yang tidak tertuang di dalam presentasi - Sebagian besar anggota kelompok mendapat tugas yang relatif berimbang di dalam presentasi - Sebagian besar anggota kelompok berpartisipasi aktif di dalam menjawab perntayaan-pertanyaan yang diajukan kelompok lain - Terdapat beberapa kesalahan dalam penggunaan bahasa bahasa Inggris	
3	2	- Sebagian besar dari presentasi dikutip langsung dari sumber asli - Banyak konsep penting yang tidak tertuang di dalam presentasi	

		- Banyak anggota kelompok tidak mendapat tugas yang relatif berimbang di dalam presentasi - Banyak anggota kelompok tidak berpartisipasi aktif di dalam menjawab perntayaan-pertanyaan yang diajukan kelompok lain - Terdapat banyak kesalahan dalam penggunaan bahasa bahasa Inggris	
4	1	- Presentasi disajikan dengan mengutip langsung dari sumber asli - Sebagian besar konsep penting tidak tertuang di dalam ringkasan - Sebagian besar anggota kelompok tidak mendapat tugas yang relatif berimbang di dalam presentasi - Sebagian besar anggota kelompok tidak berpartisipasi aktif di dalam menjawab perntayaan-pertanyaan yang diajukan kelompok lain - Kesalahan dalam penggunaan bahasa Inggris cukup dominan	

Daftar Pustaka

1. Martin, J. R., Christian M I M Matthiessen and Clare Painter. 1997. *Working with Functional Grammar*. London: Arnold
2. Gerot, Linda and Peter Wignell. 1994. *Making Sense of Functional Grammar: An Introductory Workbook.* Sydney: Antipodean Educational Enterprises
3. Eggins, Suzanne. 2004. *An Introduction to Systemic Functional Linguistics (2nd edition)*. New York: Continuum
4. Halliday, M. A. K. dan C. M. I. M. Matthiessen. 2004. *An Introduction to Functional Grammar (3rd Edition)*. London: Edward Arnold
5. Martin, James R. 1992. *English Text: System and Structures*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Company

SATUAN ACARA PEMBELAJARAN
(SAP)

Nama Bahan Kajian : Functional Grammar   SKS   : 2 (dua)

Program Studi   : Pendidikan Bahasa san Sastra Inggris   Kode   :

Pertemuan Ke-   : V-VI

Dosen   : Dr. Refnaldi, M.Litt

Learning Outcome (Capaian Pembelajaran) Mata Kuliah Terkait KKNI

The students are able to understand the concepts of Functional Grammar and are able to use their knowledge of Functional Grammar in analysing English texts.

Softskill/Karakter:

- Kejujuran ilmiah
- Berpikir analitis dan sintesis
- Kerja kelompok

Materi:

The Grammar of Interpersonal Meaning
- Introduction to interpersonal function
- Mood
- Residue
- Adjunct
- Modality

Kegiatan Pembelajaran

Tahap Kegiatan	Kegiatan Dosen	Kegiatan Mahasiswa	Teknik Penilaian	Media
Pendahuluan	Mereviu konsep-konsep yang diplajari pada pertemuan sebelumnya	Menjawab pertanyaan dosen tentang konsep-konsep yang dipelajari pada pertemuan terdahulu		Laptop LCD Projector -
	Meminta kelompok yang sudah ditunjuk untuk menyajikan topik tentang *The*	Satu kelompk menyajikan materi tentang *the grammar of*	Performance test	

	grammar of interpersonal meaning	interpersonal meaning , sedangkan yang lainnya memperhatikan penyajian kelompok dan mencatat hal-hal penting dari penyajian kelompok		
Penyajian	Menjadi fasilitator di dalam tanya jawab setelah penyajian kelompok	Menanyakan kepada kelompok penyaji teantag konsep-konsep yang belum dipahami dengan baik	Summary writing	
	Memberi penjelasan lebih rinci tentang the grammar of interpersonal meaning.	Memperhatikan penjelasan dosen dan menanyakan konsep-konsep yang belum dipahami		
	Memberikan latihan-latihan kelompok tentangmenganalisis interpersonal meaning of a text	Mengerjakan latihan-latihan kelompok tentang the interpersonal meaning of a text	Performance assessment	
	Memberikan latihan-latihan individu tentang menganalisis interpersonal meaning of a text	Mengerjakan latihan-latihan individu tentang the interpersonal meaning of a text	Performance assessment	
Penutup	Meminta mahasiswa menyampaikan konsep-konsep penting dari materi yang sudah dipelajari	Menyampaikan konsep-konsep penting dari materi yang sudah dipelajari		
	Menjelaskan secara umum topik yang akan dibahas pada pertemuan selanjutnya	Memperhatikan penjelasan dosen		-

Rubrik Penilaian Ringkasan

No	Skor	Kriteria	Keterangan
1	4	- Ringkasan ditulis dengan menggunakan bahasa sendiri - Semua konsep penting tertuang di dalam ringkasan - Hampir tidak ada kesalahan dalam penggunaan bahasa bahasa Inggris	
2	3	- Sebagian besar ringkasan ditulis dengan menggunakan bahasa sendiri - Terdapat beberapa konsep penting yang tidak tertuang di dalam ringkasan - Terdapat beberapa kesalahan dalam penggunaan bahasa bahasa Inggris	
3	2	- Sebagian besar ringkasan dikutip langusng dari sumber asli - Banyak konsep penting yang tidak tertuang di dalam ringkasan - Terdapat banyak kesalahan dalam penggunaan bahasa bahasa Inggris	
4	1	- Ringkasan ditulis dengan mengutip langsung dari sumber asli - Sebagian besar konsep penting tidak tertuang di dalam ringkasan - Kesalahan dalam penggunaan bahasa Inggris cukup dominan	

Rubrik Penilaian Presentasi Kelompok

No	Skor	Kriteria	Keterangan
1	4	- Presentasi disajikan dengan menggunakan bahasa sendiri - Semua konsep penting tertuang di dalam presentasi - Semua anggota kelompok mendapat porsi yang lebih kurang sama di dalam penyajian - Semua anggota kelompok berpartisipasi aktif di dalam menjawab perntayaan-pertanyaan yang diajukan oleh kelompok lain - Hampir tidak ada kesalahan dalam penggunaan bahasa bahasa Inggris	
2	3	- Sebagian besar dari presentasi disampaikan dengan menggunakan bahasa sendiri - Terdapat beberapa konsep penting yang tidak tertuang di dalam presentasi - Sebagian besar anggota kelompok mendapat tugas yang relatif berimbang di dalam presentasi - Sebagian besar anggota kelompok berpartisipasi aktif di dalam menjawab perntayaan-pertanyaan yang diajukan kelompok lain - Terdapat beberapa kesalahan dalam penggunaan bahasa bahasa Inggris	–
3	2	- Sebagian besar dari presentasi dikutip langsung dari sumber asli - Banyak konsep penting yang tidak tertuang di dalam presentasi - Banyak anggota kelompok tidak mendapat tugas yang relatif berimbang di dalam presentasi - Banyak anggota kelompok tidak berpartisipasi aktif di dalam	

4	1		
		menjawab perntayaan-pertanyaan yang diajukan kelompok lain	
		- Terdapat banyak kesalahan dalam penggunaan bahasa bahasa Inggris	
4	1	- Presentasi disajikan dengan mengutip langsung dari sumber asli	
		- Sebagian besar konsep penting tidak tertuang di dalam ringkasan	
		- Sebagian besar anggota kelompok tidak mendapat tugas yang relatif berimbang di dalam presentasi	
		- Sebagian besar anggota kelompok tidak berpartisipasi aktif di dalam menjawab perntayaan-pertanyaan yang diajukan kelompok lain	
		- Kesalahan dalam penggunaan bahasa Inggris cukup dominan	

Daftar Pustaka

1. Martin, J. R., Christian M I M Matthiessen and Clare Painter. 1997. *Working with Functional Grammar.* London: Arnold
2. Gerot, Linda and Peter Wignell. 1994. *Making Sense of Functional Grammar: An Introductory Workbook.* Sydney: Antipodean Educational Enterprises
3. Eggins, Suzanne. 2004. *An Introduction to Systemic Functional Linguistics (2nd edition).* New York: Continuum
4. Halliday, M. A. K. dan C. M. I. M. Matthiessen. 2004. *An Introduction to Functional Grammar (3rd Edition).* London: Edward Arnold
5. Martin, James R. 1992. *English Text: System and Structures.* Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Company

SATUAN ACARA PEMBELAJARAN
(SAP)

Nama Bahan Kajian   : Functional Grammar   SKS   : 2 (dua)

Program Studi   : Pendidikan Bahasa san Sastra Inggris   Kode :

Pertemuan Ke-   : VII-VIII

Dosen   : Dr. Refnaldi, M.Litt

Learning Outcome (Capaian Pembelajaran) Mata Kuliah Terkait KKNI

The students are able to understand the concepts of Functional Grammar and are able to use their knowledge of Functional Grammar in analysing English texts.

Softskill/Karakter:
- Kejujuran ilmiah
- Berpikir analitis dan sintesis
- Kerja kelompok

Materi:

The Grammar of Logical Meaning
- Clause
- Introduction to Clause Complex
- The Structure and Systems of Clause Complex
- The Basic Opposition: Projection vs. Expansion
- Analysis of Clause Complexes

Kegiatan Pembelajaran

Tahap Kegiatan	Kegiatan Dosen	Kegiatan Mahasiswa	Teknik Penilaian	Media
Pendahuluan	Mereviu konsep-konsep yang diplajari pada pertemuan sebelumnya	Menjawab pertanyaan dosen tentang konsep-konsep yang dipelajari pada pertemuan terdahulu		Laptop LCD Projector
	Meminta kelompok yang sudah ditunjuk untuk menyajikan	Satu kelompk menyajikan materi tentang *the*	Performance test	

	topik tentang *The grammar of logical meaning*	*grammar of logical meaning ,* sedangkan yang lainnya memperhatikan penyajian kelompok dan mencatat hal-hal penting dari penyajian kelompok		
Penyajian	Menjadi fasilitator di dalam tanya jawab setelah penyajian kelompok	Menanyakan kepada kelompok penyaji teantag konsep-konsep yang belum dipahami dengan baik	Summary writing	
	Memberi penjelasan lebih rinci tentang *the grammar of logical meaning.*	Memperhatikan penjelasan dosen dan menanyakan konsep-konsep yang belum dipahami		
	Memberikan latihan-latihan kelompok tentangmenganalisis *the logical meaning of a text*	Mengerjakan latihan-latihan kelompok tentang *thelogical meaning meaning of a text*	Performance assessment	
	Memberikan latihan-latihan individu tentang menganalisis the logical *meaning of a text*	Mengerjakan latihan-latihan individu tentang *the logical meaning of a text*	Performance assessment	
Penutup	Meminta mahasiswa menyampaikan konsep-konsep penting dari materi yang sudah dipelajari	Menyampaikan konsep-konsep penting dari materi yang sudah dipelajari		
	Menjelaskan secara umum topik yang akan dibahas pada pertemuan selanjutnya	Memperhatikan penjelasan dosen		

Rubrik Penilaian Ringkasan

No	Skor	Kriteria	Keterangan
1	4	- Ringkasan ditulis dengan menggunakan bahasa sendiri - Semua konsep penting tertuang di dalam ringkasan - Hampir tidak ada kesalahan dalam penggunaan bahasa bahasa Inggris	
2	3	- Sebagian besar ringkasan ditulis dengan menggunakan bahasa sendiri - Terdapat beberapa konsep penting yang tidak tertuang di dalam ringkasan - Terdapat beberapa kesalahan dalam penggunaan bahasa bahasa Inggris	
3	2	- Sebagian besar ringkasan dikutip langusng dari sumber asli - Banyak konsep penting yang tidak tertuang di dalam ringkasan - Terdapat banyak kesalahan dalam penggunaan bahasa bahasa Inggris	
4	1	- Ringkasan ditulis dengan mengutip langsung dari sumber asli - Sebagian besar konsep penting tidak tertuang di dalam ringkasan - Kesalahan dalam penggunaan bahasa Inggris cukup dominan	

Rubrik Penilaian Presentasi Kelompok

No	Skor	Kriteria	Keterangan
1	4	- Presentasi disajikan dengan menggunakan bahasa sendiri - Semua konsep penting tertuang di dalam presentasi - Semua anggota kelompok mendapat porsi yang lebih kurang sama di dalam penyajian - Semua anggota kelompok berpartisipasi aktif di dalam menjawab perntayaan-pertanyaan yang diajukan oleh kelompok lain - Hampir tidak ada kesalahan dalam penggunaan bahasa bahasa Inggris	
2	3	- Sebagian besar dari presentasi disampaikan dengan menggunakan bahasa sendiri - Terdapat beberapa konsep penting yang tidak tertuang di dalam presentasi - Sebagian besar anggota kelompok mendapat tugas yang relatif berimbang di dalam presentasi - Sebagian besar anggota kelompok berpartisipasi aktif di dalam menjawab perntayaan-pertanyaan yang diajukan kelompok lain - Terdapat beberapa kesalahan dalam penggunaan bahasa bahasa Inggris	

| 3 | 2 | - Sebagian besar dari presentasi dikutip langsung dari sumber asli
- Banyak konsep penting yang tidak tertuang di dalam presentasi
- Banyak anggota kelompok tidak mendapat tugas yang relatif berimbang di dalam presentasi
- Banyak anggota kelompok tidak berpartisipasi aktif di dalam menjawab perntayaan-pertanyaan yang diajukan kelompok lain
- Terdapat banyak kesalahan dalam penggunaan bahasa bahasa Inggris | |
| 4 | 1 | - Presentasi disajikan dengan mengutip langsung dari sumber asli
- Sebagian besar konsep penting tidak tertuang di dalam ringkasan
- Sebagian besar anggota kelompok tidak mendapat tugas yang relatif berimbang di dalam presentasi
- Sebagian besar anggota kelompok tidak berpartisipasi aktif di dalam menjawab perntayaan-pertanyaan yang diajukan kelompok lain
- Kesalahan dalam penggunaan bahasa Inggris cukup dominan | |

Daftar Pustaka

1. Martin, J. R., Christian M I M Matthiessen and Clare Painter. 1997. *Working with Functional Grammar*. London: Arnold
2. Gerot, Linda and Peter Wignell. 1994. *Making Sense of Functional Grammar: An Introductory Workbook.* Sydney: Antipodean Educational Enterprises
3. Eggins, Suzanne. 2004. *An Introduction to Systemic Functional Linguistics (2nd edition)*. New York: Continuum
4. Halliday, M. A. K. dan C. M. I. M. Matthiessen. 2004. *An Introduction to Functional Grammar (3rd Edition)*. London: Edward Arnold
5. Martin, James R. 1992. *English Text: System and Structures*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Company

SATUAN ACARA PEMBELAJARAN
(SAP)

Nama Bahan Kajian	: Functional Grammar	SKS	: 2 (dua)
Program Studi	: Pendidikan Bahasa san Sastra Inggris	Kode	:
Pertemuan Ke-	: X-XI		
Dosen	: Dr. Refnaldi, M.Litt		

Learning Outcome (Capaian Pembelajaran) Mata Kuliah Terkait KKNI

The students are able to understand the concepts of Functional Grammar and are able to use their knowledge of Functional Grammar in analysing English texts.

Softskill/Karakter:
- Kejujuran ilmiah
- Berpikir analitis dan sintesis
- Kerja kelompok

Materi:

The Grammar of Textual Meaning
- THEME/RHEME: The System
- Types of Themes
- THEME and MOOD
- Patterns of Theme Choice

Kegiatan Pembelajaran

Tahap Kegiatan	Kegiatan Dosen	Kegiatan Mahasiswa	Teknik Penilaian	Media
Pendahuluan	Mereviu konsep-konsep yang diplajari pada pertemuan sebelumnya	Menjawab pertanyaan dosen tentang konsep-konsep yang dipelajari pada pertemuan terdahulu		Laptop LCD Projector
	Meminta kelompok yang sudah ditunjuk untuk menyajikan	Satu kelompk menyajikan materi tentang *the*	Performance test	

	topik tentang *The grammar of textual meaning*	*grammar of textual meaning* , sedangkan yang lainnya memperhatikan penyajian kelompok dan mencatat hal-hal penting dari penyajian kelompok		
Penyajian	Menjadi fasilitator di dalam tanya jawab setelah penyajian kelompok	Menanyakan kepada kelompok penyaji teantag konsep-konsep yang belum dipahami dengan baik	Summary writing	
	Memberi penjelasan lebih rinci tentang *the grammar of textual meaning.*	Memperhatikan penjelasan dosen dan menanyakan konsep-konsep yang belum dipahami		
	Memberikan latihan-latihan kelompok tentangmenganalisis *the textual meaning of a text*	Mengerjakan latihan-latihan kelompok tentang *the textual meaning of a text*	Performance assessment	
	Memberikan latihan-latihan individu tentang menganalisis *the textual meaning of a text*	Mengerjakan latihan-latihan individu tentang *the textual meaning of a text*	Performance assessment	
Penutup	Meminta mahasiswa menyampaikan konsep-konsep penting dari materi yang sudah dipelajari	Menyampaikan konsep-konsep penting dari materi yang sudah dipelajari		
	Menjelaskan secara umum topik yang akan dibahas pada pertemuan selanjutnya	Memperhatikan penjelasan dosen		

Rubrik Penilaian Ringkasan

No	Skor	Kriteria	Keterangan
1	4	- Ringkasan ditulis dengan menggunakan bahasa sendiri - Semua konsep penting tertuang di dalam ringkasan - Hampir tidak ada kesalahan dalam penggunaan bahasa bahasa Inggris	
2	3	- Sebagian besar ringkasan ditulis dengan menggunakan bahasa sendiri - Terdapat beberapa konsep penting yang tidak tertuang di dalam ringkasan - Terdapat beberapa kesalahan dalam penggunaan bahasa bahasa Inggris	
3	2	- Sebagian besar ringkasan dikutip langusng dari sumber asli - Banyak konsep penting yang tidak tertuang di dalam ringkasan - Terdapat banyak kesalahan dalam penggunaan bahasa bahasa Inggris	
4	1	- Ringkasan ditulis dengan mengutip langsung dari sumber asli - Sebagian besar konsep penting tidak tertuang di dalam ringkasan - Kesalahan dalam penggunaan bahasa Inggris cukup dominan	

Rubrik Penilaian Presentasi Kelompok

No	Skor	Kriteria	Keterangan
1	4	- Presentasi disajikan dengan menggunakan bahasa sendiri - Semua konsep penting tertuang di dalam presentasi - Semua anggota kelompok mendapat porsi yang lebih kurang sama di dalam penyajian - Semua anggota kelompok berpartisipasi aktif di dalam menjawab perntayaan-pertanyaan yang diajukan oleh kelompok lain - Hampir tidak ada kesalahan dalam penggunaan bahasa bahasa Inggris	
2	3	- Sebagian besar dari presentasi disampaikan dengan menggunakan bahasa sendiri - Terdapat beberapa konsep penting yang tidak tertuang di dalam presentasi - Sebagian besar anggota kelompok mendapat tugas yang relatif berimbang di dalam presentasi - Sebagian besar anggota kelompok berpartisipasi aktif di dalam menjawab perntayaan-pertanyaan yang diajukan kelompok lain - Terdapat beberapa kesalahan dalam penggunaan bahasa bahasa Inggris	
3	2	- Sebagian besar dari presentasi dikutip langsung dari sumber asli	

		- Banyak konsep penting yang tidak tertuang di dalam presentasi - Banyak anggota kelompok tidak mendapat tugas yang relatif berimbang di dalam presentasi - Banyak anggota kelompok tidak berpartisipasi aktif di dalam menjawab perntayaan-pertanyaan yang diajukan kelompok lain - Terdapat banyak kesalahan dalam penggunaan bahasa bahasa Inggris	
4	1	- Presentasi disajikan dengan mengutip langsung dari sumber asli - Sebagian besar konsep penting tidak tertuang di dalam ringkasan - Sebagian besar anggota kelompok tidak mendapat tugas yang relatif berimbang di dalam presentasi - Sebagian besar anggota kelompok tidak berpartisipasi aktif di dalam menjawab perntayaan-pertanyaan yang diajukan kelompok lain - Kesalahan dalam penggunaan bahasa Inggris cukup dominan	

Daftar Pustaka

1. Martin, J. R., Christian M I M Matthiessen and Clare Painter. 1997. *Working with Functional Grammar*. London: Arnold
2. Gerot, Linda and Peter Wignell. 1994. *Making Sense of Functional Grammar: An Introductory Workbook.* Sydney: Antipodean Educational Enterprises
3. Eggins, Suzanne. 2004. *An Introduction to Systemic Functional Linguistics (2nd edition).* New York: Continuum
4. Halliday, M. A. K. dan C. M. I. M. Matthiessen. 2004. *An Introduction to Functional Grammar (3rd Edition)*. London: Edward Arnold
5. Martin, James R. 1992. *English Text: System and Structures.* Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Company

SATUAN ACARA PEMBELAJARAN
(SAP)

Nama Bahan Kajian	: Functional Grammar	SKS	: 2 (dua)
Program Studi	: Pendidikan Bahasa san Sastra Inggris	Kode	:
Pertemuan Ke-	: XII		
Dosen	: Dr. Refnaldi, M.Litt		

Learning Outcome (Capaian Pembelajaran) Mata Kuliah Terkait KKNI

> The students are able to understand the concepts of Functional Grammar and are able to use their knowledge of Functional Grammar in analysing English texts.
> Softskill/Karakter:
> - Kejujuran ilmiah
> - Berpikir analitis dan sintesis
> - Kerja kelompok

Materi:

Nominal Groups
- Nominal Group Structure
- Nominalization and Grammatical Metaphor

Kegiatan Pembelajaran

Tahap Kegiatan	Kegiatan Dosen	Kegiatan Mahasiswa	Teknik Penilaian	Media
Pendahuluan	Mereviu konsep-konsep yang diplajari pada pertemuan sebelumnya	Menjawab pertanyaan dosen tentang konsep-konsep yang dipelajari pada pertemuan terdahulu		Laptop LCD Projector
–	Meminta kelompok yang sudah ditunjuk untuk menyajikan topik tentang *Thenominal groups*	Satu kelompk menyajikan materi tentang *the nominal groups*, sedangkan yang lainnya memperhatikan	Performance test	

		penyajian kelompok dan mencatat hal-hal penting dari penyajian kelompok		
Penyajian	Menjadi fasilitator di dalam tanya jawab setelah penyajian kelompok	Menanyakan kepada kelompok penyaji teantag konsep-konsep yang belum dipahami dengan baik	Summary writing	
	Memberi penjelasan lebih rinci tentang *the nominal groups.*	Memperhatikan penjelasan dosen dan menanyakan konsep-konsep yang belum dipahami		
	Memberikan latihan-latihan kelompok tentangmenganalisis *the nominal groups of a text*	Mengerjakan latihan-latihan kelompok tentang *the nominal groups of a text*	Performance assessment	
	Memberikan latihan-latihan individu tentang menganalisis *the nominal groups of a text*	Mengerjakan latihan-latihan individu tentang *thenominal groups of a text*	Performance assessment	
Penutup	Meminta mahasiswa menyampaikan konsep-konsep penting dari materi yang sudah dipelajari	Menyampaikan konsep-konsep penting dari materi yang sudah dipelajari		
	Menjelaskan secara umum topik yang akan dibahas pada pertemuan selanjutnya	Memperhatikan penjelasan dosen		

Rubrik Penilaian Ringkasan

No	Skor	Kriteria	Keterangan
1	4	- Ringkasan ditulis dengan menggunakan bahasa sendiri - Semua konsep penting tertuang di dalam ringkasan - Hampir tidak ada kesalahan dalam penggunaan bahasa bahasa Inggris	
2	3	- Sebagian besar ringkasan ditulis dengan menggunakan bahasa sendiri - Terdapat beberapa konsep penting yang tidak tertuang di dalam ringkasan - Terdapat beberapa kesalahan dalam penggunaan bahasa bahasa Inggris	
3	2	- Sebagian besar ringkasan dikutip langusng dari sumber asli - Banyak konsep penting yang tidak tertuang di dalam ringkasan - Terdapat banyak kesalahan dalam penggunaan bahasa bahasa Inggris	
4	1	- Ringkasan ditulis dengan mengutip langsung dari sumber asli - Sebagian besar konsep penting tidak tertuang di dalam ringkasan - Kesalahan dalam penggunaan bahasa Inggris cukup dominan	

Rubrik Penilaian Presentasi Kelompok

No	Skor	Kriteria	Keterangan
1	4	- Presentasi disajikan dengan menggunakan bahasa sendiri - Semua konsep penting tertuang di dalam presentasi - Semua anggota kelompok mendapat porsi yang lebih kurang sama di dalam penyajian - Semua anggota kelompok berpartisipasi aktif di dalam menjawab perntayaan-pertanyaan yang diajukan oleh kelompok lain - Hampir tidak ada kesalahan dalam penggunaan bahasa bahasa Inggris	
2	3	- Sebagian besar dari presentasi disampaikan dengan menggunakan bahasa sendiri - Terdapat beberapa konsep penting yang tidak tertuang di dalam presentasi - Sebagian besar anggota kelompok mendapat tugas yang relatif berimbang di dalam presentasi - Sebagian besar anggota kelompok berpartisipasi aktif di dalam menjawab perntayaan-pertanyaan yang diajukan kelompok lain - Terdapat beberapa kesalahan dalam penggunaan bahasa bahasa Inggris	
3	2	- Sebagian besar dari presentasi dikutip langsung dari sumber asli	

		- Banyak konsep penting yang tidak tertuang di dalam presentasi - Banyak anggota kelompok tidak mendapat tugas yang relatif berimbang di dalam presentasi - Banyak anggota kelompok tidak berpartisipasi aktif di dalam menjawab perntayaan-pertanyaan yang diajukan kelompok lain - Terdapat banyak kesalahan dalam penggunaan bahasa bahasa Inggris	
4	1	- Presentasi disajikan dengan mengutip langsung dari sumber asli - Sebagian besar konsep penting tidak tertuang di dalam ringkasan - Sebagian besar anggota kelompok tidak mendapat tugas yang relatif berimbang di dalam presentasi - Sebagian besar anggota kelompok tidak berpartisipasi aktif di dalam menjawab perntayaan-pertanyaan yang diajukan kelompok lain - Kesalahan dalam penggunaan bahasa Inggris cukup dominan	

Daftar Pustaka

1. Martin, J. R., Christian M I M Matthiessen and Clare Painter. 1997. *Working with Functional Grammar*. London: Arnold
2. Gerot, Linda and Peter Wignell. 1994. *Making Sense of Functional Grammar: An Introductory Workbook*. Sydney: Antipodean Educational Enterprises
3. Eggins, Suzanne. 2004. *An Introduction to Systemic Functional Linguistics (2nd edition)*. New York: Continuum
4. Halliday, M. A. K. dan C. M. I. M. Matthiessen. 2004. *An Introduction to Functional Grammar (3rd Edition)*. London: Edward Arnold
5. Martin, James R. 1992. *English Text: System and Structures*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Company

SATUAN ACARA PEMBELAJARAN
(SAP)

Nama Bahan Kajian : Functional Grammar   SKS   : 2 (dua)

Program Studi   : Pendidikan Bahasa san Sastra Inggris   Kode :

Pertemuan Ke-   : XIII

Dosen   : Dr. Refnaldi, M.Litt

Learning Outcome (Capaian Pembelajaran) Mata Kuliah Terkait KKNI

The students are able to understand the concepts of Functional Grammar and are able to use their knowledge of Functional Grammar in analysing English texts.

Softskill/Karakter:
- Kejujuran ilmiah
- Berpikir analitis dan sintesis
- Kerja kelompok

Materi:

Spoken and Written Language
- Spoken and written language and mode
- Spoken and Written Language Differences

Kegiatan Pembelajaran

Tahap Kegiatan	Kegiatan Dosen	Kegiatan Mahasiswa	Teknik Penilaian	Media
Pendahuluan	Mereviu konsep-konsep yang diplajari pada pertemuan sebelumnya	Menjawab pertanyaan dosen tentang konsep-konsep yang dipelajari pada pertemuan terdahulu		Laptop LCD Projector
	Meminta kelompok yang sudah ditunjuk untuk menyajikan topik tentang *Spoken and Written*	Satu kelompk menyajikan materi tentang *Spoken and Written Language,*	Performance test	

	Language	sedangkan yang lainnya memperhatikan penyajian kelompok dan mencatat hal-hal penting dari penyajian kelompok		
Penyajian	Menjadi fasilitator di dalam tanya jawab setelah penyajian kelompok	Menanyakan kepada kelompok penyaji teantag konsep-konsep yang belum dipahami dengan baik	Summary writing	
	Memberi penjelasan lebih rinci tentang *the spoken and written language.*	Memperhatikan penjelasan dosen dan menanyakan konsep-konsep yang belum dipahami		
	Memberikan latihan-latihan kelompok tentangmenganalisis *the spoken and written language*	Mengerjakan latihan-latihan kelompok tentang *the spoken and written language*	Performance assessment	
	Memberikan latihan-latihan individu tentang menganalisis *the spoken and written language*	Mengerjakan latihan-latihan individu tentang *the spoken and written language*	Performance assessment	
Penutup	Meminta mahasiswa menyampaikan konsep-konsep penting dari materi yang sudah dipelajari	Menyampaikan konsep-konsep penting dari materi yang sudah dipelajari		
	Menjelaskan secara umum topik yang akan dibahas pada pertemuan selanjutnya	Memperhatikan penjelasan dosen		
	-			

Rubrik Penilaian Ringkasan

No	Skor	Kriteria	Keterangan
1	4	- Ringkasan ditulis dengan menggunakan bahasa sendiri - Semua konsep penting tertuang di dalam ringkasan - Hampir tidak ada kesalahan dalam penggunaan bahasa bahasa Inggris	
2	3	- Sebagian besar ringkasan ditulis dengan menggunakan bahasa sendiri - Terdapat beberapa konsep penting yang tidak tertuang di dalam ringkasan - Terdapat beberapa kesalahan dalam penggunaan bahasa bahasa Inggris	
3	2	- Sebagian besar ringkasan dikutip langusng dari sumber asli - Banyak konsep penting yang tidak tertuang di dalam ringkasan - Terdapat banyak kesalahan dalam penggunaan bahasa bahasa Inggris	
4	1	- Ringkasan ditulis dengan mengutip langsung dari sumber asli - Sebagian besar konsep penting tidak tertuang di dalam ringkasan - Kesalahan dalam penggunaan bahasa Inggris cukup dominan	

Rubrik Penilaian Presentasi Kelompok

No	Skor	Kriteria	Keterangan
1	4	- Presentasi disajikan dengan menggunakan bahasa sendiri - Semua konsep penting tertuang di dalam presentasi - Semua anggota kelompok mendapat porsi yang lebih kurang sama di dalam penyajian - Semua anggota kelompok berpartisipasi aktif di dalam menjawab perntayaan-pertanyaan yang diajukan oleh kelompok lain - Hampir tidak ada kesalahan dalam penggunaan bahasa bahasa Inggris	
2	3	- Sebagian besar dari presentasi disampaikan dengan menggunakan bahasa sendiri - Terdapat beberapa konsep penting yang tidak tertuang di dalam presentasi - Sebagian besar anggota kelompok mendapat tugas yang relatif berimbang di dalam presentasi - Sebagian besar anggota kelompok berpartisipasi aktif di dalam menjawab perntayaan-pertanyaan yang diajukan kelompok lain - Terdapat beberapa kesalahan dalam penggunaan bahasa bahasa Inggris	

3	2	- Sebagian besar dari presentasi dikutip langsung dari sumber asli - Banyak konsep penting yang tidak tertuang di dalam presentasi - Banyak anggota kelompok tidak mendapat tugas yang relatif berimbang di dalam presentasi - Banyak anggota kelompok tidak berpartisipasi aktif di dalam menjawab perntayaan-pertanyaan yang diajukan kelompok lain - Terdapat banyak kesalahan dalam penggunaan bahasa bahasa Inggris	
4	1	- Presentasi disajikan dengan mengutip langsung dari sumber asli - Sebagian besar konsep penting tidak tertuang di dalam ringkasan - Sebagian besar anggota kelompok tidak mendapat tugas yang relatif berimbang di dalam presentasi - Sebagian besar anggota kelompok tidak berpartisipasi aktif di dalam menjawab perntayaan-pertanyaan yang diajukan kelompok lain - Kesalahan dalam penggunaan bahasa Inggris cukup dominan	

Daftar Pustaka

1. Martin, J. R., Christian M I M Matthiessen and Clare Painter. 1997. *Working with Functional Grammar*. London: Arnold
2. Gerot, Linda and Peter Wignell. 1994. *Making Sense of Functional Grammar: An Introductory Workbook.* Sydney: Antipodean Educational Enterprises
3. Eggins, Suzanne. 2004. *An Introduction to Systemic Functional Linguistics (2nd edition)*. New York: Continuum
4. Halliday, M. A. K. dan C. M. I. M. Matthiessen. 2004. *An Introduction to Functional Grammar (3rd Edition)*. London: Edward Arnold
5. Martin, James R. 1992. *English Text: System and Structures*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Company

SATUAN ACARA PEMBELAJARAN
(SAP)

Nama Bahan Kajian	: Functional Grammar	SKS	: 2 (dua)
Program Studi	: Pendidikan Bahasa san Sastra Inggris	Kode	:
Pertemuan Ke-	: XIV		
Dosen	: Dr. Refnaldi, M.Litt		

Learning Outcome (Capaian Pembelajaran) Mata Kuliah Terkait KKNI

The students are able to understand the concepts of Functional Grammar and are able to use their knowledge of Functional Grammar in analysing English texts.

Softskill/Karakter:
- Kejujuran ilmiah
- Berpikir analitis dan sintesis
- Kerja kelompok

Materi:

Cohesion
- Cohesion
- Conjunction

Kegiatan Pembelajaran

Tahap Kegiatan	Kegiatan Dosen	Kegiatan Mahasiswa	Teknik Penilaian	Media
Pendahuluan	Mereviu konsep-konsep yang diplajari pada pertemuan sebelumnya	Menjawab pertanyaan dosen tentang konsep-konsep yang dipelajari pada pertemuan terdahulu		Laptop LCD Projector
	Meminta kelompok yang sudah ditunjuk untuk menyajikan topik cohesion	Satu kelompk menyajikan materi tentang cohesion, sedangkan yang lainnya memperhatikan	Performance test	

		penyajian kelompok dan mencatat hal-hal penting dari penyajian kelompok		
Penyajian	Menjadi fasilitator di dalam tanya jawab setelah penyajian kelompok	Menanyakan kepada kelompok penyaji teantag konsep-konsep yang belum dipahami dengan baik	Summary writing	
	Memberi penjelasan lebih rinci tentang *cohesion*	Memperhatikan penjelasan dosen dan menanyakan konsep-konsep yang belum dipahami		
	Memberikan latihan-latihan kelompok tentangmenganalisis *thecohesion of a text*	Mengerjakan latihan-latihan kelompok tentang *the cohesion of a text*	Performance assessment	
	Memberikan latihan-latihan individu tentang menganalisis *the cohesion of a text*	Mengerjakan latihan-latihan individu tentang *the cohesion of a text*	Performance assessment	
Penutup	Meminta mahasiswa menyampaikan konsep-konsep penting dari materi yang sudah dipelajari	Menyampaikan konsep-konsep penting dari materi yang sudah dipelajari		
	Menjelaskan secara umum topik yang akan dibahas pada pertemuan selanjutnya	Memperhatikan penjelasan dosen		

Rubrik Penilaian Ringkasan

No	Skor	Kriteria	Keterangan
1	4	- Ringkasan ditulis dengan menggunakan bahasa sendiri - Semua konsep penting tertuang di dalam ringkasan - Hampir tidak ada kesalahan dalam penggunaan bahasa bahasa Inggris	
2	3	- Sebagian besar ringkasan ditulis dengan menggunakan bahasa sendiri - Terdapat beberapa konsep penting yang tidak tertuang di dalam ringkasan - Terdapat beberapa kesalahan dalam penggunaan bahasa bahasa Inggris	
3	2	- Sebagian besar ringkasan dikutip langusng dari sumber asli - Banyak konsep penting yang tidak tertuang di dalam ringkasan - Terdapat banyak kesalahan dalam penggunaan bahasa bahasa Inggris	
4	1	- Ringkasan ditulis dengan mengutip langsung dari sumber asli - Sebagian besar konsep penting tidak tertuang di dalam ringkasan - Kesalahan dalam penggunaan bahasa Inggris cukup dominan	

Rubrik Penilaian Presentasi Kelompok

No	Skor	Kriteria	Keterangan
1	4	- Presentasi disajikan dengan menggunakan bahasa sendiri - Semua konsep penting tertuang di dalam presentasi - Semua anggota kelompok mendapat porsi yang lebih kurang sama di dalam penyajian - Semua anggota kelompok berpartisipasi aktif di dalam menjawab perntayaan-pertanyaan yang diajukan oleh kelompok lain - Hampir tidak ada kesalahan dalam penggunaan bahasa bahasa Inggris	
2	3	- Sebagian besar dari presentasi disampaikan dengan menggunakan bahasa sendiri - Terdapat beberapa konsep penting yang tidak tertuang di dalam presentasi - Sebagian besar anggota kelompok mendapat tugas yang relatif berimbang di dalam presentasi - Sebagian besar anggota kelompok berpartisipasi aktif di dalam menjawab perntayaan-pertanyaan yang diajukan kelompok lain - Terdapat beberapa kesalahan dalam penggunaan bahasa bahasa Inggris	
3	2	- Sebagian besar dari presentasi dikutip langsung dari sumber asli - Banyak konsep penting yang tidak tertuang di dalam presentasi - Banyak anggota kelompok tidak mendapat tugas yang relatif	

		berimbang di dalam presentasi - Banyak anggota kelompok tidak berpartisipasi aktif di dalam menjawab perntayaan-pertanyaan yang diajukan kelompok lain - Terdapat banyak kesalahan dalam penggunaan bahasa bahasa Inggris	
4	1	- Presentasi disajikan dengan mengutip langsung dari sumber asli - Sebagian besar konsep penting tidak tertuang di dalam ringkasan - Sebagian besar anggota kelompok tidak mendapat tugas yang relatif berimbang di dalam presentasi - Sebagian besar anggota kelompok tidak berpartisipasi aktif di dalam menjawab perntayaan-pertanyaan yang diajukan kelompok lain - Kesalahan dalam penggunaan bahasa Inggris cukup dominan	

Daftar Pustaka

1. Martin, J. R., Christian M I M Matthiessen and Clare Painter. 1997. *Working with Functional Grammar.* London: Arnold

2. Gerot, Linda and Peter Wignell. 1994. *Making Sense of Functional Grammar: An Introductory Workbook.* Sydney: Antipodean Educational Enterprises

3. Eggins, Suzanne. 2004. *An Introduction to Systemic Functional Linguistics (2nd edition).* New York: Continuum

4. Halliday, M. A. K. dan C. M. I. M. Matthiessen. 2004. *An Introduction to Functional Grammar (3rd Edition).* London: Edward Arnold

5. Martin, James R. 1992. *English Text: System and Structures.* Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Company

SATUAN ACARA PEMBELAJARAN
(SAP)

Nama Bahan Kajian	: Functional Grammar	SKS	: 2 (dua)
Program Studi	: Pendidikan Bahasa san Sastra Inggris	Kode	:
Pertemuan Ke-	: XV		
Dosen	: Dr. Refnaldi, M.Litt		

Learning Outcome (Capaian Pembelajaran) Mata Kuliah Terkait KKNI

The students are able to understand the concepts of Functional Grammar and are able to use their knowledge of Functional Grammar in analysing English texts.

Softskill/Karakter:
- Kejujuran ilmiah
- Berpikir analitis dan sintesis
- Kerja kelompok

Materi:

Exploring Context
- Interpreting Context
- From Lexicogrammatical Analysis to Contextual Description

Kegiatan Pembelajaran

Tahap Kegiatan	Kegiatan Dosen	Kegiatan Mahasiswa	Teknik Penilaian	Media
Pendahuluan	Mereviu konsep-konsep yang diplajari pada pertemuan sebelumnya	Menjawab pertanyaan dosen tentang konsep-konsep yang dipelajari pada pertemuan terdahulu		Laptop LCD Projector
	Meminta kelompok yang sudah ditunjuk untuk menyajikan topik *exploring context*	Satu kelompk menyajikan materi tentang *exploring context*, sedangkan yang lainnya memperhatikan	Performance test	

		penyajian kelompok dan mencatat hal-hal penting dari penyajian kelompok		
Penyajian	Menjadi fasilitator di dalam tanya jawab setelah penyajian kelompok	Menanyakan kepada kelompok penyaji teantag konsep-konsep yang belum dipahami dengan baik	Summary writing	
	Memberi penjelasan lebih rinci tentang *exploring context*	Memperhatikan penjelasan dosen dan menanyakan konsep-konsep yang belum dipahami		
	Memberikan latihan-latihan kelompok tentangmenganalisis *the context of a text*	Mengerjakan latihan-latihan kelompok tentang *the context of a text*	Performance assessment	
	Memberikan latihan-latihan individu tentang menganalisis *the context of a text*	Mengerjakan latihan-latihan individu tentang *the context of a text*	Performance assessment	
Penutup	Meminta mahasiswa menyampaikan konsep-konsep penting dari materi yang sudah dipelajari	Menyampaikan konsep-konsep penting dari materi yang sudah dipelajari		
	Menjelaskan secara umum topik yang akan dibahas pada pertemuan selanjutnya	Memperhatikan penjelasan dosen		

Rubrik Penilaian Ringkasan

No	Skor	Kriteria	Keterangan
1	4	- Ringkasan ditulis dengan menggunakan bahasa sendiri - Semua konsep penting tertuang di dalam ringkasan - Hampir tidak ada kesalahan dalam penggunaan bahasa bahasa Inggris	
2	3	- Sebagian besar ringkasan ditulis dengan menggunakan bahasa sendiri - Terdapat beberapa konsep penting yang tidak tertuang di dalam ringkasan - Terdapat beberapa kesalahan dalam penggunaan bahasa bahasa Inggris	
3	2	- Sebagian besar ringkasan dikutip langusng dari sumber asli - Banyak konsep penting yang tidak tertuang di dalam ringkasan - Terdapat banyak kesalahan dalam penggunaan bahasa bahasa Inggris	
4	1	- Ringkasan ditulis dengan mengutip langsung dari sumber asli - Sebagian besar konsep penting tidak tertuang di dalam ringkasan - Kesalahan dalam penggunaan bahasa Inggris cukup dominan	

Rubrik Penilaian Presentasi Kelompok

No	Skor	Kriteria	Keterangan
1	4	- Presentasi disajikan dengan menggunakan bahasa sendiri - Semua konsep penting tertuang di dalam presentasi - Semua anggota kelompok mendapat porsi yang lebih kurang sama di dalam penyajian - Semua anggota kelompok berpartisipasi aktif di dalam menjawab perntayaan-pertanyaan yang diajukan oleh kelompok lain - Hampir tidak ada kesalahan dalam penggunaan bahasa bahasa Inggris	
2	3	- Sebagian besar dari presentasi disampaikan dengan menggunakan bahasa sendiri - Terdapat beberapa konsep penting yang tidak tertuang di dalam presentasi - Sebagian besar anggota kelompok mendapat tugas yang relatif berimbang di dalam presentasi - Sebagian besar anggota kelompok berpartisipasi aktif di dalam menjawab perntayaan-pertanyaan yang diajukan kelompok lain - Terdapat beberapa kesalahan dalam penggunaan bahasa bahasa Inggris	
3	2	- Sebagian besar dari presentasi dikutip langsung dari sumber asli	

		- Banyak konsep penting yang tidak tertuang di dalam presentasi - Banyak anggota kelompok tidak mendapat tugas yang relatif berimbang di dalam presentasi - Banyak anggota kelompok tidak berpartisipasi aktif di dalam menjawab perntayaan-pertanyaan yang diajukan kelompok lain - Terdapat banyak kesalahan dalam penggunaan bahasa bahasa Inggris	
4	1	- Presentasi disajikan dengan mengutip langsung dari sumber asli - Sebagian besar konsep penting tidak tertuang di dalam ringkasan - Sebagian besar anggota kelompok tidak mendapat tugas yang relatif berimbang di dalam presentasi - Sebagian besar anggota kelompok tidak berpartisipasi aktif di dalam menjawab perntayaan-pertanyaan yang diajukan kelompok lain - Kesalahan dalam penggunaan bahasa Inggris cukup dominan	

Daftar Pustaka

1. Martin, J. R., Christian M I M Matthiessen and Clare Painter. 1997. *Working with Functional Grammar*. London: Arnold
2. Gerot, Linda and Peter Wignell. 1994. *Making Sense of Functional Grammar: An Introductory Workbook.* Sydney: Antipodean Educational Enterprises
3. Eggins, Suzanne. 2004. *An Introduction to Systemic Functional Linguistics (2nd edition)*. New York: Continuum
4. Halliday, M. A. K. dan C. M. I. M. Matthiessen. 2004. *An Introduction to Functional Grammar (3rd Edition)*. London: Edward Arnold
5. Martin, James R. 1992. *English Text: System and Structures*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Company

SATUAN ACARA PEMBELAJARAN
(SAP)

Nama Bahan Kajian : Functional Grammar   SKS   : 2 (dua)
Program Studi   : Pendidikan Bahasa san Sastra Inggris   Kode :
Pertemuan Ke-   : XVI
Dosen   : Dr. Refnaldi, M.Litt

Learning Outcome (Capaian Pembelajaran) Mata Kuliah Terkait KKNI

The students are able to understand the concepts of Functional Grammar and are able
to use their knowledge of Functional Grammar in analysing English texts.
Softskill/Karakter:
- Kejujuran ilmiah
- Berpikir analitis dan sintesis
- Kerja kelompok

Materi:

Exploring Text
- Texture
- Text Structure
- An Exploration of Text Types

Kegiatan Pembelajaran

Tahap Kegiatan	Kegiatan Dosen	Kegiatan Mahasiswa	Teknik Penilaian	Media
Pendahuluan	Mereviu konsep-konsep yang diplajari pada pertemuan sebelumnya	Menjawab pertanyaan dosen tentang konsep-konsep yang dipelajari pada pertemuan terdahulu		Laptop LCD Projector
	Meminta kelompok yang sudah ditunjuk untuk menyajikan topik *exploring text*	Satu kelompk menyajikan materi tentang *exploring text,* sedangkan yang lainnya	Performance test	

		memperhatikan penyajian kelompok dan mencatat hal-hal penting dari penyajian kelompok		
Penyajian	Menjadi fasilitator di dalam tanya jawab setelah penyajian kelompok	Menanyakan kepada kelompok penyaji teantag konsep-konsep yang belum dipahami dengan baik	Summary writing	
	Memberi penjelasan lebih rinci tentang *exploring text*	Memperhatikan penjelasan dosen dan menanyakan konsep-konsep yang belum dipahami		
	Memberikan latihan-latihan kelompok tentangmenganalisis *the structure of a text*	Mengerjakan latihan-latihan kelompok tentang *the structure of a text*	Performance assessment	
	Memberikan latihan-latihan individu tentang menganalisis *the structure of a text*	Mengerjakan latihan-latihan individu tentang *the structure of a text*	Performance assessment	
Penutup	Meminta mahasiswa menyampaikan konsep-konsep penting dari materi yang sudah dipelajari	Menyampaikan konsep-konsep penting dari materi yang sudah dipelajari		
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Rubrik Penilaian Ringkasan

No	Skor	Kriteria	Keterangan
1	4	- Ringkasan ditulis dengan menggunakan bahasa sendiri - Semua konsep penting tertuang di dalam ringkasan - Hampir tidak ada kesalahan dalam penggunaan bahasa bahasa Inggris	
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3	2	- Sebagian besar ringkasan dikutip langusng dari sumber asli - Banyak konsep penting yang tidak tertuang di dalam ringkasan - Terdapat banyak kesalahan dalam penggunaan bahasa bahasa Inggris	
4	1	- Ringkasan ditulis dengan mengutip langsung dari sumber asli - Sebagian besar konsep penting tidak tertuang di dalam ringkasan - Kesalahan dalam penggunaan bahasa Inggris cukup dominan	

Rubrik Penilaian Presentasi Kelompok

No	Skor	Kriteria	Keterangan
1	4	- Presentasi disajikan dengan menggunakan bahasa sendiri - Semua konsep penting tertuang di dalam presentasi - Semua anggota kelompok mendapat porsi yang lebih kurang sama di dalam penyajian - Semua anggota kelompok berpartisipasi aktif di dalam menjawab perntayaan-pertanyaan yang diajukan oleh kelompok lain - Hampir tidak ada kesalahan dalam penggunaan bahasa bahasa Inggris	
2	3	- Sebagian besar dari presentasi disampaikan dengan menggunakan bahasa sendiri - Terdapat beberapa konsep penting yang tidak tertuang di dalam presentasi - Sebagian besar anggota kelompok mendapat tugas yang relatif berimbang di dalam presentasi - Sebagian besar anggota kelompok berpartisipasi aktif di dalam menjawab perntayaan-pertanyaan yang diajukan kelompok lain - Terdapat beberapa kesalahan dalam penggunaan bahasa bahasa Inggris	

3	2	- Sebagian besar dari presentasi dikutip langsung dari sumber asli - Banyak konsep penting yang tidak tertuang di dalam presentasi - Banyak anggota kelompok tidak mendapat tugas yang relatif berimbang di dalam presentasi - Banyak anggota kelompok tidak berpartisipasi aktif di dalam menjawab perntayaan-pertanyaan yang diajukan kelompok lain - Terdapat banyak kesalahan dalam penggunaan bahasa bahasa Inggris	
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A. Notions of Grammar

The following text is cited from Butt et. al. (2000: Pp. 22-26)

One of the first things we need to do in our exploration of a functional aproach to grammar is to explore what we mean by the term *grammar*. To many people the term signifies a fairly rigid set of rules for speaking and writing, the breaking of which will mark you out as uneducated, unsophisticated or even uncouth. Once upon a time you could not finish school in most parts of the English-speaking world without having learned at least a little of this type of grammar. Nowadays many people have had little or no instruction in anything called grammar, but still a kind of mystical importance surrounds the way we talk about grammar. Some people apologise for their written English, explaining that they have never been taught grammar properly; others say that grammar is too technical and difficult for them to handle; still others feel that if they had learnt a foreign language they might have grasped grammar. Even those who have been taught something called grammar in school may have gained the impression that it is indeed a mysterious art in which you learn special terms (such as *verb* and *clause*) and master obscure rules to eradicate such errors as the *split infinitive*.

It is true that 'grammar' can mean something like a grammar book or a set of grammatical rules, particularly rules that people will keep breaking unless they are firmly taught them. But there is another sense in which 'grammar' means something like *the way in which a language is organised*. In this second sense all of us have a command of grammar, even if we speak only one language and have never consciously learned any grammatical rules or terms.

This point is not always readily accepted in English-speaking countries, partly because of an educational tradition of concentrating on only some parts of the language. In speaking English, we all follow rules of grammar, but this rarely, if ever, attracts much attention. Since *rule* may keep reminding us of rules set out in a book, let's drop that word and think instead of patterns of language – and in particular of regular patterns. We all arrange words in certain patterns to construct sentences and, if we grew up speaking English, we don't need formal training in identifying, for example, which of the following is modern English usage:

Did you see Alice's new car?
Did you Alice's new car see?

Did you see car new Alice's?
Saw you Alice's new car?
Did see you Alice's car new?

What speakers of English know, by virtue of being speakers of English, is not just how to put specific words together to create sentences, but how to follow and exploit some very general smaller patterns of language that regularly occur within sentences, as component parts – or CONSTITUENTS – of sentences. *Alice's new car* illustrates a general pattern for expressions such as:

Harry's old typewriter
Mother's dusty books
My sister's lifelong ambition
Someone's dirty shoes

Our first example also points to a fundamental distinction in English between statements and questions, a distinction that is achieved by patterned wording as the following examples demonstrate:

Statement	Question
You saw	Did you see?
You heard	Did you hear?
She laughed	Did she laugh?
You work	Do you work?
Bill paints	Does Bill paint?
They ski	Do they ski?
Carla's working	Is Carla working?
He was laughing	Was he laughing?
They'll write	Will they write?
Denis can hear	Can Denis hear?
I should stay	Should I stay?

These patterns of language can be described as part of English grammar – they are part of how we express ourselves in English. Other languages may or may not have similar patterns. In some languages, for example, the wording of *Alice's new car* may be equivalent to *the new car of Alice*. Interestingly, few languages turn out to have a pattern that matches the English question pattern represented by *Did you see?* In many languages the question pattern is simply a reversal of the corresponding statement; that is, *Saw you?* In fact this was once the pattern in English too but it has been replaced. In 16th century English we do find patterns like:

Know ye what I have done to you?
Died he not in his bed?

while more modern equivalents would be:

Do you know what I have done to you?
Didn't he die in his bed?

Grammar as taught in schools in the past often had little or nothing to say about patterns like these, and in a way this was understandable since most of us learned the patterns quite unconsciously before going to school. What *was* taught as grammar was often directed towards understanding and learning the patterns of other languages, especially Latin. (A grammar school was a school that taught Latin grammar.) That was also understandable, given the importance of Latin in the educational system of the time. It was unfortunate, however, that English grammar tended to be judged in the light of Latin grammar. In general, grammarians and teachers fostered the idea that you needed to learn special rules to be able to speak English properly – or more particularly to be able to produce elegant *written* English. In some instances they actually tried to make English conform to Latin patterns. Thus, many people even today have an uneasy feeling that the way they normally use English cannot be quite right and that they need to remember and apply artificial rules to their written English.

Even more demoralising is the notion held by many speakers of English, native as well as non-native, that their *spoken* language is somehow faulty or improper. The grammatical conventions of face-to-face spoken language and those that apply to formal writing are different in many ways. The grammar teaching of the past tended to obscure this fact, with the result that all too often people – especially those whose spoken variety of English was not that of the dominant middle class – became ashamed of the way they spoke as well as the way they wrote.

Functional approaches to grammar description and pedagogy

A functional approach to grammar description and teaching can help alleviate the irrational feelings of shame identified above, at the same time as it empowers people to look closely at, and feel comfortable about, analysing their own choices and those of others around them. There have been several initiatives in the direction of a functional approach to grammar over the last three decades. Systemic functional linguistics, the approach presented in this book, is one of the most recent – and we would argue one of the most systematically developed – of these initiatives. However, many of the readers of this book will be familiar with other functional grammar initiatives. *Communicative grammars* and *corpus-based grammars*, in particular, are pedagogical grammars claiming a functional approach that have had considerable relevance for English language teachers around the world. We will just mention two such grammars in passing.

In the preface to *A communicative grammar of English*, Geoffrey Leech and Jan Svartvik (1975: 10) describe their book as:

> A communicative grammar of English is a new kind of grammar. In writing it, we have assumed that studying grammar ... makes most sense if one starts with the question 'How can I use grammar to communicate?'. Thus the main part of the book is devoted to the USES of grammar, rather than to grammatical STRUCTURE.

The *Collins Cobuild English grammar* was published fifteen years later. Compiled by a team of linguists working at the University of Birmingham in Britain, this grammar has strong links to the Bank of English – a computer database (corpus) of English texts, both spoken and written, which seeks to monitor the way in which English is actually used in the modern world. In their introduction the editors make this point (1990: v):

> *People who study and use a language are mainly interested in how they can do things with the language – how they can make meanings, get attention to their problems and interests, influence their friends and colleagues and create a rich social life for themselves. They are only interested in the grammatical structure of the language as a means to getting things done.*
>
> *A grammar which puts together the patterns of the language and the things you can do with them is called a functional grammar.*

Michael Halliday, whose functional approach to grammar description underpins *Using functional grammar*, was a consultant to the Birmingham editorial team, and many of the ideas about language use and grammar choices that are reflected in the *Collins Cobuild English grammar* are shared by grammarians who use Halliday's theory of systemic functional grammar description.

It is important to remember that all functional approaches to grammar description and grammar teaching are firmly steeped in earlier traditions, building on the past not rejecting it. We explain this approach below, with particular reference to systemic functional grammar.

Continuing classical and rehetorical traditions of grammar description

Systemic functional linguists have sometimes been accused of rejecting the strengths of traditional approaches to grammar and to text description. Nothing could be further from the truth. In fact, many of the concepts and goals of systemic functional linguistics incorporate ideas about linguistic philosophy that have carried over from some of the intellectual pre-occupations of the classical world. In particular:

- the concern for turning the study of language back to the applications of speaking, writing, and interpretation
- the treatment of words and grammar as part of a more general study of discourse
- the classification of different registers (or text types) according to the different purposes involved and the different resources used to affect the audience – namely, through *pathos* (emotions), *logos* (reasoning), or *ethos* (personal character)
- the integration of the basic notions of grammar and rhetoric – for example transitivity, mood, modality, theme/rheme, finiteness, tense, voice.

A major concern of linguistic philosophy since classical times has been the consistent separation of function and class labels. Continuing this tradition, systemic functional linguists seek to avoid the contradictions inherent in such grammatical descriptions as SVO; that is, Subject (a functional label), Verb (a class label), Object (a functional label).

The challenge for text linguistics is to explain how a community, a social network, or even two people make use of language across changing contexts, changing social memberships and changing modes (from speech to writing, for example). In the classical tradition the rhetoric of Attic Greek sets out to prepare citizens for public debate and for the evaluation of knowledge. *How different is this in education today* we might ask. Clearly the modes have multiplied (think of the screen and email) but the critical goals of the study of discourse have remained the same.

The crucial difference today, in the context of a language like English (so different from the inflecting forms of Greek and Latin), is that all the concepts of traditional grammar and rhetoric need to be thought through in the specific conditions of English and in the specific registers of a new (once unimaginable) technology. Systemic functional linguistics is a proposal for language description that is consistent with this aim. A dynamic theory, it is itself changing in order to address the changing patterns by which meaning is made.

B. Building on Traditional Grammar

What do you think of when you hear the word 'grammar'? As a student in school you may have thought of it as a set of exercises to get right in English class. Now, as a person who is studying language in some depth, you will find that grammar is much more.

This section is organised around the questions:

- what is grammar?
- why do we need to know about grammar?
- how can we characterise or talk about grammar?

What Is Grammar?

Grammar is a theory of language, of how language is put together and how it works. More particularly, it is the study of wordings. What is meant by wording? Consider the following for a moment:

Time flies like an arrow.

This string of language means something; the meaning is accessible through the wording, that is, the words and their order; and the wording in turn, is realised or expressed through sound or letters.

Folk terminology   **Linguistic terminology**

meaning   semantics

wording   lexicogrammar

letters/sounds   orthography/phonology

In some theories of grammar, lexicogrammar is called 'syntax', which is studied independently of semantics. In other theories of grammar, wordings are characterised such that they are able to explain meaning. More on this in a moment.

Why Grammar?

Why do we need to know about grammar? We need a theory of grammar or language which helps us understand how texts work. As teachers we need to know how texts work so we can explicitly help learners learn how to understand and produce texts—spoken and written in various contexts for various purposes.

Several years ago one of us overheard a conversation between a Year 9 student and his geography teacher. The student was asking the teacher why he had received a low mark for his project. The teacher responded that the work 'just didn't hang together'. The boy asked, 'But how do I make it hang together?' The teacher responded by suggesting that the student make the work cohere.

This example is not to criticise students or teachers. The student would have made the text 'hang together' in the first place had he known how. And the teacher would have explained in good faith had he known explicitly how texts, especially geography texts, worked. Systemic–functional grammar, presented in this book, perhaps more than any other theory of language, explains how texts, including texts read and written in schools, work.

Characterising Language

This is where viewpoints begin to diverge. Notice that we've not used the term 'the' grammar of English. Instead, there are a number of grammars which differ in how they characterise language, depending on the purposes of the user. How people have characterised wordings, that is, devised theories of grammar, depends on the kinds of questions they have asked about language, on what they want to find out about it.

Consider for a moment the experience of the six blind men meeting an elephant for the first time. One blind man felt the tail and declared that the elephant was like a rope; another felt the trunk and decided that an elephant was like a hose. Another, feeling the ear, felt an elephant was like an umbrella. Each blind man developed a theory of what elephants are like.

Theories of language (grammars) are a bit like the blind men's experience of the elephant. Each ended up with a somewhat different perspective. And like the blind men's experience, theories of language or grammar are not inherently good or bad, right or wrong, true or false. Rather, grammars are validated by their usefulness in describing and explaining the phenomenon called language.

As teachers, we can further ask whether the grammar helps learners and their teachers to understand and produce texts. As discourse analysts, we can ask how the grammar sheds light on how texts make meaning. To the extent that a grammar can help with these questions, it is more useful than another grammar.

There are three grammars which have had a major influence on schools in the western world in this century. These are as follows.

Traditional Grammar

Traditional grammar aims to describe the grammar of standard English by comparing it with Latin. As such, it is prescriptive. Students learn the names of parts of speech (nouns, verbs, prepositions, adverbs, adjectives), parse textbook sentences and learn to correct so-called bad grammar. Writers are taught, for example, not to start sentences with 'and', to make sure the subject agrees with the verb (time flies—not time fly—like an arrow), to say 'I did it' and not 'I done it'.

Traditional grammar focuses on rules for producing correct sentences. In so doing, it has two main weaknesses. Firstly, the rules it prescribes are based on the language of a very small group of middle-class English speakers. Thus it can be used to discriminate against the language of working class, immigrant and Aboriginal students. (Consider Jeff Fenech's heartfelt 'I love youse all'.) Secondly, the rules deal only with the most superficial aspects of writing. Following the rules in no way guarantees that written communication will be effective, for the rules say nothing about purpose or intended audiences for writing.

Formal Grammar

Formal grammars are concerned to describe the structure of individual sentences. Such grammars view language as a set of rules which allow or disallow certain sentence structures. Knowlege of these rules is seen as being carried around inside the mind. The central question formal grammars attempt to address is: 'How is this sentence structured?' Meaning is typically shunted off into the too-hard box.

If you have had any formal training in grammar, back in primary school for example, you will already be familiar with some grammatical terminology. You may, for instance, have divided a sentence up in terms of its subject and predicate, you may know something about person and tense, and you may be familiar with most of the following words:

adjective	adverb	noun	verb
article	conjunction	preposition	pronoun

In traditional grammatical terminology, these are known as *parts of speech*. You are probably able to suggest useful working definitions for some of them (for example, a *noun* is a naming word, a *verb* is a doing word, an *adverb* adds to the meaning of a verb, a *conjunction* is a joining word, a *pronoun* stands in for a noun and so on).

Now let's, for a moment, look at some rather more technical definitions of these terms. Figure 2.1 contains some definitions from the Macquarie dictionary (1997).

ADJECTIVE
one of the major word classes in many languages, comprising words that typically modify a noun.

ADVERB
one of the major parts of speech comprising words used to modify or limit a verb, a verbal noun (also, in Latin, English and some other languages. an adjective or another adverb), or an adverbial phrase or clause.

NOUN
(in most languages) one of the major form classes, or 'parts of speech', comprising words denoting persons, places, things, and such other words as show similar grammatical behaviour, as English *friend, city, desk, whiteness, virtue.*

VERB
one of the major form classes, or 'parts of speech', comprising words which express the occurrence of an action, existence of a state, and the like, and such other words as show similar grammatical behaviour, as English *discover, remember, write, be.*

ARTICLE
a. a word whose function is to determine the syntactic scope of the noun with which it is associated.
b. (in English) any of the determiners *the, a* or *an.*

CONJUNCTION
a. (in some languages) one of the major form classes, or 'parts of speech', comprising words used to link together words, phrases, clauses or sentences.
b. such a word, as English *and* or *but.*

PREPOSITION
(in some languages) one of the major form classes, or 'parts of speech', comprising words placed before nouns to indicate their relation to other words or their function in the sentence. *By, to, in, from* are prepositions in English.

PRONOUN
(in many languages) one of the major form classes, or 'parts of speech', comprising words used as substitutes for nouns.

Grammatical terms like those in Figure 2.1 are called CLASS terms – they allow us to classify words according to the way they are normally used in the roles they usually play in language. But how useful, and indeed how accurate, is such classification in any quest to describe and explore the grammar of a language?

If you think of a noun as a naming word, a word that denotes a person, place or thing, it is obvious that the names of concrete, seeable, touchable objects are nouns: *tree, cat, desk, shop, town, teacher, Mary*. But your dictionary (or maybe your own linguistic sensitivity) will tell you that the words *contrivance, emotion, classification, emergence,* and *difficulty* are also nouns. In what ways are the concepts expressed by these words object-like? What qualities are shared by *tree* and *emergence* that allow us to classify each as a noun? Doesn't *emergence* describe a happening or event? How then can it denote a thing?

Similarly, if you were taught that a verb is a doing word, then you will have no trouble identifying the verb in the following sentence: *Most birds build nests in trees.* What most birds *do* is build. But there is no 'doing' word in the following sentence from a well-known song: *I am woman.* Here the speaker is expressing *being* rather than *doing,* and the verb in the sentence is *am,* which those with some knowledge of traditional

grammar will recognise as the first person, present tense form of the verb *to be.* It is interesting to note that not all languages express *being (existence of a state* according to the *Macquarie dictionary* definition of verb) by way of a verb. In Indonesian, for example, it is normal to say <u>mereka masih di rumah</u> 'they are still at home' (literally: they still at home). In this book we will be making a distinction, in functional terms, between *doing, being,* and *saying, thinking,* and *feeling* kinds of verbs (see under Clauses as processes in Chapter 3).

Let's now explore some other problems with traditional grammar terminology. First, compare these four sentences:

1 *Bathurst* is a *town* in the *country.*

2 Bathurst is a *country* town.

3 My cousin has bought a *town* house in Bathurst.

4 Stop here for a real *Bathurst* experience.

Bathurst, town and *country* are all nouns in sentence 1. But what about *country* in sentence 2, *town* in sentence 3 and, indeed, *Bathhurst* in sentence 4? We could say these words are still nouns in terms of CLASS, but in terms of FUNCTION they are playing a different role. In sentences 2, 3 and 4, each of these words plays the role we expect an adjective to play, that is as a describing word to provide additional information about a noun. So *Bathurst* in ... *a real Bathurst experience* belongs to the class *noun,* but it functions to provide information about another noun – *experience.* Usually when a noun acts as if it is an adjective, we apply the functional label CLASSIFIER, but more about that in the next chapter.

Now look at the following pair of sentences:

1 The swallows come to our valley in early spring and we know the warm weather is not far behind.
2 The coming of the swallows in early spring brings a promise of warm weather not far behind.

The swallows do something in early spring and what they do is expressed in each case by the English word *come* (*coming*). In sentence 1, *come* is clearly a doing word and is also clearly functioning in the way we expect verbs to function. However, in sentence 2, the word *coming* looks like a doing word (verb) but is functioning in one of the ways we would expect of a noun; that is, it is preceded by the definite article *the*, and is itself doing something: *The coming ... brings a promise ...* In other words, it is acting like a thing rather than a happening or event.

Another telling example of the problem with traditional grammar terms is the highly colloquial Shakespearian riposte to an argumentative adversary:

But me no buts

In this expression *but*, a word we would normally think of as a conjunction, is used first as an imperative verb and then as a plural noun.

From the examples above, it should be clear that the old classification of words is useful only up to a point. Functional grammarians do not reject, discard or replace the terminology of traditional grammar but, to capture what goes on in language, build on and refine the notions of traditional grammar in several ways. The first way is to recognise that words have functions as well as class and that how a word functions can tell us much more than any description of words in terms of class can about the piece of language, where it occurs, the person who chose to use it in that function, and the culture that surrounds the person and the message. This refinement from word class to word function leads to another refinement of traditional grammar, the RANK SCALE.

C. Toward a Functional Grammar

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. Functional grammars start with the question, 'How are the meanings of this text realised?'

Traditional and formal grammars would analyse our earlier clause as follows:

Time	**flies**	**like an arrow.**
noun	*verb*	*prepositional phrase*
Tim	**told**	**of a tragic case.**

Systemic–functional grammar, on the other hand, labels elements of the clause in terms of the function each is playing in that clause rather than by word class.

Time   **flies**   **like an arrow**

Participant: Actor	Process: Material	Circumstance: Manner

Tim   **told**   **of a tragic case**

Participant: Sayer	Process: Verbal	Circumstance: Matter

In these last two clauses, the Participant ('doer') roles are *realised* by nouns, the Processes ('doing') by verbs and the Circumstances by prepositional phrases. But 'flying' and 'telling' are two quite different orders of

'doing', and in the above clause 'like an arrow' tells *how* time flies, while 'of a tragic case' tells what Tim was talking *about*.

Word class labels are certainly not useless, but they will only take you so far. They do not account for differences or similarities in *meaning* to any extent.

To sum up the main differences in perspective among the above three grammars, the following table is presented.

	Formal (+Traditional)	Functional
primary concern	How is (should) this sentence be structured?	How are the meanings of this text realised?
unit of analysis	sentence	whole texts
language level of concern	syntax	semantics
language	= a set of rules for sentence construction = something we know	= a resource for meaning making = something we do

If language cannot be fully explained by labelling words according to their class, if we need to take account of functions as well as classes, then we also need to look beyond mere words. Language is much more than a stringing together of words; we need to be able to analyse and describe patterns of language at several different levels. Just as some scientists look at slides through microscopes with varying degrees of magnification, recognising units at different levels, such as molecule, cell and organism, so linguists look at language at various levels or on various scales. Michael Halliday in *An introduction to functional grammar* (1994) describes language in terms of a RANK SCALE. This concept of a rank scale is very important for an understanding of how a system as intricate as human language works. We present it here, with a brief explanation, and will return to the idea at key points in the book.

RANK SCALE	clause complex
	clause
	group or phrase
	word
	morpheme

The units at each rank are made up of one or more units of the rank below. The highest rank is the CLAUSE COMPLEX and is made up of one or more clauses. (Obviously clause complexes join together to make paragraphs, and paragraphs make up texts, but these are rhetorical and semantic units rather than grammatical or syntactic units.)

A clause complex	consists of	one or more clauses
A clause	consists of	one or more groups or phrases
A group or phrase	consists of	one or more words
A word	consists of	one or more morphemes

Clause complex is probably a term that needs some explanation. You may already have some ideas about words combining into phrases, phrases into clauses and clauses into SENTENCES. The term sentence is a bit of a problem word in language studies as it has not always been used consistently by linguists in the past. It really relates to a pattern of language that occurs in written texts.

> A sentence is a piece of **written** language that in English conventionally begins with a capital letter and ends at the next following full stop.

Spoken language is not divided into sentences, although we often think and talk about it in those terms as the following statements illustrate:

> He never lets me finish a sentence!
> What age does a child begin to talk in full sentences?

Spoken language obviously predates written language – both in terms of human history and in terms of the personal history of any individual – yet prescriptive grammars and grammarians of English in the past have had a tendency to treat spoken forms as if they were imitations or reflections of written forms, as if the written form should be taken as the standard to follow when speaking. This tendency is perhaps understandable when you consider that our culture has been literate for a long time, that writing is such an important part of our lives, and that grammarians of the past based their observations almost exclusively on written texts.

However, there are significant differences between the grammatical norms for speaking and writing, as more recent linguistic research – especially in the latter part of this century – has demonstrated. Since we need a systematic approach that will cover language description for either spoken or written texts, we use the term *clause complex* as an umbrella term for the patterns of language at the level above clause, remembering that in written texts a clause complex often corresponds to a sentence.

> A **clause complex** is a language structure that consists of one clause working by itself, or a group of clauses that work together through some kind of logical relationship (see Chapter 7).

Now let's use a text to explore the different levels on the rank scale using Text 1.

Text 1

> Mr Harper's call for a rise in interest rates should not surprise us. When the national economy is growing fast, many economic analysts will claim that interest rates should rise to prevent a situation of boom and bust. Of greater surprise are his optimistic long-term projections for growth in the Australian manufacturing sector.

Text 1 has three clause complexes; the first and third consist of one clause only while the second consists of four clauses working together. We have used this second clause complex in Table 2.1 to explore the different levels of the rank scale.

CLAUSE COMPLEX	When the national economy is growing fast, many economic analysts will claim that interest rates should rise to prevent a situation of boom and bust.				
CLAUSES	1 When the national economy is growing fast				
	2 many economic analysts will claim				
	3 that interest rates should rise				
	4 to prevent a situation of boom and bust.				
GROUPS OR PHRASES	the national economy		is growing	fast	when
	many economic analysts		will claim		
	interest rates		should rise		
	a situation of boom and bust		to prevent		
WORDS *(incomplete list)*	national	the	growing		
	economic	claim	rates		
	analysts	interest	situation		
MORPHEMES *(incomplete list)*	nation	-al	the		
	econom	-ic	claim		
	grow	-ing	interest		
	situ-at(e)		-ion		

Table 2.1 demonstrates the fact that a unit can consist of *one* or *more* lower-level units (just as an organism can consist of a single cell or many cells, or a building may consist of one room or many rooms). In English, for example, many words are single morpheme words (*grow, the, claim, rate, interest, nation, many, you, finger, ticket, mother*), while others can be analysed into two or more morphemes (*growing, rates, national, situation, fingertips, progressing, forgettable, unforgettable, backpack, backpacker, backpackers*).

At word level in our analysis we can recognise words from some classes of traditional grammar such as adjectives, nouns, verbs and adverbs. At group level the picture is somewhat different. Functional grammar recognises the nominal group, verbal group, adverbial group, conjunction group, preposition group, and just one kind of phrase – the prepositional phrase, which consists of a preposition and a nominal group. All other traditional classes are subsumed into these groups with pronouns, adjectives and articles all being considered within normal nominal group structure. Remember that a group consists of one or more words, so a verbal group may have just one word like *eats* (not in this text), or a main verb and several auxiliaries like *is growing, should rise, will claim*, or *might have been going to be caught* (this last not in this text).

A morphological aside

In this book we will focus mainly on the ranks of clause complex, clause, and group or phrase. However, morphemes are part of the rank scale and since the word MORPHEME may be an unfamiliar term a brief discussion of morphemes seems useful at this stage.

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Morpheme derives from the Greek word *morphe*, meaning *form*. In linguistics it is the traditional term to describe the most basic building blocks (in terms of meaning) of a grammatical system. A morpheme has been defined as 'the minimal linguistic sign, a grammatical unit that is an arbitrary union of a sound and a meaning and that cannot be further analysed' (Fromkin, Rodman, Collins and Blair 1990: 124). Every word is made up of one or more morphemes, and this is so no matter what language you are looking at.

The division of words into morphemes must not be confused with the division of words into SYLLABLES, which is a phonological division rather than a grammatical one. Some words of more than one syllable are single-morpheme words (*interest*, *nation*, *ticket*, *mother*, *finger*, *pocket*), while some words of only one syllable are made up of two morphemes (*rates*, *boys*, *things*, *tried*, *speaks*). Sometimes the phonological division into syllables does coincide with the grammatical division into morphemes (*backpack*, *blackbird*, *friendly*), but there are many words where it does not (*fingered*, *pockets*, *oysters*).

In Table 2.2 we analyse some examples of morphemes. Note that where a morpheme has a hyphen mark (-) before or after it, it means that the morpheme is a BOUND morpheme; that is, it cannot function by itself, but rather is attached to a root word to alter its status in some way, for instance to show tense as with -*ed* or to mark a plural noun as with -*s*.

Table 2.2: Division of words into morphemes

one morpheme	the	claim	rate	you	tell
	nation	interest	ticket	mother	finger
two morphemes	rates	=	rate + -s		
	oysters	=	oyster + -s		
	growing	=	grow + -ing		
	tried	=	try + -ed		
	backpack	=	back + pack		
	progressing	=	progress + -ing		
three morphemes	fingertips	=	finger + tip + -s		
	backpacker	=	back + pack + -er		
	unforgettable	=	un- + forget(t) + -able		

The word *progress* illustrates another interesting aspect of morphology (the study of morphemes). In Table 2.2 we have treated *progress* as a single morpheme (thus *progressing* as two morphemes), but someone with a knowledge of the Latin root of this word may very well want to call *progress* two morphemes because they ascribe meaning to the Latin suffix *pro-* and compare *progress* with other words like *congress*, *regress* and *egress*. The division of English words into morphemes is therefore not always absolute but often depends on our depth of historical linguistic knowledge. For most people *progress* will rightly be one morpheme, but for some it will equally rightly be two.

D. Clauses and Their Constituent Parts

CLAUSE is one of those words that plays several different roles in our language. It is a technical term in the language of law and legal documents, for example:

> A new clause has been written into the contract.
> Clause 5(a) of Regulation 6 states that ...

It is also a technical term in linguistics and it is this sense that concerns us here.

Some of you will already have a fairly clear idea about what a clause is; others may have vague memories about adjectival clauses, noun clauses, adverbial clauses – even perhaps finite clauses – from excursions into grammar in the past. In the following chapters we hope to expand your knowledge of what a clause is and finetune whatever working definition you bring with you.

In all human languages so far studied, the clause is the fundamental meaning structure in our linguistic communication with each other. As anyone who has ever tried to learn another language will know only too well, a dictionary is not a sufficient resource on its own, as words alone are not enough. To communicate effectively we need to know something about how the syntax of the language works; in other words we have to be able to combine words into meaningful message structures, and the most funda-mental message structure in any language – in terms of a message that has any sort of completeness about it – is a clause.

An understanding of what a clause is and how to know one when you see it, is essential for both understanding and exploring the workings of the English grammatical system. So we need to spend a little time looking at some clauses and testing our reactions to clause constituency – how would we break any one clause up into its discrete units or component parts. For this task we will use seven-year-old Josephine's text, which she wrote for a second class composition assignment. We will first of all break the text into clauses, and then, in Table 2.3, look more closely at some of the clauses to see what their constituent parts might be.

Text 2: Josephine's text

One day a monster came out of my hot water pipe. I was very frightened. I called my mum and she came and saw the Floogleboogy and ran outside. I wanted to make friends with it and give it a name and so I called it a Floogleboogy and that night it came to bed with me. And I found that a Floogleboogy snores very loud indeed and mum was too frightened to come and kiss me goodnight.
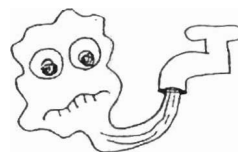
Table 2.3: Clauses from Josephine's text*

1	One day a monster came out of my hot water pipe.	9	and give it a name
2	I was very frightened.	10	and so I called it a Floogleboogy
3	I called my mum	11	and that night it came to bed with me.
4	and she came	12	And I found out
5	and saw the Floogleboogy	13	**that a Floogleboogy** snores very loud indeed
6	and ran outside.	14	and mum was too frightened to come and kiss me goodnight.
7	I wanted		
8	**to make friends with it**		

*Note on division into clauses

You might not agree with this division of the text into clauses. As so often in language description, things are never black and white, and there are several possible 'right' answers here. For instance you might want to call clauses 7 and 8, *I wanted to make friends with it*, one clause not two. Or you might feel clause 14 is actually two clauses: *and mum was too frightened* and *to come and kiss me goodnight*. Then again, you might want *to come and kiss me goodnight* to be two clauses: *to come*; and *and*

(to) kiss me goodnight. We have made clause 14 one clause because we are treating *too frightened to come and kiss me goodnight* as a single constituent part of the clause in that it represents a description of what mum was. Compare: *Mum was happy*; *Mum was frightened*; *Mum was too frightened to come and kiss me goodnight*. Exploring such problem areas in grammatical description is one of the fun things about language studies, and one of the skills we hope you will gain from using this book.

The constituents of clauses in Josephine's text

In our analysis of Text 2, the following abbreviations are used to label the constituents of the clauses:

ng = nominal group
vg = verbal group
conj g = conjunction group
adv g = adverbial group
pp = prepositional phrase

Clause 1 is a complete sentence: recalling our rank scale, it is a one-clause, clause complex. It has four discrete units or constituents and these are labelled according to the class of the group or phrase.

One day	a monster	came	out of my hot water pipe
ng	ng	vg	pp

Clauses 2, 3 and 8 each have three constituents:

I	was	very frightened
ng	vg	ng

I	called	my mum
ng	vg	ng

to make	friends	with it
vg	ng	pp

You might feel that Clause 8 has only two constituents where the phrase *to make friends* acts as a verb, synonymous with *befriend*:

to make friends with	it

And if you disagreed with our division of Clauses 7 and 8 in Table 2.3, seeing them as one clause *I wanted to make friends with it*, then your clause has four constituents:

I	wanted to make	friends	with it

or three constituents:

I	wanted to make friends with	it

As you can see, the division of texts into clauses and clauses into their constituent parts is not always straightforward.

The last clause we will look at from Josephine's text is Clause 11. It appears to have six constituents:

and	that night	it	came	to bed	with me
conj g	ng	ng	vg	pp	pp

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One of these constituents (*and*) is rather different to any of the others we have been looking at. Most of our clause constituents can be seen as expressions of our experience in terms of the things, events and happenings of our world, as well as the circumstances under which those events and happenings occur. The word *and*, however, is a conjunction and does not function as an expression of experience in terms of things and events and circumstances. In Clause 11 it is functioning as a linking device that allows us to express some kind of logical relationship *between* clauses rather than within one clause. For this reason we will leave such words out of our constituent analysis of clauses, but come back to them in Chapters 6 and 7.

As we have suggested, the clauses of English typically express our experience of the world in terms of things and events and the various circumstances that surround those events, but it is the event that is central to way we express our experience.

According to Halliday (1994: 106) 'Our most powerful impression of experience is that it consists of "goings-on" — happening, doing, sensing, meaning, and being and becoming'. These 'goings-on' are the events or processes of our experience, and expression of PROCESS or event is the fundamental constituent of a clause.

In traditional grammar terms, every clause must have a verb. In our functional model of grammar, the one obligatory constituent of a clause is the Process, expressed by a verbal group which is essentially realised by a nucleus or head word that belongs to the class verb. Remembering the principles of the rank scale, this verbal group expression of process may consist of one word, for example snores:

> A Floogleboogy <u>snores</u> very loud indeed

or several words, for example *might have been snoring*:

> The Floogleboogy <u>might have been snoring</u> all night

Some clauses will also have constituents that tell us who the PARTICIPANTS in the Process are, and under what CIRCUMSTANCE the process takes place.

Now it's time to test your own reactions to clause constituency. Try your hand on the following clauses. Don't worry too much about attaching labels to the constituent parts for the moment, but just look for what seem to be the natural groupings of words within the clause structures. To get you started we have underlined the process (verbal group) constituent:

1 The furious child frantically <u>chased</u> our neighbour's cat up and down the street
2 Pigs <u>might fly</u>
3 <u>crawling</u> cautiously through the undergrowth
4 <u>Do</u> you <u>want</u> some more coffee?
5 <u>Stop</u>!
6 <u>protected</u> from the wind on three sides ...

Remember that, according to our rank scale, a clause is made up of one or more groups or phrases. We could, of course, say about Clause 1 above that the clause comprises thirteen words, and that those words are thus the constituents of the clause. This is true

but not very helpful. We need to look at the way the thirteen words are patterned into smaller groupings in the clause design, each grouping fulfilling a different function:

The furious child	frantically	chased	our neighbour's cat	up and down the street
ng	adv g	vg	ng	pp

We can test the validity of this constituent break down of the clause in a number of ways. Try changing the word order of the clause, presenting the same information while not changing any of the words. There are several possibilities and all involve changing the position of one or both of the following boxed constituents:

frantically	up and down the street

Two possibilities are:
>   Frantically the furious child chased our neighbour's cat up and down the street
>   Up and down the street the furious child chased our neighbour's cat frantically

If we move anything else around we either get a pattern that is not the norm for English:
>   Chased the furious child our neighbour's cat frantically up and down the street

or we get a different message:
>   Our neighbour's cat frantically chased the furious child up and down the street

unless we also make certain adjustments to two of the constituent groupings:
>   Our neighbour's cat was chased frantically up and down the street by the furious child

A further simple test of clause constituent break down is to see what questions about the message are answered by the different constituents. So, in our example clause:

the furious child	answers the question *who did* the chasing?
frantically	tells us something about *how* the chasing was done.
our neighbour's cat	tells us *who* had the chasing *done to* it.
up and down the street	tells us *where* the chasing happened.

The rank scale and logical meanings

As we've pointed out, a clause complex consists of one or more clauses. When there is more than one clause, the two or more clauses are joined in some sort of logical relation. In Chapter 7 we look in a general way at patterns of clause combination but do not go into all the finer details of clause combinations as set out in Halliday's system (1994: Chapter 7). One of the general principles we do need to appreciate, however, is that sometimes the clauses will be of equal value, while at other times one clause will be dependent on another. Here students of traditional grammar will be remembering

principal and subordinate clauses. The terminology preferred in this book is *independent* and *dependent* (see Chapter 7), but many of the principles you are familiar with will be the same.

Conjunctions (and some punctuation devices) express the logical relationships between clauses in a clause complex. For example, clauses joined by *and, but, or, that is,* or even a comma, colon, or semi-colon, are of equal value in the clause complex. But clauses beginning with *although, because, since, if* will always be dependent, even when they come at the beginning of the clause complex.

This notion of complexing, where two or more elements are joined in some sort of logical relationship, can also apply at lower ranks in the rank scale. At group level, two or more nominal groups can join to make a single clause constituent; two or more verbal groups to make a single clause constituent and so on. Here are some examples:

The lion and the unicorn	were fighting	for the crown
ng complex	vg	pp
ng 1 + ng 2		

The answer to the question 'Who were fighting?' is 'The lion and the unicorn', so the two nominal groups join together to make one nominal group complex as a single clause constituent.

The wolf	huffed and puffed
ng	vg complex
	vg 1 + vg 2

If we ask what the wolf did, the answer is *huffed and puffed* as one action, so the two verbal groups join together to make one verbal group complex as a single clause constituent.

Bill, my gardener,	is weeding	the rose garden
ng complex	vg	ng
ng 1 = ng 2		

If we ask *who* is weeding the rose garden, the complete answer is *Bill, my gardener,* so the two nominal groups join together to make one nominal group complex as a single clause constituent. This example is rather different from the previous two – here, instead of two different entities being added to make a group complex, the two parts of

the nominal group are different ways of referring to the same entity. That is why we used + between the parts of the group complex in the first two examples, and = between the nominal groups in the last example.

In the following chapters you will learn more about the clause, its constituent elements and its three separate but simultaneous functions. In preparation for this, the last section of this chapter gives a general overview of the three basic functions of language discussed briefly in Chapter 1.

Functions of language

As we saw in Chapter 1, there are three broad functions of language that are central to the way the grammar works in the language system:

---

1   Language has a representational function – we use it to encode our experience of the world; it conveys a picture of reality. Thus it allows us to encode meanings of experience which realise field of discourse (EXPERIENTIAL MEANINGS).

2   Language has an interpersonal function – we use it to encode interaction and show how defensible we find our propositions. Thus it allows us to encode meanings of attitudes, interaction and relationships which realise tenor of discourse (INTERPERSONAL MEANINGS).

3   Language has a textual function – we use it to organise our experiential and interpersonal meanings into a linear and coherent whole. Thus, it allows us to encode meanings of text development which realise mode of discourse (TEXTUAL MEANINGS).

Notice that language encodes all three of these kinds of meanings simultaneously. If you say to someone:

The high school students put on a noisy protest.

you are simultaneously representing or describing something, interacting with someone (whoever you are talking to) by telling them something, and organising the linear flow of your message. Each of these aspects of your utterance is achieved through all the linguistic or grammatical options at your disposal. Firstly, you could have said, for instance:

The high school students protested noisily.

or

High school students organised a noisy protest.

and in each case you would have been saying something slightly different. You would have represented a slightly different reality. More on this in Chapter 3.

Secondly, you could have said, for instance:

The high school students put on a noisy protest, didn't they?

or

Did the high school students protest noisily?

in which case your interpersonal meaning would be different. You would be seeking confirmation or asking for information rather than telling or stating. For more on this see Chapter 4.

And thirdly, you could have said:

A noisy protest was what the high school students organised.
A noisy protest was organised by high school students.

In this case you have conveyed a different textual meaning by organising the message differently. These last possibilities could be the predicted version in certain contexts. The first might be your choice if the context had already included a discussion of certain groups organising some kind of gathering, and you wanted to emphasise what kind of gathering the students had organised. The second example is in fact the passive voice version of our previous example: *High school students organised a noisy protest*. This version allows you to thematise the protest rather than the protesters. In other words, the textual function has to do particularly with the flow of information and points of departure. More on this in Chapter 6.

E. Implication for Language Teaching

In contrast to thinking about grammar in terms of rules which *prescribe* the way language is structured, in this chapter we have been asked to think about grammar as a way of *describing* regular language *patterns* and the *functions* these patterns achieve.

Some teachers might be uncomfortable with letting go of the idea of grammar rules. Many of their teaching techniques may focus on grammar rules which prescribe 'correct' language use. Other teachers may be equally surprised that they are being asked to think about grammar at all! Their teaching techniques may focus on immersing their students in language as communication. They may believe that learning grammar will prevent their students from using the language fluently and communicatively.

The material in this chapter is of most help to teachers who would like to find a middle way between teaching prescriptive grammar rules and teaching no grammar at all. If teachers think about grammar as a way of describing language in terms of pattern and function, they are inclined to develop teaching techniques that draw students' attention to the regular grammatical patterns which make language use *functional* in its context.

What do teachers want for their students?

Teachers who focus on rules and accuracy want their students to reach an accepted and valued *standard* of language use. This approach, however, may obscure the variation which occurs in real-life language use; it might even imply that some variations are sub-standard It may also obscure the fact that every language learner progresses via an *interlanguage* towards increasingly effective use of the target language, and that the 'errors' learners make during this process reveal important information about how language learning progresses.

Teachers who focus on communication and avoid teaching grammar want their students to be able to communicate with ease without being burdened with rules and standards. This approach, however, may lead to students being stranded in their inter-language. They may not be able to use the varieties of language they need, for example, to apply successfully for employment, to write about technical or abstract concepts, to argue their case effectively or to negotiate a delicate personal or business dilemma.

Most language teachers want their students to be both accurate and fluent users of English, but they are faced with an educational paradox. If they demand students use English on the basis of the prescribed rules of traditional grammar, students may be unaware of the variety of language use available to them, and teachers may be unaware of the actual progress students are making with authentic language use. If, on the other hand, teachers expect students to use English without any knowledge of English grammar, students may not have the knowledge they need to use language in a variety of ways and this may restrict the progress students are able to make.

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What we have learned in this chapter suggests that one way of resolving this paradox might be to:

- think about grammar in terms of pattern and function
- work with the grammar of whole texts in context.

What do teachers need to know in order to teach about the grammar of whole texts?

In this chapter the traditional view of grammar has been extended in the following four ways:

1　A set of functional labels builds on and enriches the traditional set of class labels.

2　A rank scale allows for a more detailed exploration of clause structure.

3　The constituent parts of the clause can be described in terms of the way each contributes functionally to the message of the clause.

4　The three meanings made simultaneously in clauses are revealed by exploring clause constituents and the way these constituents are organised to reflect the context of situation.

Now let's look at each of these from the perspective of language education. Firstly, we are told not to abandon what we already know about grammar – for example the familiar traditional grammar labels for the parts of speech. These labels describe elements of language in terms of their *class* or, in other words, in terms of what they *are*.

We are shown, however, that identifying parts of speech alone is not enough if we are to describe consistently and fully the grammatical work of words and structures. So next we are shown how these terms can be built on and enriched with a second set of labels which identify what a word *does*; that is, its *function*. This second set of labels extends the metalanguage available to those who teach and study language, allowing them to talk about both the forms that language elements take and the work that language elements do.

Next we are introduced to a series of grammatical units in a *rank scale*. This scale opens up the structure of the English clause allowing us to examine comprehensively and systematically how the parts of a clause are organised. At each rank, functional linguists are able to describe how words are organised into patterns in order to achieve the different functions within clauses. These descriptions reveal the potential for meaning-making available at each grammatical rank.

Using knowledge based on the rank scale, students can structure language patterns at all levels (morpheme, word, group, phrase, clause and clause complex) and strategically organise and integrate all these patterns as they structure clauses. A particularly useful by-product of the rank scale is that students no longer need to talk about spoken language in terms of the sentence – a unit which has never been very compatible with spoken language.

As well as thinking about the clause in terms of its ranks, we are asked to think about the clause as 'a meaningful message structure' with each constituent part playing a functional role in the message. This idea suggests that instead of giving students the rule *Every clause must have a verb*, teachers might more usefully show students how an event takes the central role in constructing the message of a clause. From this starting point, classroom activities can be designed in which students explore:

• how to break a clause down into its parts

• the structure and functional role of each clause part

• how the parts combine into clauses around the central event

• how clauses are combined into clause complexes.

These activities can be designed using the language of real-life texts that are relevant to the students' learning goals.

We are shown how to test whether we have effectively broken a clause down into its constituent parts. This is done by working out the question each part answers about the message. Students can use these questions to guide them as they explore the structures and meanings found in different types of clauses. This idea will be explored further in Chapter 3.

Finally, we are shown how every clause makes three kinds of meanings at once, depending on the constituent parts we choose and how we choose to organise these parts. Every clause (1) represents experience, (2) interacts with someone and (3) organises the message so it makes sense. We know from Chapter 1 that these three kinds of meaning systematically reflect the context of situation. If students know how to choose and structure the parts of a clause to make each of these kinds of meaning effectively and functionally, they will control the full meaning potential of the English clause in whole texts across a variety of contexts.

In the following chapters we will be introduced to different ways of exploring the structure of the English clause to reveal how each of the three kinds of meanings is made in the clause. In addition we will explore the potential different types of clause constituents have for making each of these kinds of meaning.

F. Exercises

1 Give two or three English words to illustrate each of the traditional classes of words mentioned in this chapter: adjective, adverb, article, conjunction, noun, preposition, pronoun, verb. If you are uncertain of these terms, check their dictionary definitions again.

2 Find some examples of your own to illustrate the rank scale from clause complex to morpheme. First copy out your sentence (clause complex) then set out your rank scale like the example in Table 2.1.

3 Divide the following clauses into their constituent groups.
   a. Pigs might fly
   b. crawling cautiously through the undergrowth
   c. Do you want some more coffee?
   d. Stop
   e. protected from the wind on three sides ...
   f. Next week the committee will announce the winner of the competition
   g. The three wise men of Gotham went to sea in a bowl.

1 How would you describe your approach to the teaching of grammar at present?
   For example:
   • You are concerned with developing accurate, standard English based on fixed grammatical rules.
   • You are concerned with developing fluent communication rather than grammatical accuracy.
   • You try to combine teaching about grammar and structural accuracy with teaching which develops fluent communication.

2 How might the ideas about language presented in this chapter influence your approach to the teaching of grammar? Use the following text and the questions that follow to explore this question.

   There's this girl in my class ...
   she tried to do a backward roll
   and she um like her neck clicked or something
   and um she was taken to hospital in an ambulance
   and I had to write down what happened
   because I was in her group
   I've done that before
   and it doesn't hurt that much.
   I think
   she's over-reacting just a bit

   a. Break the clauses in this text into their constituent parts.
   b. Identify whether each constituent is a word, group or phrase.
   c. What question about the message of the clause does each of these constituents answer?
   d. Design an activity based on a whole text which would reveal to students how clauses, phrases and groups are structured. You can use one of the texts in Chapter 1 or you can use a text that is relevant to your students (choose a short text).

A. Introduction

While Chapters Two, Three and Four have looked at how people use language in texts and how those texts make meanings in cultural and situational contexts, this chapter begins our exploration of the lexico-grammatical level of language by asking: what is the function of grammar? That is, why does language have this intermediate level of grammatical coding? The chapter then examines some basic principles of SFL grammatical analysis, and presents the multifunctional perspective on the clause that will be developed in subsequent chapters.

The traffic lights revisited: extending the system

In Chapter One, traffic lights were described as a two-level semiotic system, involving a level of content realized through a level of expression. Language, on the other hand, was seen to involve three levels: two levels of content (semantics and lexico-grammar), encoded in phonology. The difference between the simple and the complex semiotic systems, then, was the presence of this level of wording, the lexico-grammar.

The lexico-grammatical level was described simply as an intermediate level of linguistic coding. We must now consider in more detail what the function of this level is. What, for example, does it allow us to do in language that we cannot do with a two-level semiotic system like the traffic lights?

We can approach this question by considering how we could extend the traffic light system. The red/amber/green system that was described in Chapter One has two limitations:

1. it does not allow us to mean very much: in fact, we can only make three meanings.
2. it only allows us to mean *one thing at a time*: there is a one-to-one (bi-unique) relationship between content and expression, as each expression (coloured light) stands for one and only one content (desired behaviour), so each content is realized by one and only one expression.

Two strategies could be used to develop the system so that it could *make more meanings*. Firstly, new contents could be added to the system – we could simply increase the number of meanings the system can make. Alternatively, contents could be fused – we could try to use the system to make more than one meaning at a time. Each strategy rapidly becomes problematic.

Adding new contents

If we wish to extend the system so that we can mean more things (for example, we want to add the meaning 'reverse' to the system), we will have to find a new light to stand for this meaning. For each new content we must invent a new expression. For example, we could introduce a PINK light to encode this new meaning, giving us System 5.1.

To economize on the number of coloured lights we need to use, we could start using variations or combinations of expressions to realize new contents. See, for example, the realizations in System 5.2.

Thus, for each new content we can either come up with a completely new expression (a new coloured light), or we can combine the existing coloured lights in various ways.
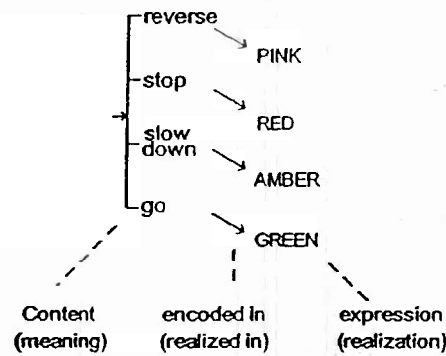
System 5.1 Extending the traffic light system
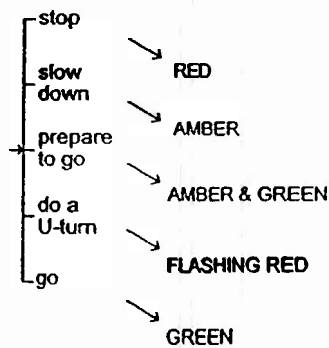
System 5.2 Combining expressions in the traffic light system

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Very quickly this system will become far too cumbersome, both to remember and to distinguish. By the time we add 20 new meanings to our system, we are likely to be having trouble both finding new colours that can be clearly differentiated by our drivers, and remembering what each particular combination means.

Thus it seems that the traffic light system has a very significant drawback: its creative potential is very limited. It cannot mean much, and it cannot mean many new things.

Simultaneous meanings

An alternative strategy is to extend the system so that it is able to *mean more than one thing at a time*. Thus, an expression is to realize more than one content. This can be done through the use of complex signs, or sign sequences. For example, if we want to mean both 'stop' and 'danger ahead', we could:

1. introduce a new complex sign, e.g. a RED LIGHT with a BLACK DOT. This expression is complex as it can be broken down into two parts: a part meaning 'stop' (the colour red) and a part meaning 'danger ahead' (the black dot). Such complex signs are in fact like many of our normal road signs.
2. introduce a sequence of signs, e.g. alternating a RED LIGHT followed by a flashing AMBER light would mean both 'stop' and 'danger ahead'.

However, again it would not be long before the system would become unmanageable. Again, the traffic light system appears very limited. As soon as we try to extend it to make more meanings, we run into problems with remembering and distinguishing different lights or sequences of lights.

In real life this does not become a problem, because we only want traffic lights to make a very few meanings. We use traffic lights to make perhaps half a dozen meanings (stop, go, prepare to stop, go if turning right/left, stop if turning right/left, etc.). Even the more elaborate sign system of our road signs makes only a few dozen meanings altogether. It seems that these semiotic systems work quite well in those contexts, since we only need them to make a very limited number of meanings.

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B. The Demands We Make of Language

However, with the semiotic system of language, we want to make many many more meanings than that. In fact, the amazing demand we make of language is that we want to use it *to mean anything at all* – to make an infinite number of meanings. Language meets this demand, in that it has an unlimited creative potential. That is:

- language allows us to mean new things: you can say things that no one has ever said before, and you have no trouble understanding things that you have never heard before. So, while you could never hope to have heard every sentence it is possible to say in English, you will have no difficulty understanding any English sentence said to you (provided it conforms to the conventions of the system of English).
- language allows us to mean anything: it is very rare that, as a speaker of a language, you would come to a point where all of a sudden you cannot make the meanings you want to because the system is too limited. (When this does sometimes happen, it is often because we are overcome with emotion or because we want to talk about ideas or beliefs which, being new to the culture, have not yet been encoded within the language.)

Since we are able to make infinite meanings in language, language is very different from the traffic lights. The explanation for this difference lies in the fact that language is not a bi-unique semiotic system. There is not a one-to-one correspondence between the content levels of language and the expression level.

If language were such a bi-unique system, one content would be paired with one expression, i.e. one meaning would equal one sound. Every time we wanted to make a new meaning, we would have to introduce a new sound. If language were based on this bi-unique principle, we would run into the same problems of memory and distinguishability that we found in extending the traffic lights.

This is clearly not the way language works. There is something about language that allows us to re-use sounds, so that individual sounds can be related to their occurrences in combinations. Perhaps, then, there is a bi-unique relationship between meanings and words, rather than between meanings and sounds?

But again we can quickly appreciate that language does not operate on such a principle. If there were a bi-unique relationship between meanings and words, language would be a system where every word in the language had one and only one meaning, and every meaning was realized by one and only one word.

In such a system, every time we wanted to make a new meaning we would have to invent a new word. The situation would not be very different from the one we just reviewed: the obvious problems of memory and distinguishability again arise. How could we ever remember all the words? How could we find enough new sound configurations to realize the meanings?

To avoid these impossible feats of memory and differentiation, there must be some economy principle operating in language that does not operate in systems like the traffic lights. We do not have one sound corresponding to one meaning, nor one word corresponding to one meaning. How is it, then, that language is different? How has language got away from this restriction of bi-uniqueness?

Lexico-grammar: the difference

What makes language different is that it has an intermediate level of lexico-grammar, what we more informally refer to simply as the grammatical level. The function of this grammatical level is to free language from the constraints of bi-uniqueness.

The effect of this freedom is that language can take a finite number of expression units (sounds) to realize an infinite number of contents (meanings). Thus, in language we use finite means to realize infinite ends.

The lexico-grammar allows us to do this by providing us with the means to combine sounds into words, which can then be arranged in different grammatical structures to make different meanings. For example, we can take the four words *John, eat, poached* and *eggs,* and by arranging them in different grammatical structures we get a range of different meanings, as shown in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1   Arranging words in structures

Expression	Meaning
John eats poached eggs.	statement about John's habitual behaviour vis-à-vis eggs
John is eating poached eggs.	statement about John's current behaviour regarding eggs
John ate poached eggs.	statement about John's past action
Poached eggs are eaten by John.	statement about something that happens to eggs
Did John eat poached eggs?	request for information about John's past action
Does John eat poached eggs?	request for information about John's habitual behaviour
John, eat poached eggs.	command to John to carry out action of eating
Poached eggs ate John.	statement about what John ate
Poach eggs, John.	command to John to carry out action of 'poaching'

One part of what these sentences mean is the words that are used (that we're talking about *eggs* and not *books, John* and not *the dog, eating* and not *running*). But a second part of their meanings is the arrangement of these words in structures. It is the structural differences that give us the meaning differences between making a statement or asking a question or commanding (technically, different mood choices). Similarly, structural differences are responsible for the meaning differences between talking about something that habitually happens, versus something happening now, or in the past (different verbal group patterns). (These structural differences underlie the need for slight modifications to the verbal element (*eat*) in order to express different meanings.)

Extending language

That the lexico-grammar provides language with an in-built creative potential can be demonstrated by attempting to extend language. As a first example, let us say that I want to make a new lexical meaning. For instance, I invent a machine that writes lectures automatically – you just feed in the topic, a list of the main points, and then you press a button and off it goes. How can I encode this new meaning in the language?

The first possible way is by inventing a totally new word, i.e. by creating a new sign, an arbitrary pairing of a content and an expression. For example, suppose I decide to call my machine a *boofer*. Now how did I get this new word? I took a certain number of sounds of English and arranged them in a novel way. However, it is important to note that I did not take just *any* sounds, nor did I arrange them in just *any* way. For example, I could not have called my new machine a *bvristu,* since HV is not an acceptable sound sequence in English.

Having 'coined' my new word in keeping with the phonological rules of English (the rules of the expression plane), it is now available for use in structures:

Put it in the boofer.
I'm just doing some boofing.
Boof it for me will you?
I boofed this lecture.
She's a specialist in boofography.
This material is not boofographic.
She's a boofer programmer.

Although I only invented one word, I automatically have a creative potential to do a variety of new things with it. This creative potential comes from the grammar – the principles of coding for English which allow us to turn a noun into a verb, adjective, adverb, etc. and thus use it in a range of structures to make different meanings.

However, when I invented my new machine it is actually not very likely that I would invent an entirely new word. In fact, what I would probably do is to call my machine something like a *lecture-writer* or an *auto-writer* or a *lecturer's-aid*. In other words, I would exploit the in-built creative lexical potential of language to come up with a non-arbitrary name. Thus, instead of taking sounds to invent a whole new word, I would take words, pre-existing content units, and combine them in a novel way to express my new meaning. Again, as soon as I do that I gain access to the creative potential of language:

This is lecture-written.
He did it on a lecture-writer.
Lecture-writers are on special at the moment.

Coining new words or combining existing words in novel ways represent the two most obvious ways speakers exploit the creative potential of language. Both are ways of using the finite phonological means of a language to achieve infinite semantic ends, and both are only possible thanks to the intermediate coding level of language.

However, the creative potential of language is not limited to the creation of new words and their automatic availability for use in grammatical structures. We can also use the grammatical repertoire of the language to make a meaning in an untypical, 'creatively different' way.

Imagine that my first-year students are restless and beginning to chatter among themselves during one of my lectures. One way I might achieve my desire for quiet in the room would be to say *Shut up* or *Stop talking please*.

What I would be doing there is using the grammatical structure of the imperative to realize the meaning of 'command'. That is the unmarked or typical way of expressing a command. And if my students are young, and if I'm feeling particularly annoyed, and if I get a kick from asserting power, that is probably the way I would express myself. But possibly I might wish to be more conciliatory with them:

Would you mind not talking while I'm talking?

In this case I have used not an imperative structure but an interrogative structure, so that although what I am still meaning is the command 'shut up', I am 'borrowing' the grammatical structure we normally use to ask questions. You can tell that this is not a 'real' question by considering that *yes* or *no* are not acceptable answers here. The response needs to be compliance (or challenge) from the students: either they shut up, or they ignore me (thereby provoking conflict)! Another way I might make my command would be to say:

It's so noisy in here I can't hear myself think.

Here I have used not an imperative, nor an interrogative, but a declarative: the kind of grammatical structure we typically use for giving information. Yet again it is obvious that I am not really out to give information, but to get the students to shut up. Yet another alternative is for me to say:

Here I have used an exclamative structure, yet again it is obvious that I am not merely exclaiming about the state of affairs, but trying to command that the state of affairs be changed.

This pattern of playing with the system, of using non-typical structures to express our meanings in ways that can be highly sensitive to contextual constraints, is one kind of grammatical metaphor (nominalization, another kind, was discussed in Chapter Four). Grammatical metaphor is part of the creative potential that grammar offers language users.

Simultaneous meanings in language

Part, then, of what lexico-grammar does for language is to give it a creative potential: a way of creating new meanings, by inventing new signs which then get incorporated into the lexico-grammar of the language, by simply arranging existing signs in different ways, or by using existing structures in atypical ways.

However, there is significantly more to the role of the lexico-grammar than this. For not only does the grammar allow us to make *more* meanings, to create, it also allows us to mean more than one thing at a time.

A simple example of this is to take the single lexical item *John*. Any actual use of this lexical item will be overlaid with an intonation contour which will give the word not just the ideational meaning of 'the person called John', but simultaneously an interpersonal meaning of 'how I am relating to John'. For example, using Halliday and Matthiessen (2004: Chapter 8) descriptions of English tone choices, Figure 5.1 displays some of the meanings that *John* can make.

This is a very simple illustration of the fact that in language we can mean more than one thing at a time. (It also illustrates the important role intonation plays in making meanings – see Halliday and Matthiessen 2004: Chapter 8 for a discussion.) However, the situation is generally much more complex than this because we are usually dealing with sentences, not just isolated words. Nonetheless, the same principle of simultaneous meanings is at work. Take for example the clause:

John eats poached eggs.

Part of the meaning of this sentence is the ideational meaning, the meaning of the words *John* and *poached eggs* (the participants involved), and the word *eats* (the process he is involved in). These ideational meanings are in contrast to a clause about *Peter reading books* or *the dog chewing a bone*.

But another part of the meaning of the clause is the structure Subject^Finite verb fused with Predicate^Complement, which gives us the meaning of 'declarative', a giving of information. Here, the clause contrasts with variants like *Is John eating poached eggs?* (a question, asking for information), or *Eat poached eggs, John* (a command, demanding the carrying out of an action).

A third kind of meaning conveyed in the same clause is that 'this is a message about John' – John is the Theme or departure point for this message, realized through the structural organization of putting *John* in first position in the clause. This is the clause's textual meaning. In this respect, the clause contrasts with *Poached eggs eats John*, where the focus would be on what he was eating, rather than who was doing the eating.

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＼ John	(said with a falling tone): provides an answer to the question 'Who did it?'
／ John	(said with a rising tone): asks the question 'Who's there? Is that you, John?'
＿／ John	(said with an almost level tone): means that the speaker had not finished giving information, there was someone else, that John is part of list
＼︎︎ John	(said with a falling then rising tone): means 'I'm annoyed with you, John'
／＼ John	(said with a rising then falling tone): means 'That's outrageous, John'

Figure 5.1   The meanings of *John*

In this one clause, then, we are actually making three kinds of meaning simultaneously. We are able to do so because there are three kinds of simultaneous grammatical structures working in any English clause. We can separate out each type of meaning, by varying the clause in only one respect at a time. So, compared to our initial clause of *John eats poached eggs*, we can see that:

Poached eggs are eaten by John.

has the same ideational meaning (we are still talking about what action John performed on eggs), the same interpersonal meaning (it is still a declarative, a giving of information) but now it is a message about *eggs* – we have changed the thematic organization of the message, and so we have changed its textual meaning. In

Did John eat poached eggs?

we have the same ideational meaning, and the same textual meaning (that this is a message about John), but this time a different interpersonal meaning: now I am no longer *giving* you information but *demanding* it, achieved through the structure of putting the Finite verbal element before the Subject, thereby splitting the verbal components of the clause into two (*did, eat*). With

John, eat poached eggs.

we have changed the clause's interpersonal meaning. The clause is still ideationally about *John, eating* and *eggs*, and still textually to do with *John*; but it is now an imperative – not a giving or demanding of information, but a demand for action. This is realized through the structure of having *John* as a vocative element, having no Finite verb but only a Predicate element. Finally, with

Pete, read your books.

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the ideational meaning has changed, although textually and interpersonally the meanings remain the same as in the immediately preceding example.

These sentences demonstrate that a lexico-grammar enables language not only to make more meanings (to provide an unlimited creative potential) but also to mean several things at once. This is possible because the lexico-grammar enables language to have several simultaneous layers of structure. Chapters Six to Ten describe these simultaneous structural layers.

C. Principles of Grammatical Analysis

Having established that it is the lexico-grammar which gives language its creative potential, we will now focus on how the lexico-grammar is organized so that its creative potential can be exploited.

There are two preliminary observations that we can make of this level of lexico-grammar. The first is that we find a number of different kinds of units. The second is that these units are related to each other through constituency – smaller units make up bigger units, and bigger units are made up of smaller units.

We can begin to become aware of units of description and analysis by first of all considering the expression plane of language.

Consider Text 5.1 below, a partial version of which was presented in Chapter Four. Regarding this purely as a graphic representation (i.e. without any consideration of its meaning), we can ask what are the largest and smallest units we can recognize as physically distinct.

Text 5.1: Late Assignments

The School has a policy for the evaluation of late assignments which is fully explained in the document entitled 'Submission of Essays and Assignments', copies of which are available from any member of the School, or from the Departmental Office in Room 139 in the Woodstone Building.

Formal extensions of time are not granted as such, but if, through misfortune or bad planning, an assignment cannot be submitted on time, it may be submitted within the next 14 days. For each assignment, there are second and third collections on the following two weeks. Assignments in the second and third collections are divided into two categories. If the assignment is simply late it will be penalised. If it is late because of some unforeseen disability, it will not be penalised, provided that (i) documentary evidence of the disability is attached to the essay and (ii) the nature of the disability and of the evidence is acceptable to the Late Essay Committee.

Full details of penalties are provided in the 'Submission of Essays and Assignments' document.

Viewed as a piece of writing, this text is organized into a number of different units, each indicated by different spatial or graphological conventions, as summarized in Table 5.2.

When we arrange the units of the graphological expression plane in this way, it becomes obvious that the units are related to each other through constituency: each unit is made up of one or more of the units below.

Table 5.2   Units and criteria of graphological expression (rank scale of the
graphological stratum)

Units	Criteria used to identify units
paragraph	double spacing
sentence	full stop
comma-unit	comma
word	spaces
letter	smaller spaces

We call this a ranked constituent analysis. In this case it's a ranked constituent analysis of orthographic expression. It is constituent because units at each level are made up of one or more of the units at the level below. It is ranked because we have organized it in terms of biggest to smallest. We can describe it also as a rank scale.

This ranked constituent analysis, or rank scale, indicates that the letter is the ultimate constituent of writing, i.e. it is the smallest unit of orthographic representation in English. It cannot be further divided (we do not have 'sub-letters').

Note that in establishing this rank scale of graphological units, we made no reference to the meaning or content of the passage, nor to its phonological properties. If someone were to read the passage aloud, we could go on to analyse the same passage from the point of view of its phonological expression. Still without making any reference to the meaning of the passage, we could analyse its phonological expression by asking what are the largest and smallest units of sound that we can recognize. We would be able to establish a ranked constituent analysis as given in Table 5.3.

This is a ranked constituent analysis of the expression plane in its phonological realization. It indicates that:

- tone groups are made up of feet which are made up of syllables which are made up of phonemes
- the phoneme is the smallest unit of sound that we can identify: it cannot be further subdivided. It is thus the ultimate constituent of the phonological expression plane.

The fact that the expression plane appears to be organized in constituent hierarchies suggests that this notion of constituency plays an important role in language as a whole. And in fact establishing the constituency hierarchy for the lexico-grammar is an important first step in examining grammatical structure.

Constituents of the content plane

In order to establish the rank-scale for the lexico-grammar, we need to consider language as content, not expression. We need to look again at Text 5.1, this time considering it as a piece of meaning. We need to ask: what are the largest and the smallest units of meaning that we can distinguish?

First of all, the entire passage can be seen to have meaning. We already have a name for this overall semantic unit: text.

The text as a whole can then be seen to be constituted of a number of different-sized units of meaning, most indicated by orthographic convention. The largest grammatical

In this clause *the captured beetle* is the Subject, but what roles are being played by *a poisonous bite* and *the redback spider*?

These examples suggest that our notion of Subject is really a fusion of three different functional roles. In fact Halliday and Matthiessen (2004: 53–62) identifies three different types of 'subjects':

1. the psychological subject: the psychological subject is the constituent which is 'the concern of the message' (Halliday and Matthiessen 2004: 55), the information that is the 'point of departure' for the message. Halliday uses the functional label THEME to refer to this psychological subject.
2. the grammatical subject: the grammatical subject is the constituent 'of which something is predicated' (*ibid.*), the constituent we can argue about. Halliday retains the term SUBJECT to refer to this grammatical subject.
3. the logical subject: the logical subject is the constituent which is the 'doer of the action', the constituent that actually carries out the process. Halliday uses the term ACTOR to refer to this logical subject.

If we separate out these three functions, we can now capture the differences between our three clauses:

The redback spider	*gave its prey a poisonous bite.*
Subject/Actor/Theme	

In our first clause, we see that the three functional roles of Subject, Actor and Theme are 'fused' or conflated onto the same participant. This is what we refer to as the unmarked correlation between these roles.

A poisonous bite	*was given to the captured beetle*	*by the redback spider.*
Subject/Theme		Actor

Here we have the roles of Subject and Theme conflated in the constituent *a poisonous bite*, while the Actor, *the redback spider*, is now a separate constituent.

The captured beetle	*was given a poisonous bite*	*by the redback spider.*
Subject/Theme		Actor

Here Subject and Theme conflate in *the captured beetle*, with the Actor a separate constituent.

A poisonous bite	*the captured beetle*	*was given*	*by the redback spider.*
Theme	Subject		Actor

Here all three different 'subjects' are played by different constituents: the point of departure for the message is *a poisonous bite*, while the grammatical Subject is *the captured beetle*, with *the redback spider* as the doer of the action.

By the redback spider the captured beetle was given a poisonous bite.	
Theme/Actor	Subject

A final variation gives us Theme and Actor conflating on *by the redback spider*, which is not the same constituent as the grammatical Subject, *the captured beetle*.

What these examples demonstrate is that there are in fact three different types of meaning being made within the clause: a meaning about who grammatically is the argument of the clause, a meaning about who represents the doer of the action, and a meaning

Table 5.3   Rank scale of the phonological stratum

Unit	Criteria for identifying units
'verse'	silence either side (before we start and after we finish reading the text)
tone group	tonic (where the intonation movement is most noticeable)
foot	salience (where the rhythmic beat falls)
syllable	articulation of sound clusters
phoneme	articulation of discrete sounds

unit we can identify is the sentence, indicated by an initial capital letter and a full stop at the end. The sentence is a unit of meaning because it represents a coherent, structured packaging of information about something, but it is clearly smaller than the text itself. Here is Text 5.1, with // showing the boundaries between sentences.

Text 5.1: Late Assignments

The School has a policy for the evaluation of late assignments which is fully explained in the document entitled 'Submission of Essays and Assignments', copies of which are available from any member of the School, or from the Departmental Office in Room 139 in the Woodstone Building.//

Formal extensions of time are not granted as such, but if, through misfortune or bad planning, an assignment cannot be submitted on time, it may be submitted within the next 14 days.// For each assignment, there are second and third collections on the following two weeks.// Assignments in the second and third collections are divided into two categories.// If the assignment is simply late it will be penalised.// If it is late because of some unforeseen disability, it will not be penalised, provided that (i) documentary evidence of the disability is attached to the essay and (ii) the nature of the disability and of the evidence is acceptable to the Late Essay Committee.//

Full details of penalties are provided in the 'Submission of Essays and Assignments' document.//

Each sentence may in turn be made up of a number sentence parts, technically called clauses. Clauses, often indicated by colons, semi-colons or commas, make smaller chunks of meaning than the sentence. Here is Text 5.1, with / used to show clause boundaries:

Text 5.1: Late Assignments

The School has a policy for the evaluation of late assignments/ which is fully explained in the document entitled 'Submission of Essays and Assignments',/ copies of which are available from any member of the School, or from the Departmental Office in Room 139 in the Woodstone Building.//

Formal extensions of time are not granted as such,/ but if, through misfortune or bad planning, an assignment cannot be submitted on time,/ it may be submitted within the next 14 days.// For each assignment, there are second and third collections on the following two weeks.// Assignments in the second and third collections are divided into two categories.// If the assignment is simply late/ it will be penalised.// If it is late because of some unforeseen disability,/ it will not be penalised,/ provided that (i) documentary evidence of the disability is attached to the essay/ and (ii) the nature of the disability and of the evidence is acceptable to the Late Essay Committee.//

Full details of penalties are provided in the 'Submission of Essays and Assignments' document.//

Each clause can be further subdivided into groups of words, sometimes separated by commas, which we technically refer to as phrases or groups. Phrases or groups are collections of words doing a similar job in the clause: for example, a nominal group is a group of noun-like words, a verbal group contains the verb elements, a prepositional group realizes meanings about time, place, manner, etc. The phrases and groups in Text 5.1 are shown within parentheses[1]:

Text 5.1: Late Assignments

(The School) (has) (a policy for the evaluation of late assignments)/ (which) (is fully explained) (in the document entitled 'Submission of Essays and Assignments',)/ (copies of which) (are) (available) (from any member of the School,) (or) (from the Departmental Office in Room 139 in the Woodstone Building.)//

(Formal extensions of time) (are not granted) (as such),/ (but if), (through misfortune or bad planning,) (an assignment) (cannot be submitted) (on time),/ (it) (may be submitted) (within the next 14 days).// (For each assignment), (there) (are) (second and third collections) (on the following two weeks).// (Assignments in the second and third collections) (are divided) (into two categories.)// (If) (the assignment) (is) (simply late)/ (it) (will be penalised.)// (If) (it) (is) (late) (because of some unforeseen disability),/ (it) (will not be penalised),/ (provided that) (i) (documentary evidence of the disability) (is attached) (to the essay)/ (and) (ii) (the nature of the disability and of the evidence) (is) (acceptable) (to the Late Essay Committee.)//

(Full details of penalties) (are provided) (in the 'Submission of Essays and Assignments' document.)//

Part of the meaning of each phrase or group, however, is the individual words which make it up, so we need to recognize the unit word. The boundaries between words are clearly indicated orthographically by spacing, so that there is no need to display the text again. Finally, the meaning of a word in fact comes from a putting together of smaller meaning chunks, which we technically call morphemes. The word *misfortune*, for example, is made up of the following morphemes:

- content morpheme: *fortune* (this morpheme expresses the basic meaning of the word)
- grammatical morpheme: *mis-* (this morpheme functions to form the opposite, or antonym, of the content morpheme)

Similarly, the word *penalties* contains two morphemes:

- content morpheme: *penalty*
- plural morpheme: *-s*

Table 5.4   Initial list of content units in Text 5.1

content units	orthographic signals
text	paragraph
sentence	capital letter/full stop
clause	comma (often colon, semi-colon)
group/phrase	comma
word	spacing
morpheme	no signal (except that we tend to break words at morpheme boundaries when we need to hyphenate at the end of a line)

As we will not be pursuing morphemic analysis in this book, we will not take the division to this level. What we end up with, then, is the list of content carrying constituents given in Table 5.4.

Thus, in looking at Text 5.1 as a piece of meaningful language, we have been able to identify a number of different units of meaning, some of which correlate fairly closely with the units we identified when we looked at it as a piece of written expression. The close correlation between constituents of written expression and content constituents is explained by the fact that principles of orthography are derived from how we perceive language to be structured.

Grammatical constituents: the rank scale

Although we have now identified the meaningful units ranging from largest to smallest that realize our passage, there are certain problems with using the listing above as our set of grammatical units.

The first problem is that the unit the text does not belong in the lexico-grammatical rank scale. Text, as was discussed in Chapter Four, is a semantic unit and not a lexico-grammatical one. The relationship between text and everything below it is not one of constituency but one of realization. As Halliday and Hasan (1976: 2) explain:

> A text is not something that is like a sentence, only bigger; it is something that differs from a sentence in kind. 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 REALIZATION . . . A text does not CONSIST OF sentences; it is REALIZED BY, or encoded in, sentences. (their emphasis)

One way to understand this difference between text and sentence is to consider how a sentence-by-sentence description of the text would fail to describe its texture. Cohesive patterns, as we saw in Chapter Two, may relate items that are not of the same kind (i.e. not the same type of constituents): for example, there may be a referential link between the single word/morpheme *it* and an entire two paragraphs of preceding text. Similarly, items cohesively linked do not have to necessarily be next to each other in the text: for example, a word in the first clause of a text may have a lexical link with a word or words used much later on.

These two features of cohesive relations point to an important distinction between what we describe as text or discourse patterns and what we describe as grammatical patterns. Grammatical description is limited by two general characteristics:

1. it relates items of the same kind to each other (e.g. clauses to clauses, words to words, phrases to phrases, etc.)
2. it relates items that are adjacent, or nearly adjacent, to each other.

We will therefore remove text from our grammatical constituent scale. It *is* a unit of linguistic description, but at the semantic stratum, not at the grammatical stratum. This leaves us with the following content units: sentence, clause, group/phrase, word and morpheme.

For various reasons we will also remove the sentence from this scale, and instead add a new term, clause complex, next to, not above, the term clause. The term sentence refers to a unit of written expression, and is therefore biased towards the description of written language. Halliday (1994: 216) suggests that if we wish our grammatical description to deal equally well with spoken and written language, we need a unit that is neutral for mode. Hence, the use of the term clause complex, which refers to the association of clauses in sequence, in either written text (in which case clause complex boundaries are indicated by full stops), or in spoken text (in which case clause complex boundaries are indicated by a combination of rhythm, intonation and pauses).

The label clause complex is not, however, placed 'above' the clause on the rank scale, but rather next to it. This is because the relationship between two clauses in a clause complex is not considered to be a constituency relationship, but one which Halliday and Matthiessen (2004) describes as a logical structure. It is a relationship of (inter)dependency,

more like the relationship between cohesively related items than the constituency relationship between stages of a text. We examine the clause complex in detail in Chapter Nine.

With these emendations made, then, we have established that the rank scale at the grammatical stratum is as listed in Table 5.5.

This grammatical rank scale defines for us the units of analysis and description at the grammatical stratum, and a complete grammatical description of a language would describe how each of those units is organized.

Remember that in identifying units of linguistic analysis we are trying to identify the units that carry different types of linguistic patterns. By patterns we mean different structural organizations, or different structural configurations. In separating out clauses from groups, and groups from morphemes, we are saying that each of these units carries patterns of different kinds; each unit is structured differently from the others.

At clause rank the kind of structures we find are those of participants carrying out actions in relation to other participants and situated in time or space. For example *The School has a policy for the evaluation of late assignments*. This is a structure we describe through such labels as Subject, Finite, Predicator, Complement.

At group rank, on the other hand, we find structures of expansion and modification, where there is one essential element to the group (the Head) with its various optional and functionally distinct Modifiers. For example, the structure of the nominal (noun) group *the*

Table 5.5   Rank scale at the lexico-grammatical stratum in a systemic approach

clause – clause complex
group/phrase
word
morpheme

three hairy redback spiders over there includes a number of possible elements before and after the head word *spiders* (the head word is called the Thing in the nominal group): Deictic (*the*), Numerative (*three*), Epithet (*hairy*), Classifier (*redback*), Qualifier (*over there*). (For the description of the nominal group, see Halliday and Matthiessen 2004: 311–35).

At morpheme level, our structures are concerned with the different combinatorial possibilities of free and bound morphemes. For example, the free morpheme *friend* can be followed by a number of bound morphemes, including -ship (*friendship*), -ly (*friendly*), -less (*friendless*), or preceded by be- (*befriend*), but it cannot be combined with other bound morphemes in English, e.g. dis- (**disfriend*), or -ize (**friendize*).

Thus, although each unit on the rank scale relates to the other units through constituency, we have to keep each unit distinct because each carries patterns of a different kind, and each unit requires a different structural description.

Bracketing

To this point, we have suggested the purpose of a grammar: to make infinite meanings from finite expression units, and to make meanings simultaneously. We have also seen that grammar is an intermediate level of coding, which breaks the bi-unique relationship between content and expression. Finally, we have suggested that the basic organization of a grammar is a constituent one, from which we are able to establish a rank scale, which gives us our different units of grammatical description. We now need to consider how we are going to uncover and describe the structures of the different units.

Since the grammar is composed of units which stand in a constituent relationship to each other, it is possible to reveal and describe part of how grammar works by looking at how grammatical constituents go together to make up structures.

One way of starting to think about describing structures, then, is to undertake what is called constituent bracketing. The technique we will use here is what is known as minimal bracketing, or bracketing according to the rank scale. (For a discussion of how minimal bracketing contrasts with the maximal bracketing tradition, see Halliday 1994: 20–4.)

Having decided that the highest unit of grammatical analysis we will be working with is the clause, a first approach to uncovering its structure comes from analysing it in terms of its constituents. For example, consider the clause:

All students must satisfy all assessment requirements.

One of the ways we can describe the structure of this clause is to consider quite simply how it is put together: how we get from the largest constituent (clause) to the smallest (in our case, words). By using graphical presentations in the form of brackets or tree diagrams (see below), we display how the clause is 'put together' at each level of the rank scale.

For example, the structure of the clause above can be analysed as follows, using a tree diagram, with branches (straight lines) and nodes (where lines meet)

| All | students | must | satisfy | all | assessment | requirements |
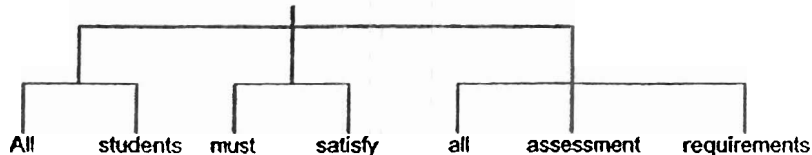
The same structural information can be captured using brackets:

((All) (students)) ((must) (satisfy)) ((all) (assessment) (requirements))

Both forms of representation are types of bracketing, and exemplify a minimal bracketing procedure. Minimal bracketing analysis involves taking the largest grammatical constituent (in our rank scale, this is the clause) and then progressively dividing the clause into the units which make it up *at each rank* (i.e. first phrases/groups, then words, then morphemes). By this procedure, each constituent is shown to be made up of one or more of the constituents of the lower rank, until the ultimate constituents of the grammatical stratum (morphemes) are reached. That is:

1. first, the clause is bracketed into the phrases/groups which make it up
2. then, each group/phrase is bracketed into the words that make it up

In a complete bracketing, each word would then be bracketed into the morphemes which make it up, but for our purposes we will only take the analysis as far as words.

Here is another example of a minimally bracketed clause:

| The | Professor | has | prepared | a | provisional | exam | timetable |
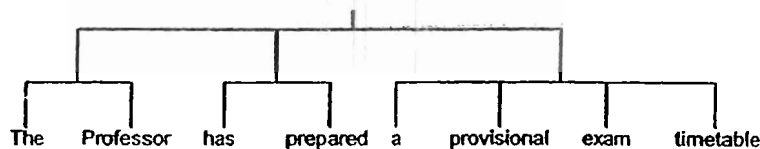
Using parentheses, this example would be:

((The) (Professor)) ((has) (prepared)) ((a) (provisional) (exam) (timetable))

The purpose of bracketing the clause in this way is to give us an initial insight into how the clause is put together. The bracketing of the two simple clauses given above gives us the following information:

1. each clause is made up of a number of phrases or groups;
2. typically, these groups are sequenced so that we find a nominal group, followed by a verbal group, followed by another nominal group;

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3. the nominal group can consist of a number of words of which the main word is (in these examples) the last word of the group, and is a noun (since we can substitute a pronoun for it). Various words (such as articles, adjectives, etc.) can come before the noun to give more information about the noun;

4. the verbal group may consist of a single word, where this word is a verb (a word which tells us what processes or actions are involved in the clause). Alternatively, the verbal group may involve several words before the main verb, which specify further dimensions such as the time (tense) and force (modulation) of the process.

Few clauses, however, have the simplicity and regularity of structure of these manufactured examples. Consider the following clause:

Application forms can be collected from the Secretary's Office on the first floor.

This clause contains two examples of prepositional phrases: *from the Secretary's Office* and *on the first floor*. Our first approach to bracketing these prepositional phrases may be to simply chop the phrase into the four words that make it up: *from, the, Secretary's, office*. However, it might occur to you that once you have chopped the preposition off, what you are left with is in fact a nominal group: *the Secretary's office* is a group of the same kind as *application forms*, since it has a noun as its head word. We note the same structure in our second prepositional phrase: preposition (*on*) and then nominal group (*the first floor*). It seems, then, that a prepositional phrase contains within it a nominal group, and this structural information can be captured in our bracketing as follows:

Application forms can be collected from the Secretary's office on the first floor
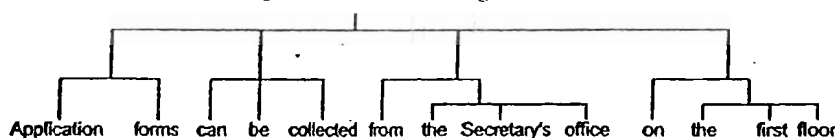
Note that what we are seeing here, then, is a variation on the typical constituent structure of the clause. Whereas we expect units of one rank to be made up of units of the next rank lower down, the prepositional phrase is an example of a unit of one rank being made up of a unit of the same rank, i.e. a phrase within a phrase. This is an example of embedding, or rank shift, and will be considered in more detail below. It is because the prepositional phrase has this more complex embedded structure that we call it a phrase rather than a group.

Now consider how you would bracket the following clause:

Application forms for postgraduate scholarships can be collected from the Secretary's Office on the first floor of the Arts Faculty building.

This clause now contains two additional prepositional phrases: *for postgraduate scholarships* and *of the Arts Faculty building*. However, these prepositional phrases do not seem to be functioning in the same way as the other two prepositional phrases in the clause. The following initial bracketing of the clause would **not** be satisfactory:

* (Application forms) (for postgraduate scholarships) (can be collected) (from the Secretary's Office) (on the first floor) (of the Arts Faculty building).

The reason this bracketing is unsatisfactory is that it does not capture the dependency that exists between *for postgraduate scholarships* and the nominal group *application forms*. The phrase *for postgraduate scholarships* is only 'in' the clause in order to give more information about which application forms. Similarly, *of the Arts Faculty building* is only in the clause to specify more clearly the first floor of which building. To capture the structure operating here we can initially bracket the clause as follows:

(Application forms for postgraduate scholarships) (can be collected) (from the Secretary's Office) (on the first floor of the Arts Faculty building).
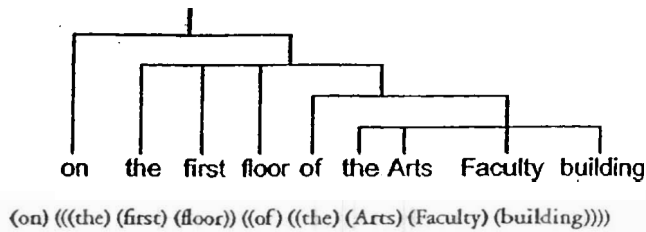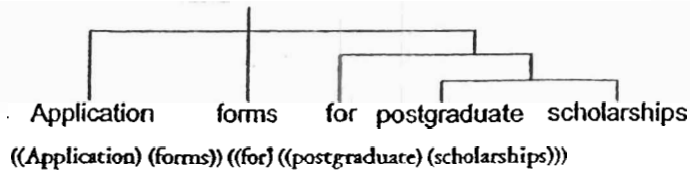
The first and final constituents would then be bracketed as follows:

Application   forms   for   postgraduate   scholarships

((Application) (forms)) ((for) ((postgraduate) (scholarships)))

on   the   first   floor   of   the   Arts   Faculty   building

(on) (((the) (first) (floor)) ((of) ((the) (Arts) (Faculty) (building))))

These examples illustrate that sometimes a prepositional phrase can operate within a nominal group, to post-modify or qualify the head noun. Post-modifying prepositional phrases are not constituents at the first rank of the clause, but at the next rank down (the rank of phrase/group). In other words, your bracketing must capture that they are functioning *within* a unit at the rank of phrase/group, and not within the unit at clause rank.

This means that in dividing a clause into its constituents, you need to be able to decide just when a particular phrase or group is operating at the clause rank, and when it is operating at the phrase/group rank. There are a number of tests you can use:

1. movability: if an element is a clause rank constituent, it is likely to be independently movable. For example, in a clause like *For each assignment, there are second and third collections on the following two weeks*, you will find that you can move the phrase *on the following two weeks*:

> For each assignment, on the following two weeks there are second and third collections.
> On the following two weeks there are second and third collections for each assignment.

Where an element is *not* a constituent at clause rank but at group/phrase rank, you will find that it is generally not independently movable. For example, with *The School has a policy for the evaluation of late assignments* you can establish that the prepositional phrase *of late assignments* is not operating at clause rank by trying to move it to another position in the clause:

> * Of late assignments the School has a policy
> * The School has a policy of late assignments for the evaluation

2. substitution: elements which are acting together as a single clause constituent should be reducible to a single substituted item. For example, with a nominal group you should be able to substitute a pronoun, with a verbal group you should be able to collapse the verbal meaning into a single lexical verb (simple present or simple past tense). By asking just what your substitution item is standing for, you will be able to determine the bound-

aries of your constituents. For example, in *Formal extensions of time are not granted*, you can substitute the word *They*, to give you a rewritten clause *They are not granted*. This shows you that *formal extensions of time* is the nominal group, and not just *formal extensions*.

3. probe questions: constituents at clause rank will 'answer' to a range of probe questions. To probe the verbal group, ask 'What happened?', 'What did they do?' All the elements of the clause which respond to that probe represent your verbal group. For example, to determine the verbal group constituent in *it may be submitted*, ask 'What happens to it?' Answer: *may be submitted*. Nominal groups will answer to 'Who?' or 'What?' probes. Start with the verb, and ask 'Who did it?' or 'What did it do it to?' Again, all the parts of the clause that respond to the probe are your nominal group. For example, with *Documentary evidence of the disability must be attached to the essay*, determine firstly the verbal group *must be attached*, and then probe by asking 'What must be attached?' Answer: *documentary evidence of the disability*. With nominal groups after the verbal group, for example, *The School has a policy for the evaluation of late assignments*, again find the verbal group and then ask 'What does it have?' Answer: *a policy for the evaluation of late assignments*. With clauses in which the main verb is *to be*, you will often find that the following nominal group consists only of an adjective, rather than a noun: for example, *The exam timetable is ready now*. Use the same probe, asking 'What is the timetable?' Answer: *ready*.

Prepositional phrases and adverbial elements respond to a variety of circumstantial probes: when, how, why, in what way, with whom, of what, what about. Again, start by identifying the verbal group and then ask what seem the appropriate questions and remember to include everything in the response within the same phrase. For example, with *The exam timetable is ready now*, you need to probe with 'When is it ready?' which gives you *now* as a constituent, and since *now* and *ready* cannot be probed by the same question, you know they are each separate clausal constituents. A more complex example is *Copies are available from any member of the School, or from the Departmental Office in Room 139 in the Woodstone Building*. Here the probe test gives us *available* in answer to 'What are they?', and *from any member of the School or from the Departmental Office* in answer to 'Where from', and then *Room 139 in the Woodstone Building* in answer to 'Where?'

Embedding or rank shift

Very early in your bracketing career you will discover that sometimes a clause constituent seems to be a complex structure in itself. The case of the prepositional phrase considered above highlights one of the main complexities that bracketing can reveal, one that is important in understanding the structure of clauses. Consider how you would bracket the following clause, for example:

All students who are completing this year must submit their final essays.

If you apply the probe, substitution and movability tests suggested above, you will have no trouble identifying the verbal group (what must they do? they *must submit*) and the final nominal group (what must they submit? *their final essays*). However, when you probe the first part of the clause with the 'who' probe, you will find that the answer appears to be a very long nominal group *all students who are completing this year*.

That this is a nominal group is demonstrated, firstly, by the fact that the phrase is concerned with the noun *students*, and secondly (if you were not confident), by the fact that the

entire phrase can be substituted with the pronoun *they*. Thus, the initial bracketing of the clause is as follows:

(All students who are completing this year) (must submit) (their final essays).

Bracketing this nominal group, however, reveals that it contains within it not just another phrase but *another clause*. This is a more complex example of embedding or rank shift. Here we have a unit of one rank (phrase/group) being made up of a unit of the rank above (clause). We deal with this by simply working through the minimal bracketing of the embedded clause (note that the embedded clause also contains a prepositional phrase, thus involving further embedding). The structure of the nominal group can be bracketed as follows:

(All) (students) ((who) ((are) (completing)) (((this) (year)))
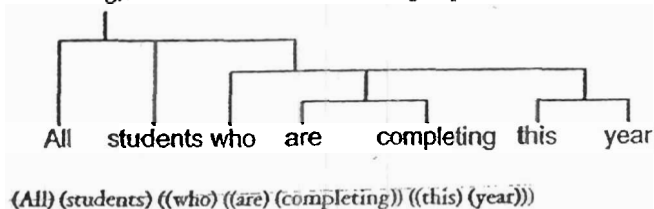
Embedded clauses (clauses functioning at group/phrase rank) occur commonly in the post-modifying position in nominal groups, where they function to specify more information about the head noun (e.g. which students?). However, they can also get into the clause directly, i.e. not through dependence on a head noun. For example:

Failing the course will mean exclusion.

Here we find that what answers our 'who/what?' probe is not a nominal group but in fact a clause: *failing the course*. This clause would be initially as follows:

((Failing) (the) (course)) ((will) (mean)) (exclusion).
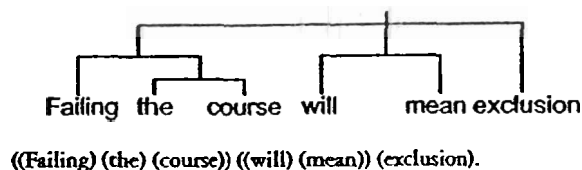
Note that we can get clauses filling the slot after the verb:

His excuse was that he had already failed the course.

Here the answer to the probe 'what was his excuse?' is the embedded clause *that he had already failed the course.*

It is also possible for clauses to fill the slots on both sides of the verbal group:

(((To) (pass)) ((the) (exams))) ((would) (be)) ((((to) (work)) ((a) (miracle)))
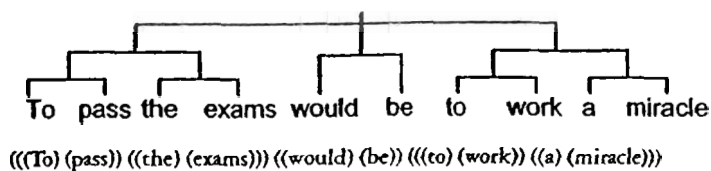
As you will have realized as you study these examples, embedding is a way of boosting the content of a clause, by exploiting the clause's potential to recycle through the ranks. Once you have learnt to recognize embedding, then it need not present you with any problems. However, as systemic linguistics treats one kind of embedding slightly differently from many other grammatical models, one further explanation is necessary.

Embedding vs the clause complex

Many grammatical approaches would treat each of the following sentences as involving embedded structures:

i) The Department believes that students have rights and responsibilities.

ii) The Examiner said that the candidate should pass.

iii) You will be advised of your results when the Examiner's reports have been received.

Many approaches would describe the 'that' clauses in i) and ii) as embedded noun clauses, while in iii) the clause introduced with 'when' would be described as an adverbial clause.

In a systemic analysis, sentences i), ii) and iii) are examples of clause complexes: they involve two clauses, with each clause having its own internal constituent structure. In i) and ii), the two clauses stand in a relationship Halliday calls projection (Halliday and Matthiessen 2004: 441ff.), whereby a process of mental or verbal action (e.g. *thinking, believing, saying, telling* . . .) is able to have a clause attached which either reports indirectly someone's speech or thoughts, or quotes directly someone's words or thoughts. In iii) the relationship between the two clauses is one of enhancement, whereby the second clause expands on the meaning of the first by contributing some relevant circumstantial information.

Systemic analysts would argue that clauses in such sequences (and sequences can be of any number of clauses) are not in a constituent relationship (neither clause is a 'part of' the other clause), but they are in a logical relationship: each clause is in an (inter-)dependency relationship with the other. A systemic bracketing of these clause complexes would therefore treat each of the clauses as having a separate structure, as follows:

i) ((The) (Department)) (believes)// (that) (students) (have) ((rights) (and) (responsibilities)).

ii) ((The) (Examiner)) (said)// (that) ((the) (candidate)) ((should) (pass)).

iii) (You) ((will) (be) (advised)) ((of) ((your) (results)))// (when) ((the) (Examiner's) (reports)) ((have) (been) (received)).

Clause complex analysis is covered in Chapter Nine.

Labelling

We are now in a position to divide any clause into the constituents which make it up, and on the basis of our minimal bracketing we can make comments about the frequency and types of embedding that we observe. However, bracketing on its own is a very limited tool in grammatical analysis as it does not really tell us anything more about the structure than we already knew. We have, after all, known for some time that clauses are made up of groups, which are made up of words, and we also know that rank shift of various

Table 5.6 Examples of form/class labels at each rank

Rank	Form/Class Labels
clause rank	finite, non-finite, dependent clause, subordinate clause, relative clause . . . etc.
group rank	prepositional phrase, adverbial phrase, nominal group . . . etc.
word rank	noun, adjective, article, adverb . . . etc.

Table 5.7 Examples of function labels at each rank

Rank	Function Labels
clause rank	Main clause, Qualifying clause, Projected clause, etc.
group rank	Subject, Finite, Object, Agent, Actor . . . etc.
word rank	Deictic, Classifier, Thing, Head, Modifier . . . etc.

kinds is possible. In order to push our description of grammatical structure further, then, we need a more powerful descriptive technique.

Such a technique is labelling. If we can attach labels to the nodes of our structural trees, then the bracketing becomes very much more useful. However, there is an important distinction to be made between formal and functional labelling. You will remember from Chapter Three that formal labelling involves classifying an item in terms of its class membership (what it is on its own), whereas functional labelling involves classifying an item in terms of its role (what it does in relation to the whole). Formal and functional labels exist for grammatical constituents at each grammatical rank.

Some examples of form labels, often known as class labels, are provided in Table 5.6.

At word rank these labels are sometimes referred to as the parts of speech. Class labels like these tell us to which grammatical class an individual item belongs.

Function labels, on the other hand, tell us what grammatical function an item is performing relative to the whole. Some common function labels are exemplified in Table 5.7

It is easy to demonstrate that class and function labels do not always match up. Items of the same class can perform different functions, and the same functions can be performed by items of different classes. For example:

Students don't like books.	The different functional roles of Subject (students) and Object (books) are both filled by items of the same class (nouns)
Students don't like doing exams.	The functional role of Object, filled by a nominal element in the first example, is here filled by a non-finite clause (doing exams)

In order to capture the possible range of correspondence and non-correspondence as part of an analysis of grammatical structure, a description that can label grammatical items at each rank for *both* class and function would seem essential.

However, in order to make this introduction to systemic grammar manageable, two limits on its comprehensiveness have had to be imposed:

1. Focus on the clause: of the various units of the rank scale, we will focus only on describing the structure of the clause. This is because the clause is generally recognized to be the pivotal unit of grammatical meaning, and also because patterns which can be identified for the clause have parallels for units of lower ranks. Once you are familiar with clause structure, you should find it relatively easy to learn about phrase and group structure by referring to Halliday and Matthiessen 2004.
2. Priority to functional labelling: although both class and functional labelling of constituents is essential in a comprehensive description of the clause, we will concentrate on exploring functional labelling and its implications, leaving class labels in the background. This is because it is this functional perspective that allows us to make explicit how the clause functions simultaneously to express different meanings (see below). A rudimentary familiarity with the following class labels will be assumed: noun phrase (or nominal group), verb phrase (verbal group), prepositional phrase; noun, verb, preposition, adverb, adjective, conjunction. Many standard university grammars of English can familiarize you with these class labels.

Multifunctionality of clause constituents

Since we are focusing on the functional labelling of clause constituents only, the next issue we need to address is: what functional labels do we attach to the constituents? Rather than offering just one set of functional labels to be used in clause analysis, we will explore Halliday's claim that we need to develop *three* sets of functional labels to describe clause structure in order to reveal how the clause is a simultaneous realization of ideational, interpersonal and textual meanings.

We've seen that the lexico-grammar enables us to mean more than one thing at a time. This semantic complexity is possible because in nearly all cases the constituents of the clause are playing more than one functional role at a time. Because the systemic approach seeks to describe these distinct levels of functional organization, it might more accurately be described as a *multi*-functional approach to language.

This multifunctionality of the clause can be brought out, as Halliday suggests, by looking at what we usually think of as one functional role. He takes the role of Subject, as probably the most familiar grammatical role. In the following clause:

i) The redback spider gave the captured beetle a poisonous bite.

you probably have no trouble identifying *the redback spider* as Subject. But now look at example ii):

ii) A poisonous bite was given to the captured beetle by the redback spider.

If we ask now which part of the clause is Subject, we would identify *a poisonous bite*. What, then, has happened to *the redback spider*? Now look at iii)

iii) The captured beetle was given a poisonous bite by the redback spider.

Now the Subject is *the captured beetle*. How can we describe the roles of *the redback spider* and *a poisonous bite*? Now look at iv)

iv) A poisonous bite is what the captured beetle was given by the redback spider.

about where the point of departure for the message is. The examples also demonstrate that one clause constituent can play more than one functional role at a time: it may be both Subject and Theme, or Subject, Actor and Theme simultaneously.

In the unmarked (i.e. typical) case, there is a fusion or conflation of roles: the constituent which plays the role of Subject also plays the role of Theme and of Actor. As Halliday points out, grammars which tend to be based on 'typical' cases will tend to talk of only one Subject role because that is all they need to describe the typical case. However, once we start looking at how these typical cases can vary, we need to recognize that there are three simultaneous structures operating in every clause. A comprehensive analysis will need to separate these three types of meaning.

That a clause is expressing three different strands of meaning can be demonstrated further by exploring how a clause can be varied in three different ways. For example, consider the following set of clauses:

The redback spider gave the captured beetle a poisonous bite.
Did the redback spider give the captured beetle a poisonous bite?
What did the redback spider give the captured beetle?
Who gave the captured beetle a poisonous bite?
Give a poisonous bite, redback spider!
What a poisonous bite the redback spider gave the captured beetle!

In this set of clauses, some aspects are being varied – but not all aspects. The clauses are alike in some ways, different in others. In fact, while the ideational meaning (who the doer is, what reality is being represented) remains constant, the interpersonal meaning (how the clause constructs a dialogic role) has been varied. Now consider a second set of clauses:

The redback spider gave the captured beetle a poisonous bite.
It was the redback spider who gave the captured beetle a poisonous bite
By the redback spider the captured beetle was given a poisonous bite.
A poisonous bite was what the redback spider gave the captured beetle.
To the captured beetle the redback spider gave a poisonous bite.

In this set, the interpersonal meaning remains the same: each clause realizes the same Mood of 'declarative', thus all are interactively structured to give information. In addition, the ideational meaning is the same: all the clauses are still about the spider, the beetle and the bite. But the clauses differ in their textual meaning: what is taken as the point of departure for each message is different, ranging from the spider, to the beetle, to the bite. Now consider this final set of clauses:

The redback spider gave the captured beetle a poisonous bite.
The redback spider bit the captured beetle with poison.
The redback spider sniffed the captured beetle.
The redback spider thought about biting the captured beetle.
The redback spider has a poisonous bite.
The redback spider is the most deadly Australian spider.

In this set we see the same interpersonal meaning (all clauses are declaratives), the same textual meaning (the spider is the Theme in all clauses), but variation in the ideational

meaning: the spider is not 'doing' the same thing in each clause. His actions range from *giving* (as if bites were separate from the spider), to the very concrete physical action of *biting*, through to behavioural action (*sniffed*), mental action (*thought*), possession (*has*) and finally being (*is*).

What these examples illustrate is that each clause is simultaneously structured in three ways, to realize the three different types of meaning with which we are now reasonably familiar: ideational meaning, interpersonal meaning, textual meaning.

Each kind of meaning is expressed by means of certain configurations of functions. Analysing just the Subject of a clause, for example, is not enough to capture variations in interpersonal meaning. We must also attach functional labels to all the other constituents of the clause:

Did	*the redback spider*	*give*	*the captured beetle*	*a poisonous bite?*
Finite	Subject	Predicator	Complement	Complement

Since we have to describe how three different types of meaning are expressed through grammatical structures, we will have to find three sets of functional labels:

Did	*the redback spider*	*give*	*the captured beetle*	*a poisonous bite?*
i) Finite	Subject	Predicator	Complement	Complement
ii)	Actor	Process	Beneficiary	Range
iii) Theme		Rheme		

Thus, in studying the structure of the clause we are actually studying three types of configurations of functions. This means we have to ask three questions:

1. How is language structured to enable interpersonal meanings to be made? Here we explore how different Mood structures allow clauses to realize different interpersonal meanings in text.
2. How is language structured to enable ideational meanings to be made? Here we describe how different Transitivity structures allow clauses to realize different experiential meanings in text.
3. How is language structured to enable textual meanings to be made? Here we examine how different Theme structures allow clauses to realize different textual meanings in text.

In the next chapter we will concentrate on the first of these questions. We are going to look at how language is structured to encode interpersonal meanings, by examining the structure of the clause to enable interaction. However, one final comment is needed as to the type of grammar we will be presenting.

D. Descriptive Grammar and the Notion of 'Appropriacy'

Many people consider that in writing a grammar of English we are writing an account of how people *should* use English. For those people, the study of grammar equates with the study of how you should talk or write 'correctly'. Linguists, however, argue for a clear distinction between, on the one hand, the grammatical system of the language that enables people to use language the way they do, and, on the other hand, the moral and social judgements made by people about how the grammar of English should be used.

Grammars that impose moral judgements, that view grammar in terms of rights and wrongs, do's and don'ts, are prescriptive grammars. An account of how we should speak is a prescriptive or normative grammar. Such a grammar is interesting to linguists not for what it tells us about the facts of language, but for what it tells us about the values and prejudices of society at a given time.

The kind of grammars linguists write are descriptive grammars. A descriptive grammar makes no judgements about the goodness/badness, rightness/wrongness of language use. A descriptive grammar is an account of how speakers actually use the language. Linguists are not interested in making judgements about whether people should or shouldn't use particular structures. They simply describe the grammar that enables language users to do what they do.

Thus, for example, if we are writing a descriptive grammar of Modern Spoken Australian English, we might find that there is no need to describe what is usually called the subjunctive voice since it is almost never used: e.g. we rarely hear in the spoken language *I wish I were rich*, but always *I wish I was rich*, although in Modern Written Australian English we might still need to recognize the distinction.

Nor would we perhaps want to say that the WH-interrogative for asking about people is *Who* when Subject and *Whom* when indirect object, since in Modern Spoken Australian English you are unlikely to hear *Whom did you give it to?* but *Who did you give it to?*

But the fact that linguists do not make value judgements about language use is not to say that they do not assess usage at all. A linguist must be able to explain why saying *I seen the movie yesterday* or *What did youz all used to do?* is unlikely to impress a potential employer. While our descriptive goal means that we will not label such usages as 'wrong', a descriptive grammar must also allow us to explain the constraints on the use of such non-standard forms.

A descriptive grammar does this by making statements and assessments not about good/bad, right/wrong, but about appropriacy or inappropriacy. Degree of appropriacy is assessed not in terms of arbitrary blanket statements about inflexible grammatical 'rules', but as statements about grammar as a set of choices for use in context. Some choices are appropriate in certain contexts, but inappropriate in others. Part of what the grammar has to do is to specify the contextual dimensions of appropriacy for different choices.

Thus, our descriptive grammar would explain that the non-standard use of the past participle for the simple past (*seen*) or the form *youz* as a plural second person pronoun, while quite appropriate in situations of informality (e.g. among peers, where there is equal power, high affect, frequent contact), are inappropriate in formal situations (unequal power, etc.), as such forms have become carriers of certain socio-economic information (social class, ethnicity), and the overt display of such information interferes with an implicit ideological belief (fantasy) that we interact with others as equals.

The kind of grammatical description this book will be exploring allows us to make statements about the appropriacy of certain linguistic choices given the context of their use. It is a grammar by which we can relate the system of all possible choices (the total grammatical potential of a language) to the grammatical choices made when language is used within a particular context (how the potential is actualized in specific contexts of use).

Thus, although the following chapters plunge us into detailed grammatical analyses, the grammar is for us a means to an end. Being able to perform grammatical analyses, to understand how the lexico-grammar is structured, is an essential skill you must possess if you want to be able to describe, discuss, compare and understand how people use language to do social life.

The following chapter begins our excursion into the grammatical description of English in use by looking at the grammatical realization of interpersonal meaning through the Mood structure of the clause.

Note

1. Note that only phrases/groups operating at clause rank (i.e. non-embedded) are shown in this example, and discontinuous groups/phrases are not indicated.

UNIT 3	THE GRAMMAR OF EXPERIENTIAL MEANING: TRANSITIVITY
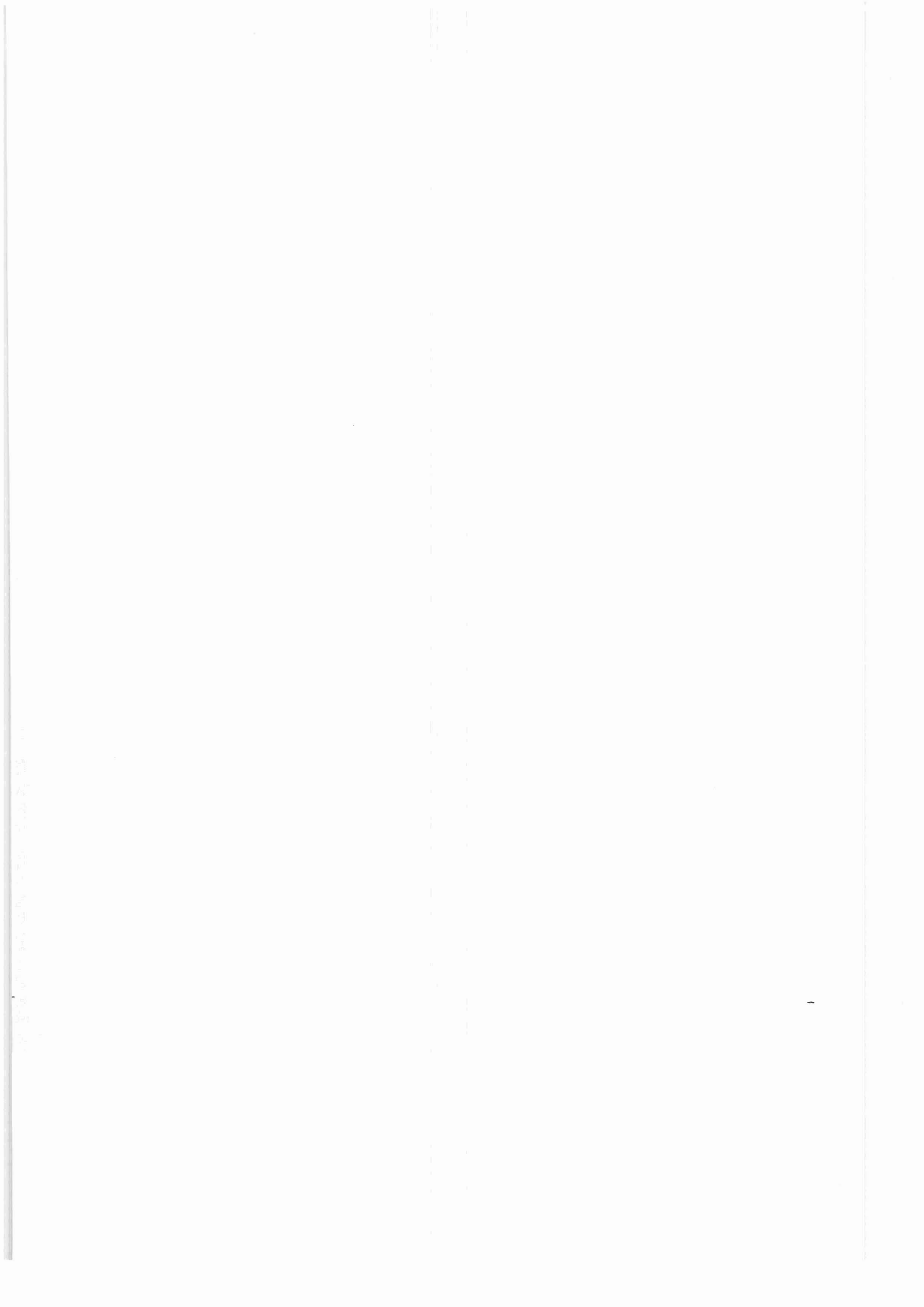
A. Introduction

A landscape of human experience

In Chapters 1 and 2 we introduced you to the notion that language simultaneously performs three functions (experiential, interpersonal and textual). In this chapter we are concerned with the EXPERIENTIAL function; Chapters 4 and 5 will deal with the INTERPERSONAL function, and Chapter 6 with the TEXTUAL function.

Our language builds up pictures of reality – in terms of the things (which as a general term covers people and places as well as concrete and abstract things) and events and circumstances – that form the landscape of our human experience. As we indicated in Chapter 2, these three general categories of human experience (things, events and circumstances) typically occur together in CLAUSES, with the pivotal element of the clause being the expression of event, or PROCESS. In any gathering of functional grammarians, someone is sure to pose the question: *Who does what to whom under what circumstances?* It has become something of a standing joke, but is a neat and brief way of explaining the experiential function of language.
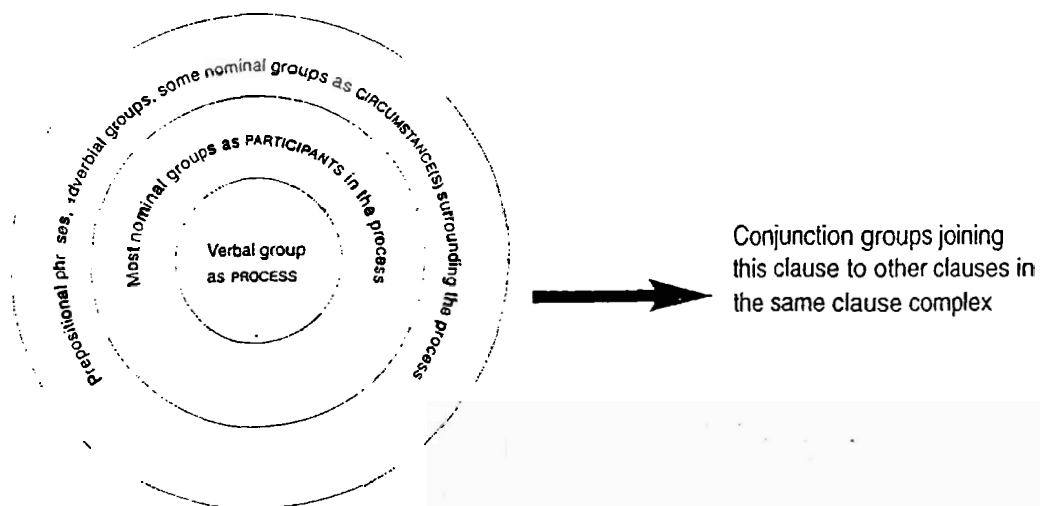

Figure 3.1: Patterns of experience in the clause

Figure 3.1 may be helpful in understanding the experiential function of language. In this diagram PROCESS, realised by a verbal group, is shown as the centre of a clausal solar system. PARTICIPANTS, realised by nominal groups or preposition phrases, revolve around the Process and can interact with it through a variety of PARTICIPANT ROLES. Further out are the CIRCUMSTANCES of human experience (the whys and whens and wherefores), realised by adverbial groups, prepositional phrases and, occasionally, by nominal groups functioning as if they were adverbs. At the outer edge we find the CONJUNCTION GROUPS, not so much a part of this solar system as linking mechanisms ready to help join the various systems (clauses) together in a variety of logical relationships.

The three concentric rings in Figure 3.1 represent the part of the language system that Chapter 3 will explore; the outer edge – the linkages between clauses – will be addressed in Chapter 7.

Metalanguage for discussing language as experience

In describing the experiential function of language we must first have a set of terms to show how the clause can be broken down into three functional constituents: PARTICIPANT, PROCESS and CIRCUMSTANCE. The Participant constituent can be further described in terms of various participant roles such as ACTOR, AGENT, GOAL, CARRIER, SAYER. The Process divides into three basic process types: MATERIAL, RELATIONAL and PROJECTING. There is also a metalanguage that allows us to show finer functional distinctions within the Circumstance constituent.

Other grammatical terms you will find in this and subsequent chapters include labels for the groups and phrases of our rank scale: NOMINAL GROUP, VERBAL GROUP, ADVERBIAL GROUP and PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE. As we look more closely at the structure of the groups and phrases, various function labels such as EPITHET, CLASSIFIER, THING and EVENT will also be introduced.

At this stage we should make clear an important point about the terminology that we will be introducing in the following chapters. You will notice throughout that some terms are always spelled with an initial capital (Actor, Goal, Epithet, Subject, Finite), while others are not capitalised unless they are at the beginning of a sentence (clause, clause complex, declarative mood, embedded clause). The convention we are following is to capitalise function labels and to use lower case for other labels and for the more general grammatical terminology. There are some terms that may be used either as function labels or as more general terms, in which case the presence or absence of an initial capital will indicate the difference (P/participant, P/process, T/thing, E/event). For further reading on labelling as well as other issues arising from a movement from more traditional descriptions of grammar towards the systemic functional approach, see Halliday (1994: Chapter 2).

Packaging experience

It is important to realise that the way we express ourselves is not rigidly determined by an external reality or by universal rules of logic. Suppose, for instance, that you want to draw someone's attention to the fact that a certain shop closes at six o'clock. You might say:

The shop	closes	at six
Participant	Process	Circumstance

But you don't have to present closing as a Process; you could say:

The shop's closing time	is	six
Participant	Process	Participant

Imagine looking at a view or a landscape and wanting to describe what you see. You might want to talk about the sun setting. You could express the setting as a Process:

The sun	is setting
Participant	Process

However, you could also talk about the sun setting in terms of the sun's location. In other words, you could express the setting as Circumstance:

The sun	is	on the horizon
Participant	Process	Circumstance

You might want to treat this event as a thing (Participant) rather than as a Process, as in:

The sunset	's blinding	me
Participant	Process	Participant

It would be difficult to argue that any one way of talking about the sunset is more objective or correct than any other. In fact, given what we know about the movement of the earth relative to the sun, it is just as easy to argue that all of them are inaccurate, as it is to argue that all of them are legitimate (in terms of our perception). Similarly, loving or hating can be things or events. We cannot appeal to any natural criterion to determine that for us as we see in the following examples.

Participant	Process	Participant
The dog	must have hated	that storm
All the world .	loves	a lover
Hate	is	a destructive passion
Love	is	a many-splendoured thing
Our greatest need	is	love

Clause constituency in the experiential function

Most English clauses have a constituent structure that can be described functionally in terms of PARTICIPANT, PROCESS and CIRCUMSTANCE, with Process being the essential ingredient. Thus the following clauses all have the structure Participant + Process:

Participant	Process
The chair	collapsed
The water	evaporated
The horse	bolted
He	sneezed
The President	arrived
The truth	will be revealed

Some clauses have the structure Participant + Process + Participant:

Participant	Process	Participant
The water	damaged	the carpet
The horse	kicked	him
She	remembered	his name
The Premier	congratulated	them
Your expression of anger	must have convinced	all the waverers

Some clauses have the structure Participant + Process + Circumstance:

Participant	Process	Circumstance
The chair	collapsed	under him
The President	arrived	by train
The judicial system	works	slowly
Winter	might come	as early as last year

Some clauses have the structure Participant + Process + Participant + Circumstance:

Participant	Process	Participant	Circumstance
The dog	bit	him	on the ankle
I	thanked	her	warmly

Some clauses have only one constituent, the obligatory Process. Reminding ourselves about the rank scale, we find something interesting about the following examples. In each case we have a *clause complex* made up of one *clause*, which in turn is made up of one *group*, which consists of one *word*, which comprises one *morpheme*:

Process
Stop!
Hide!
Run!

Some clauses project another clause:

Participant	Process	Projected clause
She	remembered	that it was his birthday
Chris	said	the VCR wasn't working

Participant	Process	Participant	Projected clause
The manager	told	the staff	that the company was now making a profit

But all of this needs a much closer analysis. We will begin by looking at Process.

Clauses as processes

Processes in English, as we suggested in Chapter 2, are expressions of happening, doing, being, saying and thinking. A Process is realised in the grammar by means of a 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. Thus the words in the box below are all verbal groups with the class verb word *jump* as head. But more about this later.

Verbal groups with *jump* as head

```
jump
will jump
can jump
ought to jump
might be about to jump
```

In the lists of Processes, Participants and Circumstances on the previous two pages, we have shown that verbal groups realise processes in experiential meanings. Perhaps, like us, you had a primary school teacher who described verbs as *doing words*. These good people were only partly right. If we look at the lists more closely, we can see that not all processes encode *doing*. Rather, they fall into three basic process types (although they can properly be subdivided into more and more subtypes).

We could begin the division into three groups by recognising that some verbs are indeed, *doing* words and describe actions and happenings in the outside, material world. A second group can be thought of as projecting processes and might be described as *thinking, feeling* or *saying* words. These words are more to do with the inner world of cognition, perception, emotion and desire and have the potential for projecting our inner world as thought or speech so that it can be apprehended by others. A third group of verbs can be described simply as *being* words.

The first two groups, the doing processes and projecting processes, can be subdivided in the following ways:

The doing verbs can be subdivided into:

1 Processes like *arrived, collapsed, works, bolted,* and *hit* that encode experiences in the external, material world. These are to do with doing and happening and are known as MATERIAL processes.

2 Processes like *sneezed, watched, sang* that encode physiological or psychological behaviour (often the doing equivalent of a mental or even a verbal process). They lie somewhere between material and mental or verbal processes and are known as BEHAVIOURAL processes.

The projecting verbs can be subdivided into:

1 Processes like *enjoyed, remembered* and *overheard* that encode experiences in the inner world of consciousness. These are to do with thinking, wanting, perceiving and emoting and are known as MENTAL processes and, as we have seen, they have the potential to project what is known, remembered or overheard as direct or indirect thoughts. Alternatively, they may use an appropriate nominal group to sum up what is thought or perceived or wanted or liked.

2 Processes like *told* and *said* that encode the experiences of bringing the inner world outside by speaking. These are to do with saying and asking, and are known as VERBAL processes. Like mental processes they have the potential to project the words of the speaker in direct or indirect speech, or they may use an appropriate nominal group to sum up what has been said.

The last group, the being verbs, can first be subdivided into:

1 Processes like *are, was, were,* the function of which is to set up the existence of a sole Participant. These processes are almost always preceded by *there.* They are known as EXISTENTIAL processes.

2 Processes like *are, was, were, seemed, have, became, felt, belongs to,* the function of which is to encode relationships of being and having between two Participants. This group, known as RELATIONAL processes, has to do with the attributes of class membership or with specific identity.

These relational processes can then be further subdivided. Those whose function is to ascribe an attribute are known as RELATIONAL ATTRIBUTIVE processes and those whose function is to identify are known as RELATIONAL IDENTIFYING processes.

The differences among process types have consequences in the wording of clauses. For example, material processes generally distinguish between what is happening now and what is habitual:

He is building a house (at present)
He builds houses (for a living)

But this distinction is not made with all process types. For example, it is usual to say:

I don't believe you

and not:

I am not believing you

The differences among the different process types may also result from the way a particular verb is functioning in a particular clause. The English verb *feel*, for example, can function as a material, a mental or a relational process depending on its relationship with the other elements in the clause or clause complex:

I <u>felt</u> the wood and decided it needed more sanding	material process (doing)
I <u>felt</u> that I was at a crossroads in my life	mental process (thinking)
I <u>felt</u> tired	relational process (a kind of being)

This draws our attention to a point that can not be stressed too strongly: that, rather than thinking of particular verbs as always giving expression to one process type, we should think about how a particular verb is functioning in its context.

Each process type has its own set of participant roles. This means that once the process type has been identified, the function labels for the participant roles fall into place easily. Moreover, the function labels for participants in each process are fairly transparent: when the process is material, the Doer is known as Actor, when mental, the Doer is Senser, when verbal, the Doer is Sayer, and, when behavioural, the Doer is Behaver. We will now look at each process type and its participant roles in more detail.

B. Process Types and Participant Roles

1. Material Processes

Mother	made	a fruit cake
Actor	Process: material	Goal

The dog	was chasing	the cat
Actor	Process: material	Goal

In English, material processes with a Goal can be either active, as shown above, or passive as shown below:

The cricket ball	was caught	by Theo
Goal	Process: material	Actor

The fruit cake	was made	by mother
Goal	Process: material	Actor

Material processes construe doing; they answer the question 'What did X do?' or 'What happened?' Potential participant roles are: ACTOR (or Doer of the process), a GOAL (or Thing affected by the process), a RANGE (or Thing unaffected by the process), a BENEFICIARY of the process.

Material processes with Actor as the sole participant

Joan	arrived
Actor	Process: material

They	ate	at noon
Actor	Process: material	Circumstance

The army	retreated
Actor	Process: material

Material processes with an Actor and a Goal:

Theo	caught	the cricket ball
Actor	Process: material	Goal

The cat	was being chased	by the dog
Goal	Process: material	Actor

The passive **construction presents** the Actor and Goal in reverse order to the active construction. The Actor of a passive clause is often described as the Agent rather than the Actor. The passive construction allows the possibility of omitting the Agent altogether (the so-called 'agentless passive'):

The cricket ball	was caught
Goal	Process: material

The fruit cake	was made
Goal	Process: material

An error	has been made
Goal	Process: material

Agentless passives are one way in English of 'losing' the Actor of a process. Whenever you encounter one, it is worthwhile asking just why the Actor has been omitted – is it because nobody knows who did the action, or because everybody knows, or because it is unimportant, or because the writer is purposely not mentioning it for some reason? For example, if you saw a headline 'Man was murdered' (or more likely just 'Man murdered'), it could be that no-one knows yet who did the murder. And if, on the following day, the headline reads 'Suspect arrested', there is no need for the writer to mention who did the arresting because everybody knows that it was done by the police. But if the next headline reads 'Suspect shot', it might be because the writer does not want to draw your attention to who did it. It's always worth asking with an agentless passive!

Material processes with Beneficiary

I	posted	a letter	to a friend
Actor	Process: material	Goal	Beneficiary: Recipient

I	posted	my friend	a letter
Actor	Process: material	Beneficiary: Recipient	Goal

The architect	built	a house	for his mother
Actor	Process: material	Goal	Beneficiary: Client

The participant role Beneficiary may be subdivided into Recipient, the one who receives the outcome of the process, or Client, the one for whom the process is done. All delicate distinctions make the roles more transparent but Client is such a rare Participant role that you may find that Beneficiary is sufficient.

Material processes with Range

Jackson	is climbing	the fence
Actor	Process: material	Range

She	did	some research
Actor	Process: material	Range

These two examples of the participant role Range show that it can be something separate from and unaffected by the process or, as in the second example, it can be more like an extension of the process. In fact, in the second example the verb is fairly empty and gets the bulk of its experiential meaning from the Range.

Material processes

Consider the following clauses:

>Diana has donated blood 36 times.
>Diana went to Geneva.
>Diana stayed up all night.
>The Swiss men left their dinner.
>They gave Diana a cognac.

All these clauses are describing processes of *doing*, usually concrete, tangible actions. Processes of doing are what we call material processes. The basic meaning of material processes is that some entity does something, undertakes some action. This is the semantic definition of material processes.

One identification criterion for material processes is that they can be probed by asking: *What did x do?*

>*What has Diana done?*   *Diana has donated blood 36 times.*
>*What did Diana do?*   *Diana went to Geneva.*

The following clauses would not be material processes, because it is not possible to probe them in this way:

>There was an incentive to donate blood in Switzerland.
>• we can't ask 'what did there?'
>Diana is a blood donor.
>• we can't ask 'what did Diana do?' (the answer would have to be **She beed a blood donor*)

So, material processes are processes about doing, about action. Actions involve actors, or participants. Participants are realized by nominal groups. We can make an important distinction between the number of participants involved in the process:

>Diana went to Geneva.
>Diana stayed up all night.

In these examples we see that there is only one participant, one Actor or person doing the action (*Diana* in these clauses). But not all material processes have to involve only one participant:

>Diana has donated blood 36 times.
>The Swiss men left their dinner.
>They gave Diana a cognac.

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As these examples show, while some material processes involve one participant only, others involve two, or even three. So we can make a distinction between:

1. processes in which there's only one participant: these processes are called middle, or intransitive. These are clauses in which 'someone does something', and are probed by asking 'what did x do?'
2. processes in which there are two (or more) participants: these are called effective, or transitive. These are clauses in which 'someone does something and the doing involves another entity'. Transitive clauses are probed by 'what did x do to y?'

Some effective or transitive processes (e.g. *give*) seem obligatorily to involve three participants. They are probed by 'what did x do to y to z?'

If you consider the following pairs of effective processes, you will notice that effective clauses can be either active or passive:

1. Active: probed by 'what did x do (to y)?'
   They tested my blood.
   She carried the bomb.
2. Passive: probed by 'what happened to y?' With the passive we can ask 'who by?'
   My blood was tested (by them).
   The bomb was carried onto the plane (by her).

The difference between active and passive clauses relates to whether the Actor role (the doer of the action) is conflated with the Mood function of Subject or not. In the active, the roles of Actor and Subject are mapped on to the same constituent. In the passive, however, the Subject is not also the Actor (see analysed examples below).

Direct participants in material processes: Actor and Goal

The two most frequent participants in material process clauses are the Actor and the Goal. ACTOR: the Actor is the constituent of the clause who does the deed or performs the action. When the clause only has one participant and is active, the participant will be ACTOR.

Diana	*went*	*to Geneva.*
Actor	Process:material	

So	*you*	*walk round*	*weak-kneed for 3 days.*
	Actor	Process:material	

GOAL: the Goal is that participant at whom the process is directed, to whom the action is extended. It is the participant treated in traditional grammar as the Direct Object, and it usually maps on to the Complement participant in the Mood analysis. The Goal is usually what becomes Subject in the passive.

They	*avoided*	*the scar tissue.*
Actor	Process:material	Goal

These two wonderful Swiss men	*left*	*their dinner.*
Actor	Process:material	Goal

There can only be one Goal per clause.

In the passive, the Goal becomes the Subject, and the Actor may be omitted.

active

They	*tested*	*my blood*	*against the donors'.*
Actor	Actor	Goal	

passive

My blood	*was tested*	*against the donors'*	*(by them).*
Goal	Process:material		(Actor)

active

She	*carried*	*the bomb*	*onto the plane.*
Actor	Process:material	Goal	

passive

The bomb	*was carried*	*onto the plane*	*(by her).*
Goal	Process		(Actor)

Goal vs range

Halliday (1994: 146–9)[2] makes an important, if sometimes difficult, distinction between a Goal and a related participant called a Range. Consider the following clauses:

> They did the transfusion.
> They transfused the blood.

These are processes of doing, and so we classify them as Material processes. Each involves two participants, but while *they* is clearly the Actor in both, the question is: what label should be attached to the second participant: *the transfusion, the blood?* While we might initially assume these participants should be called Goals, there is a problem in that they are not probed using the Goal probe of 'What did x do to y?'.

For example, it makes no sense to ask 'What did they do to the transfusion?', because the answer 'They did it' is redundant. Hence, in this case although we appear to have a separate participant (*transfusion*), it seems to be very closely tied to the verb: in *doing the transfusion* only one action took place.

Similarly, if we probe the second example with: 'What did they transfuse?', the answer must most certainly be 'the blood', because that is about the only thing that can be transfused.

Hence, in these two cases, there seems to be a closer relationship between the Process and the second participant than we found above between a Process and a Goal. Halliday calls these less independent participants Ranges, and he suggests that a Range specifies one of two things:

1. either it is a restatement or continuation of the process itself or
2. it expresses the extent or 'range' of the process.

Examples of Ranges which express the process itself include:

They	ran	the race.
Actor	Pr:material	Range

where *race* is really a restatement of the process *run*. You cannot have races unless you run them. So really the two participants are saying the same thing. Verbs like this can usually be collapsed into one single process, e.g. *raced*.

Other examples of process Ranges are what are called in traditional grammar cognate objects: for example, *do a dance, sing a song*. Here the object of the verb is derived directly from the verbal meaning itself, and again we can typically substitute just one verbal element: *dance, sing*.

The second type of Range is not cognate, but expresses the domain or extent of the process. For example:

They	were playing	bridge/tennis/a game.
Actor	Pr:material	Range/Range/Range

Halliday argues that constituents like *bridge* or *tennis* or *a game* are not fully autonomous participants since these games do not exist without the playing. They are just continuations of the process, expressing its range or domain. In these cases it is fairly easy to see that they are not Goals because they do not exist except through the process. The Range is really just another name for the process itself. Less obvious but similar Ranges occur in:

Have	you	given	blood	before?
	Actor	Pr:material	Pr:material	

Marg	served	the dinner.
Actor	Pr:material	Range

Although *blood* and *dinner* exist independently of the processes, we still find it hard to probe these participants with *do to* or *do with*. The second participant is just specifying the range or domain of process.

A third type of Range is that created by the use of dummy verbs, like *do, have, give, take, make:*

You	just	give	me	a whistle.
Actor		Process:material		Range

give	a smile
Pr:material	Range

have	a bath
make	a mistake
take	a look
Pr:material	Range

This is quite a common pattern to English, whereby the verb is emptied of its content, and the meaning expressed through the nominal Range constituent.

While it is not always easy to distinguish Goals from Ranges, Halliday (1994: 148) lists a number of tests which can be applied:

1. if the participant is a Range, you cannot (sensibly) probe with 'what did x do to y?'. Ranges cannot usually be probed by *do to* or *do with*, whereas Goals can.
2. a Range cannot be a personal pronoun
3. a Range cannot usually be modified by a possessive (e.g. **Just give me your whistle*)
4. Ranges are less likely to become Subjects than Goals. They often sound quite odd as Subjects; e.g. *The whistle wasn't given by you, was it? The blood was given by you, was it?*
5. a Range can often be realized as a prepositional phrase:
   I'm playing bridge.   *I'm playing Simon at bridge.*
   He plays the piano.   *He plays beautifully on the piano.*
   He does great whistles.   *He does great at whistling.*
6. Ranges using 'dummy verbs' can be 'collapsed' into one verb, e.g.
   give a whistle – whistle
   do a dance – dance
   give a lecture – lecture
7. Ranges cannot take attributes of result, i.e. an element which gives the outcome of the process

She	cooked	dinner	to perfection/to a turn.
Actor	Pr:material	Goal	Resultative attribute

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but not

* She	served	dinner	to perfection/to a turn.
Actor	Pr:material	Goal	Resultative attribute

While it is not always easy to distinguish a Range from a Goal, the following examples may help to emphasize the distinction:

RANGE	GOAL
shoot a gun	shoot a kangaroo
kick a goal	kick the dog
serve dinner	serve the ball
give a smile	give a present
make a mistake	make a cake
take a bath	take a biscuit

Beneficiary

One further participant which may occur in a material process clause is the Beneficiary. Consider again the clause:

> But in Switzerland they give you a cognac.
> They gave blood to my daughter.

These clauses involve three participants, and in each case there is one participant who in some way could be said to benefit from the process: *you, my daughter*. Participants which benefit from the process are called Beneficiary.

There are 2 kinds of Beneficiary: a Recipient (the one to whom something is given), and a Client (the one for whom something is done).

Both Clients and Recipients may occur with or without prepositions, depending on their position in the clause. If you want to put them in final position in the clause, then it is necessary to use a preposition. For example:

Recipient: the one goods are given to

But	in Switzerland	they	give	you	a cognac.
		Actor	Pr:material	Recipient	Goal

But	in Switzerland	they	give	a cognac	to you.
		Actor	Pr:material	Goal	Recipient

Note that it is possible to get the Recipient as Subject of the clause, thus giving another variety of passive:

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In Switzerland	you	are	given	a cognac.
Adj:circ	Subject	Finite	Predicator	Complement
RESIDUE ...	MOOD		... RESIDUE	
	Recipient		Pr:material	Goal

Compare these two versions of the passive:
Recipient-passive

My daughter	was	given	blood.
Subject	Finite	Predicator	Complement
MOOD		RESIDUE	
Recipient		Pr:material	Range

Range-passive:

Blood	was	given	to my daughter.
Subject	Finite	Predicator	Adj:circ
MOOD		RESIDUE	
Range		Pr:material	Recipient

The constituent playing the Client role (the one the service is done for) may also appear with or without a preposition:

I	'll beat	you	up	some soup.
Actor	Pr:material ...	Client	... Process	Goal

I	'll beat up	some soup	for you.
Actor	Pr:material	Goal	Client

Although less frequent than Recipient-passives, some Client-passives do occur:

Marg	cooked	dinner	for them all.
Actor	Pr:material	Goal	Client

Marg	cooked	them all	dinner.
Actor	Pr:material	Client	Goal

They	were	all	cooked	dinner	for	by Marg.
Client ...		... Client	Pr:material	Goal		Actor

but not: * You will be heated up some soup for.

Circumstances

The last type of participant we need to look at for material process clauses is that of Circumstantials, which are realized by adverbial groups or prepositional phrases.

Circumstances can occur not only with material processes, but with **all** process types. They are presented here for convenience. System 8.2 indicates the different types of Circumstances we can find in clauses.

Circumstantials can best be identified by considering what probe is used to elicit them:

1. extent: how long? (duration); how far? (spatial distance)

I	've given	blood	36 times.
Actor	Pr:material	Goal	Circ:extent

I	stayed up	all night.
Actor	Pr:material	Circ:extent

2. location: when? (temporal); where? (spatial)

They	rang	me	up	on the Saturday night.
Actor	Pr:material . . .	Beneficiary	. . . Pr:material	Circ:location

I	delivered	it	to the clinic where she was.
Actor	Pr:material	Goal	Circ:location

3. manner: how? with what? (means); how? how . . .-ly (quality); what . . . like? (comparison)

So	they	did	the transfusion	through the umbilical artery.
	Actor	Pr:material	Range	Circ:manner

In Switzerland,	unlike Greece,	they	give	you	a cognac.
Circ:location	Circ:manner	Actor	Pr:material	Beneficiary	Goal

4. cause: why? (cause); what for? (reason); who? who for? (behalf)

My daughter	survived	thanks to the two Swiss men.
Actor	Pr:material	Circ:cause

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She	carried	the bomb	for her boyfriend.
Actor	Pr:material	Goal	Circ:cause

5. accompaniment: with whom?

She	got	on the plane	with/without her boyfriend.
Actor	Pr:material	Circ:loc	Circ:accompaniment

6. matter: what about?

As for Greece,	they	give	you	nothing.
Circ:matter	Actor	Pr:material	Beneficiary	Goal

7. role: what as?

She	was travelling	to Israel	as a tourist.
Actor	Pr:material	Circ:location	Circ:role
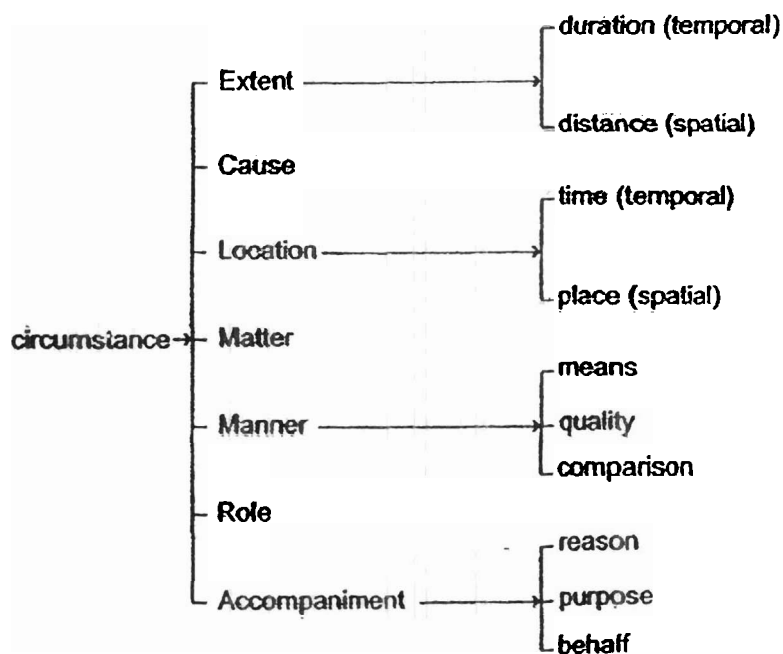
System 8.2   System of Circumstance

In the description presented so far, we have seen that the role of Actor is that of the doer, the one who does or undertakes the action. It is also useful to identify a clausal participant of Agent: the one who initiates the action, the one who makes something happen. Typically the two roles of Agent and Actor are mapped onto the same constituent, since the Actor is the one who makes the action happen, and is therefore also the Agent:

non-causative: girlfriend = doer (Actor) + initiator (Agent)

His girlfriend	carried	the bomb	onto the plane.
Actor	Pr:material	Goal	Circ:loc

However, in causative constructions, the Agent is distinct from the Actor, with the Agent causing an Actor other than himself/herself to carry out the action. This usually involves using the causative process *make*:

He	made	his girlfriend	carry	the bomb	onto the plane.
Agent	Pr:causative	Actor	Pr:material	Goal	Circ:loc

They	make	you	fill in	forms.
Agent	Pr:causative	Actor	Pr:material	Range

As a general rule, the role of Agent will not be shown unless the clause is causative. Otherwise the single label of Actor can be used.

MOOD vs TRANSITIVITY ANALYSIS: *simultaneous functions*

We are now in a position to give two layers of structural description to all material process clauses, describing both their Transitivity structure and their Mood structure. For example:

And	fortunately	they	could	do	it	through the umbilical artery.
Adjunct: conjun	Adjunct: comment	Subject	Finite:mod	Predicator	Comple- ment	Adjunct: circ
		MOOD		RESIDUE		
		Actor		Pr:material	Goal	Circ: manner

As this clause demonstrates, some constituents (e.g. *they, it, through the umbilical artery*) have functions in both analyses. That is, these elements of the clause are making both interpersonal and experiential meanings. Constituents labelled Subject, Complement, Predicator, Adjunct:circumstantial in a Mood analysis will all be labelled also for a Transitivity role.

However, other constituents can be assigned constituent roles only for Mood (e.g. *could*). The explanation for this is that some constituents are really in the clause in order to express interpersonal meanings rather than experiential meanings. These are the constituents which would fall into the MOOD box in our Mood analysis, i.e. the Finite (modal or temporal elements, when not fused with the Predicator), Mood Adjuncts, realizations of Modalization and Modulation. These elements express meanings about how the interaction is being organized, and the writer/speaker's attitude towards the interaction. While they are rich in the interpersonal meanings they express, they are empty of experiential meaning, and do not get labelled for a transitivity role (since they do not play one).

Finally, some elements were observed to lie outside the Mood/Residue structure altogether (e.g. *and, fortunately*). These constituents also have no transitivity functions but (as we will see later) get into the clause in order to express textual meanings. Conjunctive, Continuity, Vocative and Comment Adjuncts will not be labelled for transitivity.

2. Mental Processes

Mental Processes are ones of sensing: feeling, thinking, perceiving. There are three types: affective or reactive (feeling); cognitive (thinking), and perceptive (perceiving through the five senses).

These Processes differ from Material ones in as much as the latter are physical, moving, overt doings. Mental Processes are mental, covert kinds of goings-on. And the Participant involved in Mental Processes is not so much acting or acting upon in a doing sense, as sensing—having feelings, perceiving or thinking.

Thus, the Participant roles in Mental Processes are *Senser* and *Phenomenon*. The Senser is by definition a conscious being, for only those who are conscious can feel, think or see. We can of course attribute or impute consciousness to non-sensate beings: e.g. That toaster doesn't like me, I swear.

The Phenomenon is that which is sensed: felt, thought or seen.

That toaster	**doesn't like**	**me**
Participant: Senser	Process: Mental	Participant: Phenomenon

We can have clauses with Senser and Phenomenon:

Mark	**likes**	**new clothes**
Senser	Mental:Affect	Phenomenon

Senser only:

Mark	**understood**
Senser	Mental:Cognitive

Phenomenon only:

Loneliness	**hurts**
Phenomenon	Mental:Affect

Notice that several of these are bi-directional:

Mark   **likes**   **nice clothes**

Senser	Mental:Affect	Phenomenon

Nice clothes   **please**   **Mark**

Phenomenon	Mental:Affect	Senser

I   **don't understand**   **this stuff**

Senser	Mental:Cognition	Phenomenon

This stuff   **baffles**   **me**

Phenomenon	Mental:Cognition	Senser

Note that this is not the same distinction as active and passive voice. The four examples immediately above are all active, but can 'take' the passive, and indeed the 'please' type usually do:

Nice clothes   **please**   **Mark**   (active)

Phenomenon	Mental:Affect	Senser

Mark   **is pleased**   **by nice clothes**   (passive)

Senser	Mental:Affect	Phenomenon

This stuff   **baffles**   **me**   (active)

Phenomenon	Mental:Cognition	Senser

I   **am baffled**   **by this stuff**   (passive)

Senser	Mental:Cognition	Phenomenon

In the above examples, all of the Phenomena are things, but the Phenomenon may equally well be a fact.

I   **realise**   **the difficulties**

Senser	Mental:Cognition	Phenomenon

I	realise	the fact that there are difficulties
Senser	Mental:Cognition	Phenomenon

The fact that they were cruel	incensed	Mark
Phenomenon	Mental:Affect	Senser

Mental Processes, like Verbal Processes (see below), 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. In the pairs below, the first clause example does not project while the second does.

1
I	realise	the difficulties
Senser	Mental:Cognition	Phenomenon

I	realise	(that) there are	difficulties
Senser	Mental:Cognition	Existential	Existent

2
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

Projection is dealt with in detail in Chapter 4.

Mental processes

Consider the following clauses:

> I hate injections.
> She believed his excuses.
> I don't understand her letter.
> I don't know her name.
> They don't give a shit about it.

From clauses such as these, we see that people are not always talking about concrete processes of doing. We very often talk not about what we are doing, but about what we *think* or *feel*. Halliday calls processes which encode meanings of thinking or feeling mental processes.

We can recognize that these are different from material processes because it no longer makes sense to ask 'What did x do to y?'

> What did you do to the injection? *I hated it.*
> What did she do to his excuses? *She believed them.*
> What don't I do to her behaviour? *I don't understand it.*

With these clauses, it makes more sense to ask: 'what do you think/feel/know about x?'

> What you think about injections? *I hate them.*
> What did she think about his excuses? *She believed them.*

One thing, then, that makes mental processes look different from materials is that we probe them differently. When we probe, we find we are not asking about actions or doings in a tangible, physical sense, but about mental reactions: about thoughts, feelings, perceptions.

Halliday divides mental process verbs into three classes: cognition (verbs of thinking, knowing, understanding, for example *I don't know her name*), affection (verbs of liking, fearing, e.g. *I hate injections*), and perception (verbs of seeing, hearing, e.g. *Simon heard it on the news*).

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The difference between the way we probe material and mental processes is one semantic reason for differentiating them. However, the main reasons why we want a different analysis are that mental processes behave differently grammatically from material processes in a number of ways, enumerated below.

1. **choice of unmarked present tense:** Halliday notes that one significant difference between mental and material processes is in their unmarked present tense. In a mental process, the unmarked present tense is the simple present:

> I hate injections.   Simon loves the soup.   She knows his name.

But in material processes, the unmarked present tense is the present continuous (the -ing form).

> Marg is heating the soup up.
> Diana is donating blood because of her experience in Geneva.

We only use the simple present with material processes if we wish to convey a special, marked meaning of habitual action:

> Marg heats the soup up (every day).
> Diana donates blood (every year).

This does not mean that mental processes never occur in the present continuous, or materials in the simple present. But there is a clear unmarked correlation which differentiates the two process types. The choice of another, marked present tense form carries an extra dimension of meaning. In fact there is a general association of mental processes with non-continuous tense. Even in the past tense it is much more common to get:

> She believed his excuses. (simple past)

than

> She was believing his excuses. (past continuous)

But it is in the present that the contrast is most marked.

2. **number of participants:** while material processes could have either one or two participants (they could be either middle or effective in voice), mental processes must always have two participants (except for the situation of projection, discussed below). There will always be two nominal-type participants associated with any mental process. Even if one participant is apparently absent, it will need to be retrieved from the context for the clause to make sense. For example *She believed* always implies *She believed something or someone.*

There is, then, no such thing as an intransitive mental process. All mental processes have two participants. This raises the question of what labels we should use for the participants in a mental process clause. One option is to keep using the labels of Actor, Goal, etc. that we identified for material processes. However, this recycling is rejected for two reasons:

> i) firstly, since material processes are not probed as action processes, roles like Actor do not seem appropriate;

ii) secondly, different things can get to be participants in mental processes than in material process clauses.

This brings us to the third major difference between mental and material processes.
3. nature of the active participant: one participant in the mental process clause must be a conscious human participant. This participant is called the Senser. The Senser, who feels, thinks or perceives, must either be human or an anthropomorphized non-human. It must be a conscious being.

She	believed	his excuses.
Senser	Pr:mental	

I	hate	injections.
Senser	Pr:mental	

In contrast with material processes, then, we can say that as far as the active participant goes, the choice is more restricted for mentals than for materials. Any nominal can be Actor in a material process clause, but only conscious humans can be Sensers in mental processes.

When we turn to consider what label to apply to the second participant in a mental process, we find yet another difference between mental and material processes, for here the choice is far wider for mentals than materials.
4. nature of the non-active participant: Halliday labels the second participant in a mental process clause the Phenomenon. The Phenomenon is that which is thought, felt or perceived by the conscious Senser.

She	believed	his excuses.
Senser	Pr:mental	Phenomenon

Do	you	want	more soup?
	Senser	Pr:mental	Phenomenon

While these examples are reminiscent of Goals in material process clauses, Halliday demonstrates that in fact a far greater range of elements can be Phenomena in mental processes than can be Goals in materials. As well as the simple Phenomena of the type analysed above, Halliday also identifies two types of embedded Phenomena: Acts and Facts.

PHENOMENON: Acts

Acts occur with mental processes of perception: seeing, hearing, noticing, etc. An Act is realized by an imperfective non-finite clause acting as if it were a simple noun. For example:

I	saw	(the operation taking place.)
Senser	Pr:mental	Phenomenon:act

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He	felt	(the needle going in.)
Senser	Pr:mental	Phenomenon:act

One test to determine an Act is that the word *that* cannot be inserted directly after the mental process:

    *I saw that the operation taking place.

A further test is that the embedded clause which realizes the Act can be turned into a simple 'thing' Phenomenon by rewording it as a (long) nominal group:

I He	saw felt	*the occurrence of the operation.* *the insertion of the needle.*
Senser	Pr:mental	Phenomenon

Notice that Acts cannot occur in material process clauses:

    *Marg cooked the soup heating up.
    *They tested my blood being good.

PHENOMENON: Facts

The second type of embedded Phenomenon is what Halliday calls a Fact Phenomenon. A Fact is an embedded clause, usually finite and usually introduced by a 'that', functioning as if it were a simple noun. It can be identified as a Fact-embedding because a Fact-noun can be inserted before the (explicit or implicit) *that* which introduces it:

She	didn't realize	(that it was a bomb).
She	didn't realize	(the fact that it was a bomb).
Senser	Pr:mental	Phenomenon

She	regretted	(that they hadn't watched the operation).
She	regretted	(the fact that they hadn't watched the operation).
Senser	Pr:mental	Phenomenon

Fact Phenomenon clauses can usually be reversed, using an active synonymous mental process verb while having the Fact-embedding as Subject (this pattern of reversibility is discussed below):

(The fact that it was a bomb)	escaped	. her.
(The fact that they hadn't watched the operation)	disappointed	her.
Phenomenon	Pr:mental	Senser

As these examples show, Fact Phenomena are clauses implicitly post-modifying a Fact-noun, even though that noun may be implicit. Halliday (1994: 266–7) identifies four sub-classes of Fact-nouns:

    i) 'cases', e.g. fact, case, point, rule . . .
    ii) 'chances', e.g. chance, possibility, likelihood, probability, certainty . . .
    iii) 'proofs', e.g. proof, indication, implication, confirmation, demonstration . .
    iv) 'needs', e.g. requirement, need, rule, obligation . . .

Note that Fact Phenomena cannot occur in material processes:

    * Marg cooked the fact that the dinner was ready.
    *The fact that the dinner was ready Marg . . . .
    * Marg cooked the news that the dinner was ready.

While it is important to appreciate how Facts and Acts make the Phenomenon category much broader than that of Goal in a material process, for most analytical purposes it is sufficient to label the constituent as 'Phenomenon'.

5. reversibility: the fifth major difference Halliday identifies between mental and material processes is the reversibility of many mental processes. Consider these pairs of mental process clauses:

A.	B.
I hate injections.	Injections piss me off.
She believed his excuses.	His excuses convinced her.
I don't understand her letter.	Her letter puzzles me.
I don't know her name.	Her name escapes me.
They don't give a shit about it.	It doesn't worry them.

Each A clause is very similar in meaning to its matching B clause. One analogy we might be tempted to make is with the active/passive distinction identified for transitive material processes. However, there is a major difference, in that both the clauses under A and those under B are active in voice, as can be seen by the fact that passives exist of both A clauses and B clauses:

A.	B.
Injections are hated (by me).	I am pissed off by injections.
His excuses were believed by her.	She was convinced by his excuses.
Her letter is not understood (by me).	I am puzzled by her letter.

The clauses can therefore not be explained as active/passive variants. In fact, what we are dealing with here is a reversibility, a kind of two-way process. This can be brought out by labelling our participant roles for both Transitivity and Mood functions:

active:

- *She*	*believed*		*his excuses.*
Subject	Finite	Predicator	Complement
MOOD		RESIDUE	
Senser	Pr:mental		Phenomenon

His excuses	convinced		her.
Subject	Finite	Predicator	Complement
MOOD		RESIDUE	
Senser -		Pr:mental	Phenomenon

passive:

His excuses	were	believed	(by her).
Subject	Finite	Predicator	(Adjunct:circ)
MOOD		RESIDUE	
Phenomenon		Pr:mental	(Senser)

She	was	convinced	(by his excuses.)
Subject	Finite	Predicator	(Adjunct:circ)
MOOD		RESIDUE	
Senser		Pr:mental	(Phenomenon)

The structural analysis shows us that we dealing with active, reversible synonyms, and not with simply active/passive pairs: we can express a mental process meaning as an active clause, with either the Senser or the Phenomenon as Subject. Similarly, we can express a mental process meaning as a passive clause with either the Senser or the Phenomenon as Subject. While not all mental process verbs exist as pairs, many do. This reversibility is another reason for distinguishing mentals from materials, for material processes do not form such pairs. For example, we cannot make the Goal of a material process clause the Subject while keeping the clause in the active voice:

I'm heating up the soup. *The soup's ... me up. ???
She carried the bags. *The bags ... her. ????

6. projection: the sixth major difference between mental and material processes is that most mental processes (except those of perception) can project. Material processes cannot project.

Projection was mentioned briefly in Chapter Five, where it was explained that the systemic interpretation of clause complex relations (how one clause relates to another) differs from that of many other grammatical approaches. As the clause complex is the subject of Chapter Nine, here I will just present a very brief outline, in order simply that this distinctive aspect of mental processes can be appreciated.

To facilitate explanations, here, first, are some examples of where one clause (typically the first) is a mental process which is projecting (the shaded boxes indicate a clause boundary):

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So	I	thought		I	'd give	blood.
	Senser	Pr:mental		Actor	Pr:material	Range

So	I	thought		'Oh bugger	I	'll give	blood'.
	Senser	Pr:mental			Actor	Pr:material	Range

'He	will meet	me	in Israel'		she	believed.
Actor	Pr: material	Goal	Circ:loc		Senser	Pr:mental

He	decided		that	he	'd meet	her	in Israel.
Senser	Pr:mental			Actor	Pr:material	Goal	Circ:loc

'I	'll meet	her	in Israel'		he	decided.
Actor	Pr: material	Goal	Circ:loc		Senser	Pr:mental

He	decided		to meet	her	in Israel.
Senser	Pr:mental		Pr:material	Goal	Circ:loc

In each of the above examples we are dealing with two clauses. The relationship between the two clauses is a relationship by which one clause 'shoots out' or projects a second clause. Projection is one kind of what Halliday calls the logical relationships that can hold between adjacent clauses. Projection describes the relationship that you probably know by the terms *indirect* or *reported thought*, or *direct* or *quoted thought*. Mental process projection has to do with quoting or reporting ideas.

As we will see more clearly in Chapter Nine, the two clauses are not in a relationship of constituency: the projected clause is not an embedded constituent of the projecting clause. We can tell that it is not embedded within the first because:

i) it is a Finite clause (and so cannot be an Act)
*So I thought giving blood.
ii) it is not dependent on any Fact noun (and so cannot be a Fact)
*So I thought [the fact] that I'd give blood.
iii) it has its own clause structure, for both Transitivity and Mood (and therefore cannot be a simple noun Phenomenon):

So	I		thought		I	'd	go and give	blood.
Adj:conjun	Subject	Finite	Pred		Subject	Finite	Pred	Compl
	MOOD		RESIDUE		MOOD		RESIDUE	

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We are therefore not dealing here with any kind of embedding or rank shift. Instead, we have a relationship of logical dependency between two units of the same rank, both clauses. They are two separate clauses; the first is a mental process but the second is in fact a material process clause.

Projection is just one of the different types of logical relationships that can bind adjacent clauses together. The projecting clause is the clause which contains the mental process verb, and it may occur before or after the projected clause. The two clauses which are in a projection relationship may be dependent upon each other or independent. If they are dependent, we have what you may call reporting; if independent, then quoting:

- 1ˢᵗ clause projects, 2ⁿᵈ clause is dependent (reporting)
  So I thought// I'd go and give blood.
- 1ˢᵗ clause projects, 2ⁿᵈ clause is independent (quoting)
  So I thought,// 'I'll go and give blood'.
- 2ⁿᵈ clause projects, 1ˢᵗ clause is dependent (reporting)
  I'd go and give blood,// I thought.
- 2ⁿᵈ clause projects, 1ˢᵗ clause is independent (quoting)
  'I'll go and give blood',// I thought.

When the projected clause is reporting, we can typically insert a *that*:

So I thought// [that] I'd go and give blood.

With quoting, no *that* can be inserted. Instead, the independence relation will be signalled either orthographically with quotation marks, or intonationally by a pause and voice quality change.

With most mental processes of cognition you can both report and quote, while with affection processes, only reporting is possible:

Simon	*wanted*		*to get*	*a cognac.*
Senser	Pr:mental		Pr:material	Goal

but not:

Simon wanted, //'To get a cognac'.

She	*was hoping*		*to get married*	*in Israel.*
Senser	Pr:mental		Pr:material	Circ:location

She	*was hoping*		*that*	*they*	*'d get married*	*in Israel.*
Senser	Pr:mental		-	Actor	Pr:material	Circ: location

This relationship of projection between clauses is particular to only two types of processes: mentals and, as we will see below, verbal processes. It is not possible with material processes:

*Marg was cooking that the soup was hot.
*'The soup is hot' Marg cooked.

As far as analysis is concerned, it is important to understand that with projection there are two clauses involved. Each clause needs to be analysed for its transitivity structure. Only the projecting clause will be a mental process (or verbal process). The projected clause can be of any process type: material, mental, verbal, existential, relational.

Circumstantials in mental process clauses

The full range of different Circumstantial elements can occur with mental processes as with materials:

Afterwards	she	must have felt	a lot of pain.
Circ: loc	Senser	Pr:mental	Phenomenon

I	heard	that story	on the news.
Senser	Pr:mental	Phenomenon	Circ:loc

3. Behavioral Processes

Behavioural processes construe physiological or psychological behaviour. The main participant, the BEHAVER, is generally a conscious being and, if it is not, the clause is considered to be personification. These processes are often the doing version of a mental or even a verbal process. Sometimes there is a Range-like Participant known as BEHAVIOUR, which extends the process; sometimes, especially with relation to those most closely related to mental processes, the Range is a separate entity somewhat like a Phenomenon.

Behavioural processes with a conscious Behaver and with personification

The woman   laughed

Behaver	Process: behavioural

The cat   sleeps   on the back veranda

Behaver	Process: behavioural	Circumstance

Phyllis and Jim   watched   the sunset

Behaver	Process: behavioural	Range

Betty   cried   bitter tears

Behaver	Process: behavioural	Behaviour

Tne volcano   slept

Behaver	Process: behavioural (personification)

Behavioural Processes are Processes of physiological and psychological behaviour, like breathing, dreaming, snoring, smiling, hiccuping, looking, watching, listening, and pondering.

There is one obligatory Participant: the *Behaver.* Like a Senser, the Behaver is a conscious being. But the Process is one of doing, not sensing. So we can have:

She	lives	in the fast lane
Behaver	Behavioural	Circumstance:place

He	snores	loudly
Behaver	Behavioural	Circumstance:manner

We can have the enacted behaviour mentioned:

He	heaved	a great sigh
Behaver	Behavioural	Range

He	threw	a tantrum
Behaver	Behavioural	Range

Range specifies the range or scope of the Process, defining its coordinates or domain. Range appears in several guises, so we shall return to it below. But in Behavioural Processes, Range names the behaviour enacted.

Sometimes it is difficult to distinguish Behavioural Processes and Range from Material Processes with Goal or Range. Several examples of each are provided below to illustrate the difference.

He	did	the shopping	He	shopped	
He	took	a nap	He	took	two cases
He	threw	a tantrum	He	threw	the spear
He	drew	a ragged breath	He	drew	a picture
He	drove	a hard bargain	He	drove	a Porsche
Behaver	Behavioural	Range	Actor	Material	Goal

In the first set, the Processes are physiological or psychological and the Range element names the actual process. In the second set someone or something is actually acting, sometimes upon someone or something else.

Behavioural processes

The third process type is that of behavioural processes, exemplified in the following clauses:

> Diana sighed loudly.
> The poor woman cried for hours.
> Simon sniffed the soup.

Halliday describes these processes semantically as a 'half-way house' between mental and material processes. That is, the meanings they realize are mid-way between materials on the one hand and mentals on the other. They are in part about action, but it is action that has to be experienced by a conscious being. Behaviourals are typically processes of physiological and psychological behaviour. For example:

> breathe, cough, dream, frown, gawk, grimace, grin, laugh, look over, scowl, smile, sniff, snuffle, stare, taste, think on, watch . . .

Indicating their close relationship with mental processes, some behaviourals in fact contrast with mental process synonyms, e.g. *look at* is behavioural but *see* is mental, *listen to* is behavioural but *hear* is mental.

Not only are these types of verbs semantically a mix of material and mental, but grammatically they also fall mid-way between material and mental processes.

The majority of Behaviourals have only one participant. Behaviourals thus express a form of doing that does not usually extend to another participant. This one obligatory participant is called the Behaver, and is typically a conscious being (like the Senser in the mental process clause):

She	sighed	with despair.
Behaver	Pr:behavioural	Circ:manner

He	coughed	loudly.
Senser	Pr:behavioural	. Circ:manner

Behaviourals can contain a second participant that is like a Range: a restatement of the process. This participant is called the Behaviour:

He	smiled	a broad smile.
Behaver	Pr:behavioural	Behaviour

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If there is another participant which is not a restatement of the process, it is called a Phenomenon:

George	sniffed	the soup.
Behaver	Pr:behavioural	Phenomenon

Behavioural processes often occur with Circumstantial elements, particularly of manner and cause:

Simon	laughed	at the girl's stupidity.
Behaver	Pr:behavioural	Circ:cause

She	was crying	with frustration.
Behaver	Pr:behavioural	Circ:manner/cause

While behaviourals display many features of mental processes, the process functions more like one of 'doing' than one of 'thinking/feeling', etc. The evidence for this is that the unmarked present tense for behaviourals is the present continuous, as it is for materials.

present continuous tense (unmarked): *I am watching the operation.*
They're all listening to Simon's story.
present tense (marked): *I watch the operation.*
They listen to Simon's story.

Also like materials, behavioural processes cannot project, i.e. they cannot quote or report:

*They're all listening [that] Simon's story . . .

So behaviourals, involving the role of a conscious being but being unable to project and taking present continuous tense, are half-way mixes both semantically and grammatically between mental and material processes.

4. Verbal Processes

Verbal Processes are processes of saying, or more accurately, of symbolically signalling. Very often these are realised by two distinct clauses: the projecting clause encodes a signal source (*Sayer*) and a signalling (*Verbal Process*) and the other (projected clauses) realises what was said. As with Mental Processes which project, the projected and projecting clauses are each analysed in their own right.

She	said
Sayer	Verbal

I	don't like	brussel sprouts
Senser	Mental:Affect	Phenomenon

She	explained
Sayer	Verbal

that

she	didn't like	brussel sprouts
Senser	Mental:Affect	Phenomenon

The Sayer (signal source) need not to be a conscious being.

The sign	says
Sayer	Verbal

'No Smoking'

Material

The alarm clock	screamed
Sayer	Verbal

'Get up'

Material

There are three other Participants that may be incumbent upon Verbal Processes:

- Receiver: the one to whom the verbalisation is addressed
- Target: one acted upon verbally (insulted, complimented, etc)
- Range/Verbiage: a name for the verbalisation itself_

John   **told**   **Jenny**   **a rude joke**

Sayer	Verbal	Receiver	Verbiage

Keating   **slurred**   **Howard**

Sayer	Verbal	Target

Examples of Verbal Processes are listed below. Some are used only for reporting: *He denied (that) he had had anything to do with it* and others for both reporting: *He said that he had had nothing to do with it* and quoting: *He said, 'I had nothing to do with it'.*

Reporting	Quoting (and Reporting)
insinuate, imply, remind hypothesize, deny, make out, claim , pretend, maintain	say, tell, remark, observe, continue, point out, report, announce, shout, cry, ask, demand, inquire, query, interrupt, reply, explain, protest, warn, insist

There is one further Participant role that needs to be discussed. This is Beneficiary.

The Beneficiary is the one *to whom* or *for whom* the Process is said to take place.

In Material Processes the Beneficiary is either the *Recipient* or the *Client*. Recipient is the one **to whom** goods are given. The Client is the one **for whom** services are provided.

1	I	sold	the car	to John
	Actor	Material	Goal	Recipient

	I	sold	(to) John	the car
	Actor	Material	Recipient	Goal

2	They	threw	a farewell party	for Jane
	Actor	Material	Goal	Client

	They	threw	(for) Jane	a farewell party
	Actor	Material	Client	Goal

To find out if a prepositional phrase with *to* or *for* is a Beneficiary or not, see if it could occur naturally without the preposition, as in the second example in each of the above pairs.

In Verbal Processes the Beneficiary is *Receiver*, a Participant role we've already met. The Receiver is the one who is being addressed. The Receiver is also sometimes called the *addressee*.

You	promised	the doctor	you	'd quit smoking
Sayer	Verbal	Receiver	Actor	Material

Range

Range is the element that specifies the scope or domain of the Process.

The Range in Material Processes typically occurs in middle clauses, those with Actor only, no Goal.

She	dropped	a curtsy
Actor	Material	Range

She	dropped	an egg
Actor	Material	Goal

Another distinction is that Material Processes with Goals can 'take' resultative attributes, while Material Processes with Range cannot.

Kelly	shot	Fuller	dead
Actor	Material	Goal	Resultative Attribute

She	dropped	a curtsy	dead
Actor	Material	Range	

Also in Material Processes with Goals, the Goal can be changed into an appropriate pronoun and still make sense in context:

Kelly shot Fuller dead.   Kelly shot him dead.

This doesn't work with Material Processes with Range:

He dropped a curtsy.   **He dropped it.**

The 'doing' type Processes, their meanings and key Participants are summarised below.

Process Type	Category Meaning	Participants
Material	doing, happening	Actor, Goal
Behavioural	behaving	Behaver, Range
Mental	sensing	Senser, Phenomenon
Verbal	saying, signalling	Sayer, Target, Receiver

Verbal processes

The following clauses are all examples of verbal processes:

So I asked him a question.
They tell you nothing.
Simon told them a story.
The Arab boyfriend told her a lot of rubbish.

As these examples show, verbal processes are processes of verbal action: *saying* and all its many synonyms, including symbolic exchanges of meaning such as in:

My recipe says red wine.

A verbal process typically contains three participants: Sayer, Receiver and Verbiage. The Sayer, the participant responsible for the verbal process, does not have to be a conscious participant (although it typically is), but anything capable of putting out a signal. The Receiver is the one to whom the verbal process is directed: the Beneficiary of a verbal message, occurring with or without a preposition depending on position in the clause. The Verbiage is a nominalized statement of the verbal process: a noun expressing some kind of verbal behaviour (e.g. *statement, questions, retort, answer, story . . .*):

So	I	asked	him	a question.
	Sayer	Pr:verbal	Receiver	Verbiage

The Arab boyfriend	told	her	a lot of rubbish.
Sayer	Pr:verbal	Receiver	Verbiage

As with all process types, Circumstantials can occur in verbal processes. The commonest type is manner Circumstantials:

They	're talking	about the news.
Sayer	Pr:verbal	Circ:manner

What	are	they	talking	about?
Circ:manner . . .		Sayer	Pr:verbal	. . . Circ:manner

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Although many verbal processes occur with a nominal element, a Verbiage, it is a distinctive feature of verbal processes that they project. That is, like mental processes, verbals form a clause complex, projecting a second clause by either quoting or reporting. But whereas mental processes report or quote ideas, verbal processes quote or report speech (or 'locutions' in Halliday's terms). A relationship of interdependence between the two clauses gives quoting or direct speech, whereas a relationship of dependency between projected and projecting clause gives indirect or reported speech. The projecting clause may occur as first or second in the sequence. Analysis must describe the transitivity structure of both the projecting clause (the verbal process clause) and the projected clause (which may be any process type).

direct/quoted speech:

I	said			'Can	you	avoid	the scar tissue?'
Sayer	Pr:verbal				Actor	Pr:material	Goal

indirect/reported speech:

I	asked	them		to avoid	the scar tissue.
Sayer	Pr:verbal	Receiver		Pr:material	Goal

direct/quoted speech:

'They	pay	you,'		you	said.
Actor	Pr:material	Client		Sayer	Pr:verbal

indirect/reported speech:

You	said		that	they	pay	you.
Sayer	Pr:verbal			Actor	Pr:material	Client

The quoted or reported clause can be either a proposition (information) as in the above examples, or a proposal (goods and services), in which case the Mood element will often be ellipsed in the direct quotation, while modulation will be used in the indirect reporting.

direct/quoted:

He	said			'Carry	the bags'.
Subject	Finite	Predicator		Predicate	Complement
MOOD		RESIDUE		RESIDUE	
Sayer	Pr:verbal			Pr:material	Goal

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indirect/reported:

He	said			she	should	carry	the bags.
Subject	Finite	Predicator		Subject	Fin:modul	Pred	Compl
MOOD		RESIDUE		MOOD		RESIDUE	
Sayer	Pr:verbal			Actor		Pr:mat	Goal

A reported clause may be either finite or non-finite:

He	demanded			that	she	carry		the bags.
Subject	Finite	Pred		Adj:conjun	Subj	Finite	Pred	Compl
MOOD		RESIDUE			MOOD		RESIDUE	
Sayer	Pr:verbal				Actor	Pr:material		Goal

He	commanded		her		to carry	the bags.
Subject	Finite	Predicator	Compl		Predicator	Compl
MOOD		RESIDUE			RESIDUE	
Sayer	Pr:verbal		Receiver		Pr:material	Goal

When speech is reported, it is usually introduced with a *that* clause, but note that this is not an embedded Fact clause, since we cannot introduce a Fact-noun:

> *She told me the fact that junkies look worse than that.
> *He said the fact that she should carry the bags.

More on projection in the next chapter.

5. Relational Processes

Relational Processes involve states of being (including having). They can be classified according to whether they are being used to identify something (Barry Tuckwell may be the finest living horn player) or to assign a quality to something (Barry Tuckwell is a fine horn player).

Processes which establish an identity are called *Identifying Processes* and Processes which assign a quality are called *Attributive Processes*. Each has its own characteristic Participant roles. In Attributives these are *Carrier* and *Attribute*.

Barry Tuckwell	is	a fine horn player
Carrier	Attributive	Attribute

In Identifying Processes the Participant roles are *Token* and *Value*.

Barry Tuckwell	may be	the finest living horn player
Token	Identifying	Value

Relational Processes can be further sub-classified according to whether they are: intensive, possessive or circumstantial.

Intensive	Paul Keating is arrogant.
Possessive	Paul Keating has dark hair.
Circumstantial	
Circumstance as Attribute	The yolk is in the centre.
Circumstance as Process	Albumen surrounds the yolk.

The options available to Relational Processes can be shown as presented on the next page:

Relational Processes
→ Attributive: Carrier, Attribute
  Identifying: Token, Value

→ intensive
  possessive
  circumstantial
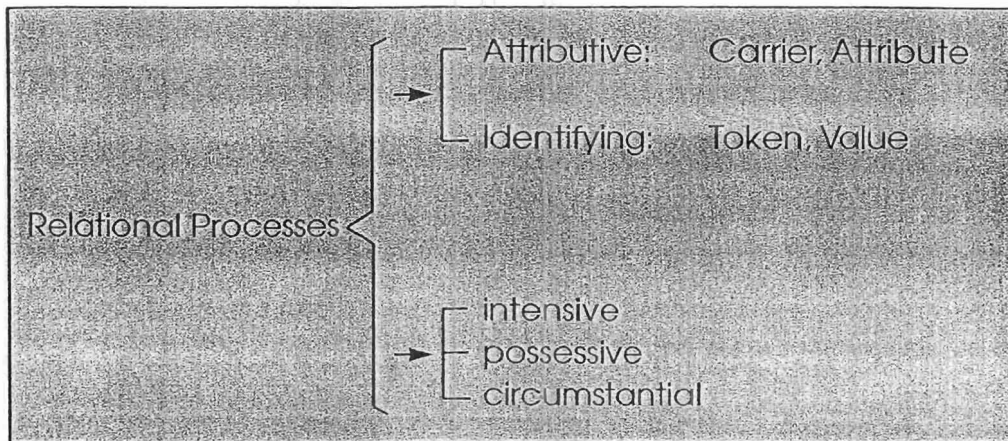
This network indicates that all Relational Processes are either Attributive or Identifying, and at the same time, are either intensive, possessive or circumstantial. This gives a paradigm of six possibilities.

Cytoplasm	is	sort of a jelly-like material
Carrier	Attributive:intensive	Attribute

Plant cells	have	a cell wall
Carrier	Attributive:possessive	Attribute

The shell appears transparent
The yolk is inside the albumen

Carrier	Attrib:circumstantial	Attribute

The nucleus	is	the brain of the cell
Token	Identifying:intensive	Value

The transducer is Dr Buick's
All cells contain cytoplasm

Token	Identifying:possessive	Value

Tuesday was the deadline
Albumen surrounds the yolk

Token	Identifying:circumstantial	Value

Relational Processes play a key role in education in subjects such as science, geography, mathematics and economics. It is through these Processes that these subjects create an ordered technical vocabulary, and a way of classifying the world. They are fundamental in how the above-mentioned subjects construct the world.

It is sometimes difficult to tell whether a Relational Process is Identifying or Attributive. Perhaps the easiest way to distinguish between them is that Identifying Processes are reversible. That is, the clause can be reversed in order and the semantic relationship still holds. For example:

Barry Tuckwell	may be	the finest living horn player
Token	Identifying:intensive	Value

The finest living horn player	may be	Barry Tuckwell
Value	Ident:intens.	Token

In each case the role (the finest living horn player) and the occupant (Barry Tuckwell) are the same.

If we take a difficult case such as:

A whale	is	a mammal
Carrier	Attributive:intensive	Attribute

we find that, while it is reversible—a mammal is a whale—the relationship does not hold from the original. That is, while all whales are mammals, all mammals are not whales, as 'a mammal is a whale' suggests. The clause—a whale is a mammal—is assigning class membership, not identification.

The reversibility test works because Identifying Processes have a passive voice; that is, the clause can be made passive. However, *is* does not change its form when it is passive so a further test is to substitute a Relational Process which does change. For example:

| The nucleus | is | the brain of the cell |
The nucleus	comprises	the brain of the cell
Token	Identifying:intens	Value

The brain of the cell	is comprised of	the nucleus
Value	Ident:intens.	Token

Listed here are some of the more common Relational Processes:

Attributive			Identifying		
be	become	go	be	become	equal
get	turn	grow	add up to	play	act as
keep	stay	remain	call	mean	define
look	appear	seem	represent	spell	express
smell	taste	feel	form	give	constitute
sound	end up	turn out	imply	stand for	symbolise
last	weigh	concern	realise	indicate	signify
cost	has	belong to	betoken	take up	span
need	require		resemble	occupy	own
			include	involve	contain
			comprise	provide	cause

Attributive

Old, unused fruit is/becomes/goes/gets/turns/grows mouldy.
The hunters kept/stayed/remained very still.
The light through the clouds looked/appeared/seemed like liquid gold.
That smells/tastes/feels/sounds lovely.
Plants have/need/require cell walls.

Identifying

X is/equals/represents/stands for/signifies/means the horizontal axis.
Three main parts comprise/constitute/form the human brain.
The nucleus is/acts as the brain of the cell.
Viruses cause/are involved in most outbreaks of flu.
This type of embouchure is called/is known as/is termed Einsetzen.

Before you accuse us of contradiction, note that the same word can function as different Processes, depending on its meaning in context.

So for example:

She	smelled	the lovely flowers
Senser	Mental:perception	Phenomenon

The baking bread	smelled	delicious
Carrier	Attributive:circ	Attribute

She	felt	badly	about his defeat
Senser	Mental:affect	Circ:manner	Circ:matter

Feel	this lovely, soft towel!
Mental:perception	Phenomenon

He	felt	crook
Carrier	Attributive:intens	Attribute

Their new uniforms	felt	scratchy and hot
Carrier	Attributive:intens	Attribute

Relational processes

The category of Relational processes covers the many different ways in which *being* can be expressed in English clauses. Examples of the domain covered by relational processes are:

i) Di is a blood donor.
ii) The operation was in Geneva.
iii) The operation lasted one hour.
iv) The story was Diana's.
v) Diana has a daughter.
vi) Women are the brave ones.
vii) The best place to give blood is in Geneva.
viii) The operation took one hour.
ix) The bomb was her boyfriend's.
x) The bomb belonged to the boyfriend.

System 8.3 captures these contrasts.

As this is a rich and complex area of clause Transitivity, the discussion here can only provide an outline (see Halliday and Matthiessen 2004: 210–48 for further discussion). We will begin by clarifying the basic structural difference between Attributive and Identifying processes, exemplified initially for the *intensive* sub-type.

Intensive Attributive Processes

An intensive Relational process involves establishing a relationship between two terms, where the relationship is expressed by the verb *be* or a synonym.

In the Attributive sub-type, a quality, classification or descriptive epithet (Attribute) is assigned to a participant (Carrier). The Carrier is always realized by a noun or nominal group.
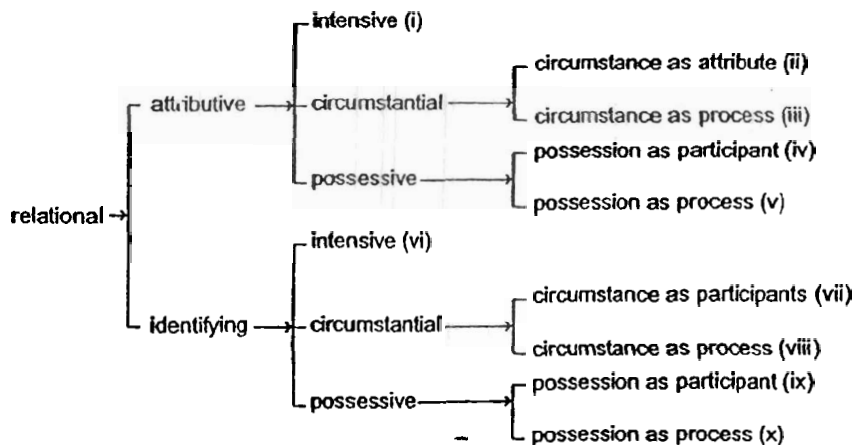
System 8.3 Relational processes

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The meaning of an Attributive intensive is that *'x is a member of the class a'*. In this classification kind of attributive intensive, the Attribute is also a nominal group, typically an indefinite nominal (introduced by *a/an*).

Diana	*is*	*a talkative dinner guest.*
Carrier	Pr:intensive	Attribute

I	*won't be*	*a pig.*
Carrier	Pr:intensive	Attribute

In the descriptive attributive intensive, the Attribute is a quality or epithet ascribed to the Carrier, i.e. *'x carries the attribute a'*. In these attributive intensives, the Attribute is typically an adjective:

You	*are*	*very skinny*
Carrier	Pr:intensive	Attribute

All the other things	*would have been*	*minute.*
Carrier	Pr:intensive	Attribute

Although the commonest intensive verb used is *be*, various attributive intensive synonyms exist. Some of these are listed and exemplified in Table 8.1.

The essential characteristic of the Attributive intensive (as indeed for all Attributive relationals) is that an Attributive clause is not reversible. This means that there is no

Table 8.1   Intensive Attributive verbs

VERB	CARRIER	Process:intensive	ATTRIBUTE
become	She	became	suspicious.
turn	He	turned	pale.
grow	She	grew	serious.
turn out	It	turned out	OK.
start out	She	started out	healthy.
end up	She	ended up	dead.
keep	She	kept	quiet.
stay		Stay	still.
remain		Remain	patient.
seem	It	seemed	unlikely.
sound	His story	sounded	suspicious.
appear	The luggage	appeared	harmless.
look	She	looked	jaundiced.
taste	The soup	tasted	wonderful.
smell	The soup	smells	fantastic.
feel	I	feel –	funny.
stand	A litre of milk	stands	this tall.

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Table 8.2 Intensive Identifying verbs

VERB	TOKEN	Pr:intensive	VALUE
equal	One plus two	equals	three.
add up to	One plus two	adds up to	three.
make	Manners	make	the man.
signify	Signing a contract	signifies	agreement.
mean	'Quantum leap'	means	a discrete jump.
define	The word 'exuberant'	defines	his style.
spell	C-A-T	spells	'cat'.
indicate	The presence of rust	indicates	moisture.
express	Her smile	expressed	pleasure.
suggest	His frown	suggested	annoyance.
act as	The commissioner	acts as	the mediator.
symbolize	An *	symbolizes	an unacceptable clause.
play	Robert de Niro	plays	Capone.
represent	The milk bottle	represents	one litre.
stand for	@	stands for	'at'.
refer to	'Quantum leap'	refers to	a sharp jump.
exemplify	His behaviour	exemplified	the typical terrorist.

Grammatically, defining involves two participants: a Token (that which stands for what is being defined) and a Value (that which defines). While the most frequently used Identifying intensive verb is *be*, other synonymous intensives are listed and exemplified in Table 8.2 above.

Both the Token and the Value are realized by nominal groups. Typically the nominal groups in Identifying intensives are definite, whereas in Attributives the Attribute is an indefinite nominal group, e.g. *the skinny one* (Identifying) vs *a skinny one* (Attributive). Because the Identifying clause contains two autonomous nominal participants, all Identifying clauses are reversible, i.e. they can form passives.

active:

You	*'re*	*the skinniest one here.*
Token	Pr:intensive	Value

passive:

The skinniest one here	*is*	*you.*
Value	Pr:intensive	Token

active:

Married women	*are*	*the real victims.*
Token	Pr:intensive	− Value

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passive:

The real victims	are	married women.
Value	Pr:intensive	Token

The reversibility of Identifying intensives raises the question of determining which 'side' of the clause is the Token and which the Value. This can be determined both semantically and grammatically. Halliday points out that semantically the Token will be a 'sign, name, form, holder or occupant' of a Value, which gives the 'meaning, referent, function, status or role' of the Token. The Token, then, is the nominal group which contains the 'name', and the Value is the nominal group which gives the classification. Often, semantic criteria will indicate immediately which part of the clause is Token or Value.

However, it is the grammatical test which determines role assignment. The test involves replacing the verb *to be* with one of the synonymous Identifying intensive verbs listed above, and then determining whether the resulting clause is active or passive, and which constituent is functioning as Subject. The correlation is that:

- TOKEN will always be Subject in an active clause
- VALUE will always be Subject in a passive clause.

For example, to determine which is Token and which Value, take the original clause:

You're the skinniest one here.

and substitute a possible synonymous verb:

= You represent the skinniest one here.

Determine whether this substitute clause is active or passive, and label the Subject role = active (no presence of be + past participle + by)

You	represent		the skinniest one here.
Subject	Finite	Predicator	Complement
MOOD		RESIDUE	

If active, then Subject must also be Token:

You	represent		the skinniest one here.
Token	Pr:intensive		Value
Subject	Finite	Predicator	Complement
MOOD		RESIDUE	

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Check the analysis by forming the passive, where Subject will be Value:

The skinniest one here	is	represented	by you.
Subject	Finite	Predicator	Adj:circ
MOOD		RESIDUE	
Value		Pr:intensive	Token

In summary, this procedure involves:

i) finding a substitute intensive verb (other than *be*)
ii) analysing the clause for Mood to determine Subject
iii) noting whether the clause is active or passive
iv) applying the rule: Token is Subject in active; Value is Token in passive clause
v) testing by changing active to passive or vice versa
vi) establishing final analysis of original clause.

As a further example of applying this procedure, take the clause *Women aren't the weak ones*.

i) Women don't constitute the weak ones.
ii) *Women* is Subject

Women	don't	constitute	the weak ones.
Subject	Finite	Predicator	Complement
MOOD		RESIDUE	

iii) clause is active
iv) therefore, *women* is Token
v) passive:

The weak ones	aren't	constituted	by women.
Subject	Finite	Predicator	Complement
MOOD		RESIDUE	
Value		Pr:intensive	Token

vi) final analysis of original clause:

Women	aren't	the weak ones.
Subject	Finite	Complement
		RESIDUE
Token	Pr:intensive	Value

The verb substitution test can also be used to determine whether a given *be*-clause is Attributive or Identifying. If a possible verb substitute is one which cannot form a passive, then the clause must be Attributive. If the verb substituted can form a passive, then the clause is Identifying, and by labelling the Subject constituent you will be able to determine which constituent is Token and which Value.

For example, to determine whether the following clause is Attributive or Identifying:

Only people with 1993 badges are financial members.

First, find a verb to substitute for 'are':

Only people with 1993 badges ·	*represent*	*financial members.*
	constitute	
	symbolize	
* Only people with 1993 badges	*turn into*	*financial members.*
	seem	
	appear	

Test whether the selected substitute can form a passive or not:

Financial members are represented only by people with 1993 badges.

This shows that the clause is Identifying, and since the clause is active, it is possible to assign Token/Value labels to the original clause:

Only people with 1993 badges	*are*	*financial members.*
Subject	Finite	Complement
MOOD		RESIDUE
Token	Pr:intensive	Value

Other common sub-types of relationals: (1) Circumstantials

As well as the intensive relationals, two other types of relational processes, Circumstantial and Possessive, occur commonly, both as Attributive and Identifying processes.

Circumstantial relational processes encode meanings about the circumstantial dimensions discussed earlier: location, manner, cause . . ., etc. Circumstance, then, can be expressed in a clause either as a Circumstantial constituent in a material, mental, behavioural or verbal process, or through a relational process.

In the Attributive Circumstantial, the Circumstance is often expressed in the Attribute. While the verb remains intensive, the Attribute will be a prepositional phrase or an adverb of location, manner, cause, etc. We capture this by showing the conflation of the Attributive with the Circumstantial element:

The bomb	*was*	*in her luggage.*	
Carrier	*Pr:intensive*	*Attribute/Circ:location*	–

As with all Attributive processes, these cannot form passives:

*In her luggage was been by the bomb.

The Circumstantial meaning may also be encoded in the process itself, with the verb meaning 'is + circumstance'. In this case, the process is specified as 'circumstantial':

The operation	lasted	one hour.
Carrier	Pr:circumstantial	Attribute

(where lasted = be + for one hour)

Di's narrative	concerns	her daughter's operation.
Carrier	Pr:circumstantial	Attribute

(where concerns = be + about)
Again, these Attributive processes are not reversible:

*One hour was lasted by the operation.
*Her daughter's operation was concerned by Di's narrative.

With Identifying Circumstantials, it is also possible to encode the circumstantial meaning within either the participants or the process.

When the circumstantial meaning is encoded through the participants, both the Token and the Value will be circumstantial elements of time, place, etc., while the verb remains intensive:

Yesterday	was	the last time Di gave blood.
Token/Circ:time	Pr:intensive	Value/Circ:time

The circumstance may also be expressed through the process, using verbs such as *take up, follow, cross, resemble, accompany*, etc. In these cases, the process is labelled as 'circumstantial':

The operation	took	one hour.
Token	Pr:circumstantial	Value

The terrorist	accompanied	the young woman.
Token	Pr:circumstantial	Value

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A milk bottle	holds	one litre of liquid.
Token	Pr:circumstantial	Value

Being Identifying, these verbs form passives:

> One hour was taken up by the operation.
> The young woman was accompanied by the terrorist.
> One litre of liquid is held by a milk bottle.

Other relationals: (2) Possessives

Possessive processes encode meanings of ownership and possession between clausal partic-
ipants. In Attributive Possessives, possession may be encoded through the participants
(with the Attribute the possessor, and the process remaining intensive):

This	is	yours.
Carrier	Pr:intensive	Attribute/Possessor

Possession may also be encoded through the process, the commonest Attributive posses-
sive verbs being *to have* and *to belong to*. Typically the Carrier will be Possessor:

I	had	a daughter.
You		8 pints of blood.
You	've got	less blood than me.
Carrier/possessor	Pr:possession	Attribute:possessed

But it is possible to have the Carrier as what is possessed:

The bomb	belonged to	the boyfriend.
Carrier/possessed	Pr:possession	Attribute/possessor

Attributive possessive processes are not reversible:

> *The boyfriend was belonged to by the bomb.

In Identifying possessives, possession may again be expressed either through the partici-
pants, or through the process. When possession is expressed through the participants, the
intensive verb *to be* is used, with the Token and Value encoding the possessor and the
possessed:

The bomb	was	her boyfriend's.
Token/Possessed	Pr:intensive	Value/Possessor

Her boyfriend's	was	the bomb.
Value/Possessor	Pr:intensive	Token/Possessed

The commonest Identifying possessive process is *to own*, which can form passives, so that either the Token or Value can be Subject:

Her boyfriend	owned	the bomb.
Token/Possessor	Pr:possessive	Value/Possessed

The bomb	was owned by	her boyfriend.
Value/Possessed	Pr:possessive	Token/Possessor

Causative relationals

A final type of relational process that needs to be mentioned briefly is the causative relational. Causative relational processes may occur with either Attributive or Identifying structures, with causation expressed either through a *make* + *be* (Process:intensive) structure, or, with Identifying relationals, through a causative process. As with the causative material processes we considered earlier, causatives involve an Agent in making or causing something. With Attributive relationals, an Agent (also called an Attributor) causes the Carrier to have an Attribute ascribed. For example:

The experience in Geneva	made	Diana	(become)	a blood donor.
Agent/Attributor	Pr:causative	Carrier	(Pr:intensive)	Attribute

The introduction of the causative process *make* as the Finite in these structures means that causative passives can be formed. Remember that the clause is still an Attributive one, however:

Diana	was made	to become	a blood donor	by the experience.
Carrier	Pr:causative	Pr:intensive	Attribute	Agent/Attributor

Note that the intensive process is often ellipsed from the clause:

Giving blood	makes	you	weak.
Agent/Attributor	Pr:causative	Carrier	Attribute

With the Identifying type, the Agent (or Assigner) makes the Token take a Value:

They	made	Simon	the barman	for the night.
Agent/Assigner	Pr:causative	Token	Value	Circ:extent

Note the analysis of the passive version of this clause:

Simon	was made	the barman	for the night	(by them).
Token	Pr:causative	Value	Circ:extent	(Agent/Assigner)

With Identifying clauses, the causative relationship between participants can also be expressed directly through a causative circumstantial verb. The common verbs are *result in*, *cause, produce*, etc. With these processes, the verb is a fusion of the intensive meanings *be* or *equal* and the expression of cause. The active/passive test can be used to determine the assignment of Token/Value labels. For example:

Donating blood	results in/causes	weakness.
Token	Pr:circumstantial	Value

Weakness	caused by	donating blood.
Token	Pr:circumstantial	Value

6. Other Process Types

> The following text is cited from Gerot and Wignell (1994: Pp. 72-73)

Existential Processes are processes of existence.

There	's	a unicorn	in the garden
	Existential	Existent	Circumstance:place

'There' has no representational function; it is required because of the need for a Subject in English.

Existential Processes are expressed by verbs of existing: 'be', 'exist', 'arise' and the *Existent* can be a phenomenon of any kind.

There ensued	a protracted legal battle
Existential	Existent

If in an Existential clause containing a Circumstantial element the Circumstantial element is Thematic, the word 'there' may be omitted:

On the matinee jacket	was	a blood-stain
Circumstance:place	Existential	Existent

There	was	a blood-stain	on the matinee jacket
	Existential	Existent	Circumstance:place

Existential 'there' is not to be confused with Circumstantial 'there':

There	's	your book	(right where you left it)
Attrib:Circ.	Attributive	Carrier	

There	's	even	a book	about great Australian dunnies
Existential			Existent	Circumstance:matter

'There' in 'There's your book' tells where the book is. 'There' in 'There's even a book about great Australian dunnies' is telling you that such a book exists.

Meteorological Processes

It	's hot
It	's windy
it	's five o'clock
	Meteorological

The 'it' has no representational function, but does provide a Subject. These are analysed as Process: Meteorological.

The text overleaf is analysed for you. As in many scientific and technical texts, many of the Processes are Relational.

From *action* to *being:* existential and relational processes

We have now described the structure of all the process types that have to do with actions or events of some kind. There remains a very large group of processes in English that do not encode action meanings at all, but instead encode meanings about *states of being.* For example:

> There were these two wonderful Swiss men.
> How many pints of blood are there in your body?
> She must have been really stupid.

There are two main types of these being processes: 1. existential processes, where things are simply stated to exist; and 2. relational processes, where things are stated to exist in

Existential processes

Existential processes represent experience by positing that 'there was/is something'. For example:

> There was snow on the ground.
> There were these two wonderful Swiss men.
> There's a hitch.

Existentials are easy to identify as the structure involves the use of the word *there. There,* when used in existential processes, has no representational meaning: it does not refer to a location. It is present in the clause merely because all English clauses require a Subject. It is important to distinguish between *there* used as an existential Subject, and *there* used as a Circumstance of location. While structural *there* is usually unstressed, circumstantial *there* is usually stressed and often carries an intonation contour:
structural *there:*

> There is a book on the table, and a bag on the chair.

circumstantial *there:*

> There is your book – on the table.

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The structural *there* in an existential process does not receive any functional label, as it is not encoding any representational meaning. It is left unanalysed for Transitivity, although in Mood analysis it is of course assigned the Subject role.

Existential processes typically employ the verb *be* or synonyms such as *exist, arise, occur*. The only obligatory participant in an existential process which receives a functional label is called the Existent. This participant, which usually follows the *there is/there are* sequence, may be a phenomenon of any kind, and is often in fact an event (nominalized action), e.g. *There was a battle*. Circumstantial elements (particularly of location) are common in existential processes:

There	was	snow	on the ground.
	Pr:existential	Existent	Circ:location

There	were	these two wonderful Swiss men.
	Pr:existential	Existent

Should	there	arise	any difficulties
		Pr:exist	Existent

C. Circumstances

Returning to Figure 3.1 at the beginning of this chapter, we see that a process is at the centre of the world of experience in the orbital diagram. Surrounding that process is an inner orbit of participant roles that answer the questions *Who? Which? What? To whom? For whom?* about the process. This may give the audience sufficient information for some speakers or writers' purposes, but others may want to fill in more details by telling the audience *where*, or *when* or *how* or *why* or *with whom* or *as what* the process occurred. Sometimes speakers/writers will provide this information in a separate clause or clauses. But very often such circumstantial information is within the clause itself, using a prepositional phrase, an adverbial group, or even a nominal group. Any piece of circumstantial information about the process within its own clause is called a CIRCUMSTANCE.

As we have already said, Circumstances function to illuminate the process in some way. They may, among other things, locate the Process in time or space, suggest how the Process occurs, or offer information about the cause of the Process:

Thing	Event	Circumstance
The team	practised	in the morning
The Premier	arrived	at the end of the meeting
My mother-in-law	lives	in Perth
Harry	was walking	along the road
The child	was sleeping	soundly
She	signed	with a gold pen
Claudia	plays	brilliantly
My father	suffers	from chronic lower back pain
I	had to sing	for my supper

Of course, a message can contain more than one Circumstance:

Participant	Process	Circumstance	Circumstance
Charles	sings	every week	in a choral group
The Premier	arrived	at ten	in a rented limousine

And Circumstances are rather more mobile than Participants and Processes in English. Compare the positions of *every weekend* and *suddenly* in the following examples:

She works at the service station every weekend
She works every weekend at the service station
Every weekend she works at the service station

Suddenly the driver braked
The driver suddenly braked
The driver braked suddenly

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This mobility can be used for specific purposes that will be dealt with more fully when we look at the textual function of language in Chapter 6.

Once you have recognised a Circumstance, you may want to use its proper function label or you may prefer to label it according to the question it answers. In either case what we are always interested in are the types of Circumstance used in a text and how they help us to understand the purpose of a text. You may like to consider what

Circumstances you would expect to find in a biography, a car manual or a travel guide. Table 3.2 lists the type of questions different Circumstances answer about a process and gives examples for each.

Table 3.2 Examples of questions answered by different Circumstances

Type of Circumstance	Answers the question	Examples
EXTENT	How long? How far? How many times?	(for) two hours (for) two miles five times a week
LOCATION	Where? When?	in the yard after dinner
CONTINGENCY	If what?	in case of rain in spite of rain in the absence of fine weather
CAUSE	Why? What for?	because of the rain for a rest
ACCOMPANIMENT	With whom? And who else? But not who?	with a friend as well as Henry instead of Michael
MATTER	What about?	about suffering
ROLE	What as?	as a clown
MANNER means quality comparison	 How? What with? How? What like?	 by car with a stick quietly like a trooper
ANGLE	According to whom?	to Mary according to Luke

D. The Structure of Participants, Processes and Circumstances

We have seen how clauses as expressions of the experiential function of language are combinations of smaller experiential groups patterned to signify *who did what to whom under what circumstances*. The constituent groups of the clause may be expressed by one word or may themselves have a complex internal structure (whether one word or several words, they are called groups). Thus, our experience is structured by our language into sequences of manageable bundles, each with a distinct outline.

The Participants in a process are realised in the grammar by
NOMINAL GROUPS
(and sometimes by PREPOSITIONAL PHRASES or EMBEDDED CLAUSES)

the Processes themselves by
VERBAL GROUPS

the Circumstances by
ADVERBIAL GROUPS or PREPOSITIONAL PHRASES
(and sometimes by NOMINAL GROUPS)

Participants

Let us now explore what might seem the most straightforward of our three models of experience, namely the notion of a PARTICIPANT.

A participant can be a person, a place or an object (this is the notion of 'thingness'), and in the grammar of a clause the participant is most commonly realised by a NOMINAL GROUP. At the nucleus of the nominal group structure is the word that most generally represents the thingness concept that is being talked about, typically a noun or pronoun. We call this nucleus the HEAD of the nominal group; that is the THING element in the nominal group structure.

Sometimes this single word is all that is needed to signify the concept under discussion, for example when we say 'trees are beautiful' or 'beer tastes bitter'. But we often want to be specific in some way, for example by pinning down some trees as 'those trees' or by qualifying them as 'those trees on the hill'. So the Thing may stand alone or be preceded and/or followed by other words in the group which modify it in some way. In other words, we can have premodification before the Thing and postmodification after it. The whole bundle forms the experiential meaning structure which we call the nominal group.

1 DEICTICS which point to, or in some way select, the noun functioning as Thing.

Deictics include:	*for example:*
articles	a, the
demonstratives	this, that, these, those
possessives	**my, her, their, my father's**
a few non-specific pointers	some, both, all

2 NUMERATIVES which tell how many of the Thing there are or in what order they occur.

Numeratives include:	*for example:*
cardinal numbers	one, three, a thousand
ordinal numbers	first, second, third, last

3 EPITHETS which describe a quality of a Thing.

Epithets include:	*for example:*
adjectives	**young, red,** dirty, exciting, disgusting, wonderful

4 CLASSIFIERS which establish the Thing as a member of a class.

These may be:	*for example:*
adjectives	Australian. financial, public
nouns acting as classifier	**cedar tree, car pool**

The premodification can be functionally divided into several parts. You will notice that the four broad groups reflect the structure of premodification in a nominal group. In English we put these elements in the order: Deictic Numerative Epithet Classifier. This means we say:

an old timber house	not	a timber old house
those two magnificent cedar trees		**those cedar magnificent two trees**

There are other constraints and possibilities as well. For instance, it is unusual to have more than one Deictic, but not at all uncommon to have more than one Epithet or Classifier:

a large ferocious guard dog

(two Epithets: large, ferocious)

a new white imported sports car

(two Classifiers: imported, sports)

Epithets can usually be intensified by the word *very*, Classifiers cannot. So, we can talk of *a very old timber house*, but not (normally) of *an old very timber house*.

There are two further points about premodification we need to examine. The first is that the boundaries between these four groups are not watertight. The word *public*, for instance, is commonly a Classifier in nominal groups such as *a public servant* or *public support*, but you can also use *public* in a way that is more like an Epithet, as in *a very public occasion* or *a very public display of emotion*. So we shouldn't think that every word can be labelled once and for all without considering its function in context.

The second point is that we can actually keep refining these categories. For example, we could distinguish between Epithets expressing size (*big, small*) and colour (*red, white*), noting that the former typically precede the latter (*a big red car*) and that it seems more normal to intensify size (*a very big dog*) than colour (*a very brown dog*). However, in this discussion we'll confine ourselves to the four basic categories.

Postmodification

Postmodification functions to qualify the Thing in more detail. It is functionally labelled as QUALIFIER and it gives more detail about the Thing by means of a clause or prepositional phrase. As the clause or prepositional phrase is functioning as a Qualifier within a group, it is said to be embedded in that group and has no independent status as a phrase or clause. Here are examples of nominal groups containing Qualifiers (the Qualifiers are in bold type):

> the house **on the hill**
> snow **on Mount Kosciusko**
> the car **that came hurtling down the road**
> the tall woman **who parks her car outside number 16**

In fact, the Qualifier is by far the most intricate part of a nominal group, and it can be extremely complex. Take the following example:

> the desk **which you bought at that shop near the bakery which sells those cakes your father likes**

All of this is a nominal group. Its Head is *desk* and everything after that is qualifying the desk. But there are Qualifiers within Qualifiers here. We could show the structure like this, where each Qualifier is on a new line.

> the desk
>   which you bought at that shop
>   near the bakery
>   which sells those cakes
>   your father likes

Or we could show the nesting like this:

> the desk [[which you bought at that shop [near the bakery [[that sells those cakes [[your father likes]]]]]]]

The convention here is to use a pair of double square brackets [[...]] for a clause Qualifier and a pair of single square brackets [...] for a prepositional phrase Qualifier. In the example above, you read the pairs of brackets from the outside in. So:

> everything after **desk** qualifies the desk, [[**which you ... father likes**]];
> everything after **shop** qualifies the shop, [**near ... father likes**];
> everything after **bakery** qualifies the bakery, [[**which sells ... father likes**]];
> and the last embedded clause qualifies the cakes [[**your father likes**]]

Table 3.3 Some example nominal groups

Deictic	Numerative	Epithet	Classifier	Thing	Qualifier
the	many	long	broadleaf	weeds	in my garden
my		friendly		dog	
the hitchiker's				guide	to the galaxy
that		extremely dangerous	Alpine	route	that we took last summer

Processes

We will now look at the way PROCESS is realised in the grammar of the English clause. Here verbal groups model the experience of eventness in English – whatever is happening, acting, doing, sensing, saying, or simply being. As with the nominal group, the verbal group may consist of one word or of a group of words.

Just as the Head of a nominal group (which expresses thingness in English) typically involves a noun or pronoun, the word at the heart of the verbal group (which expresses eventness) most generally represents the concept of eventness. This is typically a member of the word class verb, and is known as the Event in the verbal group structure. The Event is thus the central verb and signifies the activity taking place.

In an English verbal group, the Event may stand alone or be preceded by other words in the group. The Event is shown in bold in the examples below:

Participant	Process
Nominal Group	Verbal Group
	Event

The string	**broke**
The cat	has been **sleeping**
My car	was being **towed**
The other team	might have been **slacking**
The premises	could have been being **watched**

The elements that precede the Event itself are a quite limited set of forms known as auxiliary verbs or auxiliaries. They express aspects of the event such as:

Location in time (tense)	will eat, did eat
Completeness or continuousness of the event (aspect)	has eaten, was eating
– The speaker's judgment of the certainty of the event (modality)	may eat, must have eaten
Active or passive (voice)	was eaten (by someone)

The first auxiliary in the verbal group is sometimes called the FINITE, because of its special role in the grammar of English. Note, for example, that it is the Finite that is echoed in tag questions:

Your car **was** being towed at the time, **wasn't** it?

and that it is the Finite that moves position to make the difference between a question and a statement:

Your car **was** being towed at the time
Was your car being towed at the time?

The auxiliary verb(s) and the main Event verb are sometimes separated in the word patterning of the English clause. In each of the following examples there is just one Process realised by a verbal group, but in each case there is an adverb functioning as circumstance intervening in the linear structure of the verbal group. The verbal groups are in bold type:

I **can** clearly **remember**
They **seem to have** totally **lost** the plot
They **must have been** completely **confused** by your directions

The functions of auxiliary verbs in general, and the role of the Finite in particular, relate much more to the interpersonal aspect of grammar than to the experiential. They will therefore be dealt with more fully in Chapters 4 and 5.

Circumstances

Circumstances are realised by adverbial groups, prepositional phrases and even by nominal groups. We will look at the structures of each of these in turn.

Adverbial group

The adverbial group, like any other group, can be one word or several. It has an internal structure that allows some premodification and postmodification as demonstrated in the following list:

	quickly
fairly	quickly
very	quickly
ever so ·	quickly
so	quickly [[that we couldn't catch him]]
as	quickly [[as she could]]
as	quickly [as possible]

At the head of the adverbial group is an adverb. This may be premodified by some kind of INTENSIFIER (a word that modifies the meaning of the head adverb). Words like *quite*, *so*, *very*, *too*, *all too* are among the common Premodifiers of adverbial groups.

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The Postmodifier in the adverbial group is similar to the Qualifier in the nominal group in both structure and function. Structurally it may be an embedded clause or, less commonly, a prepositional phrase, and it functions to extend the definition of the Head word in the group or to pin down its meaning more specifically. However, unlike the nominal group, as you'll notice from the examples above, there is often a structural relationship between the Pre- and Postmodifiers in the adverbial group, for example so ... that, as ... as.

Prepositional phrases

The *prepositional phrase* has the structure PREPOSITION + NOMINAL GROUP. The nominal group may be quite simple:

Preposition	Nominal group
in	the morning
on	Wednesdays
at	home

or may contain embedding:

Preposition	Nominal group
in	**the house [[that had** been their home for 20 years]]
on	that fateful Wednesday [[which changed their lives]]
under	the flag [[that fluttered bravely in the breeze and that seemed to them a symbol of their endeavour]]

Remember that a prepositional phrase can serve not only as Circumstance in a clause but also as Qualifier within a nominal group or as Postmodifier in an adverbial group. Notice that inside the prepositional phrases in these examples there are four other prepositional phrases, three of them within the one overarching prepositional phrase structure:

for 20 years
in the breeze
to them
of their endeavour

Nominal groups

Finally, there are some groups of words that function as Circumstance but do not appear to fit the pattern of either adverbial group or prepositional phrase. For example:

all week	three weeks ago
six months later	**some time recently**
all the time	home
many times	a different

Some of these look like, and indeed are, nominal groups (*all week*, *many times*, *home*), others seem to be adverbial groups with premodification by a nominal group instead of

by an intensifier of some kind (*three weeks ago, some time recently*). What is important here is to be able to recognise a Circumstance element of a clause by its function; that is, the role it is playing in conveying the meaning of the message. Compare, for instance, the function of the word *home* in the following two messages:

Home is a cave in the hills
The troops are coming home

In the first of these clauses, *home* is a nominal group functioning as Thing; in the second it is functioning as Circumstance.

Structures within structures

The patterning of meaning in the experiential function of English offers many examples of structures within structures. Each structure has its own function. Take as an example the following sentence incorporating one of the prepositional phrases discussed above:

They stood under the flag that fluttered bravely in the breeze and that seemed to them a symbol of their endeavour.

This has the structure Participant + Process + Circumstance, where the Location Circumstance is realised by the prepositional phrase *under the flag that fluttered bravely in the breeze and that seemed to them a symbol of their endeavour*. The prepositional phrase has the expected structure, preposition (*under*) + nominal group (*the flag* [[*that fluttered bravely in the breeze and that seemed to them a symbol of their endeavour*]]). Now notice that this nominal group has two embedded clauses functioning as equal status Qualifiers of the Thing – it is a flag [[*that fluttered bravely in the breeze*]], and a flag [[*that seemed to them a symbol of their endeavour*]]. Inside each embedded clause there is a prepositional phrase functioning as Circumstance in the clause structure. *In the breeze* tells us where and by what means the flag fluttered; *to them* tells us for whom the flag was symbolic.

The second of these embedded clauses has a Participant realised by the nominal group *a symbol of their endeavour* with the prepositional phrase *of their endeavour* functioning as Qualifier. An important point to remember is that when a prepositional phrase functions as a Circumstance, it is acting in its own right as a consituent of its clause:

Participant	Process	Circumstance
They	work	in the factory
The accident	occurred	in the factory

But as Qualifier inside a nominal group, the prepositional phrase becomes part of the description of the Thing. In the following examples the relevant nominal groups realise a Participant constituent of a clause:

Participant	Process	Circumstance
The workers in the factory	were meeting	yesterday
The accident in the factory	is being investigated	

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In the examples above the prepositional phrase is said to be embedded or rank shifted – embedded because it is now inside a clause constituent element, and rank shifted because it is lower in rank than when it functions as Circumstance; that is, it now functions merely as part of a clause constituent rather than as the clause constituent itself.

Sometimes an utterance may be ambiguous if it is not clear at which rank a prepositional phrase is functioning. Consider for example the following clause: *Did you hear about the accident in the factory?* The speaker may mean to ask whether it was in the factory that you heard about the accident. In this case *in the factory* is intended as Circumstance within the clause, designed to locate the Process *did hear*. But if the speaker is asking whether you heard about the accident which took place in the factory, then *in the factory* describes or limits *accident* and is a Qualifier in the nominal group *accident in the factory*.

Experiential meanings and clause constituency

If you have been dividing clauses into their constituent parts and labelling them with class labels before you examine experiential meanings, you may have noticed that not all clause constituents figure in the experiential analysis. Conjunction groups, for instance, are only relevant in the textual analysis and when you are examining how clauses fit together in clause complexes. They should therefore be omitted from your experiential analysis.

Similarly, some prepositional phrases and adverbial groups are important for interpersonal and textual meanings but will not figure in your experiential analysis. To help you sort out the various functions of prepositional phrases and adverbial groups a help list is included as Appendix A. The following analysis of a clause shows the constituency and what is relevant for the experiential analysis.

	And	actually	the monster	probably	burped	after his meal
constituency	conj g	adv g	ng	adv g	vg	prep phrase
experiential			Behaver		Process: Behav	Circ: When

Nominalisation

We now return to the idea that clause patterning is a variable model of experience. Consider a clause like this:

Excessive consumption of alcohol is a major cause of motor vehicle accidents

If you were to ask what events or processes are important in this message, you might think of *drinking too much alcohol* or *heavy drinking causing accidents* or *drivers having*

accidents or even *cars hitting people or other cars*. Yet none of these events is presented here as a Process. The only Process here is the simple relation *is*; the clause is actually structured as *something is something*, and all of the potential events and happenings are packaged not as Processes, but as Participants. The process of drinking is presented here as a Participant *(consumption)*; the process of *causing* is packaged as *a major cause*, another Participant structure; and so on. If you try rewording this clause to bring out the events as Processes you might come up with clauses like these:

> People who drink too much alcohol and drive often cause motor vehicle accidents
> If you drink too much alcohol when you drive your car, you are likely to have an accident
> Motor vehicle drivers often have accidents because they have been drinking too much alcohol

If you reflect on these possibilities you realise that the paraphrases are not identical in meaning, that each attempt at rewording brings different aspects of the message into prominence, and in some cases changes the message substantially. Does *major cause* actually mean the same as *causes a lot of accidents* or *often causes accidents* or even *increases the risk of an accident?* In other words, the packaging expressed through the clause is part of the way in which we represent or model what is going on, what is at stake, what we take to be reality.

The particular phenomenon illustrated by the Participant *excessive consumption of alcohol* and *a major cause of motor vehicle accidents* is known as NOMINALISATION. Through nominalisation, events and even entire clauses are repackaged as Participants. Other examples of nominalisation are:

Clause		Thing
The plane leaves at 9.00	Repackaged as	The plane's 9.00 departure
She wrote this poem	Repackaged as	Her writing of this poem

Functional grammarians sometimes call nominalisation an ideational or experiential grammatical metaphor. Like the more familiar lexical metaphors, grammatical metaphors represent a shift or transference of meaning. Lexical metaphors often do this using relational processes which, as we said earlier in this chapter, can be used to describe or define. We can tell that the clause is metaphorical because the truth would be impossible or incongruent.

The girl was tiny	possible or congruent meaning
The girl was a doll	incongruent or metaphoric meaning.

The occurence of shifts of meaning from the congruent to the incongruent create lexical metaphors. Similar shifts from congruent to incongruent meanings also occur in the grammar. We've already seen this shift in the example *The volcano slept* in the discussion of behavioural processes on page 55. This clause is incongruent because behavioural processes require a conscious Senser (which a volcano clearly is not) and this shift into personification is an experiential grammatical metaphor. In fact, any mismatch of processes and participants is a shift in experiential meanings, and this is what happens in nominalisations.

When the event is realised in a verbal group it is congruent with experience, but when we turn the event into a noun expressing a participant role, the event has become an object and the language is no longer congruent with our experience. We have made an experiential shift and, because we are functional grammarians who regard all choices as meaningful, we look for some reasons for the shift.

One explanation is that we want to freeze that event in time and make it an object that participates in a different sort of process. Furthermore, as we saw in our discussion of nominal group structure, turning an event into a noun offers opportunities to point out, count, describe, classify and specify further and further. Another reason for the re-packaging lies in the shift from spoken to written language or from one register to another. You could compare the spoken language used during a scientific experiment, taking place in primary or secondary school, at university or in the workplace, with the nominalised language used to write up the research. You can read more about ideational (experiential) grammatical metaphor in Halliday (1994: Chapter 10).

To sum up

English speakers and writers manipulate the experiential meanings of their language in order to encode their experiences of the world around them. Every clause in English can be seen in the experiential function to be made up of combinations of Partici-pant(s) and Circumstance(s) revolving around the obligatory Process. But within this seemingly narrow framework there are almost endless possibilities as to how we encode our experience. Just what part of our experience goes into which constituent part of the clause structure is by no means fixed, and will vary widely from speaker to speaker, writer to writer, and situation to situation. If you want to find out more about language as experience read Chapters 5 and 6 in Halliday (1994).

After you have analysed a text clause by clause you will want to sort out the various process types used by the speaker or writer. This will help you to see just what kind of a world has been constructed, a world of doing or being or thinking or saying. You will want to know what nominal groups are selected as Actor, Senser, Carrier or Token. You will want to know, for example, which material processes have Goals and which do not. You will want to know how the speaker/writer constructs nominal groups so that you can identify how the world of experience has been constructed in the text. You will ask whether the nominal groups are abstract or concrete, whether they are people or animals and in what field of experience they belong. In Appendices D (Templates for summarising experiential meanings) and G (Template for exploring nominal group structures) there are some charts to help you in your investigation.

E. Exercises

1 Create clauses of your own that have the following patterns:
   a. Participant Process Circumstance
   b. Participant Circumstance Process
   c. Circumstance Participant Process

2 Identify the Participants, Processes, Circumstances in these clauses:
   a. Harry loves the bush
   b. In the aftermath of Christmas festivities I left
   c. Mr Bird wiped his tea wet lips on the back of his hand
   d. The King was walking on the terrace

3 Label the constituents in these nominal groups:
   a. a small gnome in the garden
   b. three tall gum trees
   c. clear water cascading over the rocks
   d. that big guard dog that lives over there

4 Create nominal groups to fit these patterns:
   a. Deictic Epithet Epithet Thing
   b. Numerative Thing Qualifier
   c. Epithet Classifier Thing Qualifier

5 List each Circumstance in the following passage and indicate whether it is an adverbial group or prepositional phrase.

He pushed his chair back angrily and strode from the room. The other members of the committee watched him in silence. The president waited for a few seconds, then smiled reassuringly. She calmly sorted her notes and turned to the secretary.

6 Of what type is each Process in the following passage?

I was driving down the Buchan to Orbost road on my way to another cave when I noticed a dark cleft in a cliff near the top of a hill. I thought there must be a dry cave, so I abandoned my previous plans and headed across the paddocks up to the cliff. Outside the cave was a rockshelter with a roof that had been blackened by the smoke of many campfires. A short rocky passage led into a dimly lit inner cavern with a high cathedral-like roof. I had feared that there would be a rock-strewn floor; instead the earth was soft and dry, perfect for prehistoric and indeed modern campers.

Analyse the following short text for TRANSITIVITY. You will need first to identify the Processes and then assign the appropriate Participant roles. Then identify the Circumstantial elements, if present. Answers: page 77.

I was driving along the coast road when the car suddenly lurched to one side. At first I thought a tyre had gone but then I saw telegraph poles collapsing like matchsticks. The rocks came tumbling across the road and I had to abandon the car. When I got back to town, well, as I said, there wasn't much left.
(Adkins and McKean 1983:21)

I	was driving	along the coast road

when	the car	suddenly	lurched	to one side.

At first	I	thought	(that) a tyre	had gone

but then	I	saw	telegraph poles

collapsing	like matchsticks.

The rocks	came tumbling	across the road

and	I	had to abandon	the car.

When	I	got back	to town

well, as	I	said	there	wasn't	much left
				Existential	Existent

Halliday defines *Value* as the referent, function or status, and *Token* as the sign, name, form, holder, occupant. In general terms, the Value will be more abstract, general and will provide the category. Token is more concrete, more specific and provides the instance.

Try identifying the Token and Value in each of the following clauses. You could use one colour for Token and another for Value. Answers on page 78.

1 Six undergraduate students served as subjects for the experiment

2 Increased responsiveness may be reflected in feeding behaviour.

3 His attitude constitutes the greatest barrier to progress.

4 $X = 2$.

5 This outline represents my first attempt at a plan for the course.

6 The kulaks were the ones who employed others.

7 That 's one of the points that Galbraith made.

8 The Board of Directors are the decision makers.

9 The first to arrive will be Fred.

10 The fuels of the body are carbohydrates, fats and proteins.