CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0   Introduction

This chapter presents a review of literature related to the present study. It comprises ten sections. Section 2.1 begins with an introduction to the history of the language of advertisements. Section 2.2 is on billboard advertisements, Section 2.3 on the language of slogans in advertisements, Section 2.4 on non-SFL research on the genre of advertisements, Section 2.5 on SFL research, Section 2.6 on SFL theory, Section 2.7 on contexts and language, Section 2.8 on the semantic system of a language, Section 2.9 on current research on groups and phrase and Section 2.10 concludes with a summary of the chapter.

2.1   The History of the Language of Advertisements

According to Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary (hereafter as OALD) the word advertisement is "a notice, picture or film telling people about a product, job or service" (2005).

As far back as 28 years ago, Alexander (1964 in Gilson and Berkman, 1980:11) pointed out that the American Marketing Association (AMA) defined advertising as "any paid form of nonpersonal presentation of ideas, goods, or services by an identified sponsor". The definitions of advertisement given by OALD and Alexander show advertisement as one of the communication media designed to respond to and help achieve marketing objectives.

Gilson and Berkman (1980) claim that, advertising in early western history started about 5000 years ago. The history of advertising is established as follows.

"Primitive selling was a face-to-face affair, but by 3000 B.C. Babylonian merchants were hiring barkers to shout out their goods to passers-by, and hanging signs over their doorways to represent what they sold."

(Gilson and Berkman, 1980:34)

Advertisements were created since the ruins of ancient Arabia. The early advertisements were wall posters and rock paintings, which can still be seen in many parts of Asia, Africa and South America. The printed advertisements were introduced in weekly newspapers in England in the 17th century. The early print advertisements were for the purpose of promoting books and newspapers (http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/advertisements).

The advertising work became a business when the industrial revolution started. The first advertising agency was set up in 1841 in Boston. Seeing as the demand for advertising slowly increased, many people stepped into the advertising field in early 1900s. Although radio began broadcasting in the 1920s, advertisements did not appear in this media.

Ten years later in the 1930s, the first commercial television programme was aired but it was only in 1949 that television became the famous new mass media. Advertisers knew that television was the medium of demonstration and began to

improve their advertising style. However, the creative era began only in the1960s and advertising agencies began to create creative messages in the advertisements. Trout and Al Ries (1972) observe that in 1970s, the advertisers begin with the positioning of products, which include the product's form, package size and price. Then, in the late 1980s and early 1990s, advertising messages were collaborated with tunes or music. Not long after that, the Internet became the marketing source as new frontiers for advertisers in the early 1990s.

Nowadays, advertisements play an important role in our life. In fact, advertisements play a role in increasing the sales of a product. "By presenting a description of product benefits, advertisements convince the customer to buy the product" (O'Neill, 1995:93). O'Neill (1995) also points out that advertisements are formed from a combination of images, which are words, sounds or visuals. This combination of images is known as the language of advertising.

The language of advertisement has its own special features. Usually, the language of advertisements is simple and positive as it emphasizes the uniqueness of a product. The vocabulary is clear and concrete. To quote O'Neill (1995:99):

> "Advertising language is different from other languages
> in another important respect; it is a simple language".

Besides that, the word '*loaded*' is usually associated with advertisements as it aims to change the will, opinions or attitudes of its audience (Leech, 1966:25 in Howe Yuen Sen, 1995).

Gilson and Berkman (1980) view advertising messages as persuasive media communication because the purpose of advertising is to persuade the public to respond

to what is advertised. Therefore, advertisements have to be creative and effective to ensure the readers can grasp the point of the advertisements straightforwardly.

Holmes (2005) also draws attention to the language choices in advertising. She claims that the language choices represent an effort to achieve a particular goal, which is to get the reader or hearer to purchase the product or the service being advertised. This is in line with Dimbley and Burton's (1998:194) observation that "Advertisements may persuade us by arousing the desire to imitate what we read or view."

O'Neill (1995) points out that advertising language is coded and it is also finely conspired as it is intended to trigger a specific response from the readers. Thus, an effective way to attract attention is to deliver a powerful statement. For this purpose, slogans were created. A slogan is used to recall the brand or a company's name. Therefore, the writers usually select words that carry particularly strong connotations.

Most of the successful advertisements use a creative strategy to attract and hold the attention of the targeted audience. The strategy may include images, the background, colours, words and presentation of product features. The advertisers usually use humour or simply play on words to make their advertisements striking and convincing to the readers.

In the 17th century, most advertisements were made entirely of print. The print itself was primarily informational. It described the product and where it could be obtained. Very few advertisements featured slogans or brand names. However, there have been some changes in the texture of advertising language over the years. As people do not pay attention to long and wordy advertisements, most of the current advertisements appear with brief and direct information of the products. This view

completely concurs with Delin's (2000:128) observation that "Often in advertisements sentences are short and even incomplete".

Although visual image plays an important role in advertising, when viewing an advertisement, the written words or slogans that go along with the image can be moving and persuasive. In fact, the positioning of the advertisements at a prominent place also enhances the advertising effectiveness. Examples of advertising media are wall paintings, billboard, flyers, brochures, radio, cinema and theatre, posters, magazines and newspapers.

However, the focus of the current study is particularly on one type of media, which are the billboard advertisements.

2.2   Billboard Advertisements

Advertising has become a crucial part of our lives due to the development of the economy. We are exposed to hundreds of advertisements every day in print in magazines, flyers and newspapers, as well as in vision such as wall paintings, billboards, television ads, skywriting, and progressively on the Internet, and on radios. Nowadays, there are 3D advertisements combined with features of light, movement and digital effects.

One of the famous types of advertisements is billboard advertisement. A billboard is known as a huge outdoor advertising structure found basically in high traffic areas, usually in the cities and highways. Since billboards have huge, amusing slogans and images, billboards are noticeable at the roadside. "Billboard advertisements are designed to catch a person's attention and create a memorable impression very

quickly, leaving the reader thinking about the advertisement after they have driven past it" (http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Billboard).

A billboard advertisement comprises of visual modality with bright colours, images and text to capture the reader's attention. Usually the billboard advertisements have only a few words, in large print, and an arresting image in luminous colours because people read them when they pass the highways at high speeds. An example of a billboard advertisement is shown below.

<div align="center" style="color:white;background:red;font-weight:bold;">Nothing moves you like a Citroen</div>

Figure 2.1   An example of billboard advertisement
(drawn from the data)

Figure 2.1 shows that the advertisement consisting of six words and the use of the word '*like*' attracts the readers' attention that the product has a distinguishing feature, which is better than any other product of the same kind. The advertisement also appears in bright red colour, which could immediately catch one's eye. Other than this, some billboards have designs with parts of figures hanging off the billboard edges. This type of advertisement layout certainly captures the readers or viewers attention easily.

There are of course, many other creative advertising approaches, styles and strategies that could be presented. However, the current study aims to analyze the language of billboard advertisements, to see how ideational meanings are conveyed in Malaysian billboard slogans. The study focuses mainly on the billboards that are statically pasted or advertised on a static structure. Though visual images appear in the billboard advertisements, they will not be analyzed in this study, as the main aim of the present study is to analyze the slogans of the billboard advertisements.

Advertisement is a powerful tool for social communication as it reinforces our views on everyday life, as well as relationships between people and the world. Kawashima (2006:393) suggests that advertising "drives our desire for material prosperity, thus playing a vital role in today's consumer society." Besides that, advertisements influence one's thoughts, feelings and even life, as Williamson (1994:14) acknowledges, "Advertisements are one of the most cultural factors moulding and reflecting our lives."

In view of the fact that advertisements are a common and accepted part of our daily life, this study aims to investigate how ideational meanings are conveyed in this type of texts. Although there are many types of advertisements, the current study focuses on billboard advertisements, especially billboards found along the highways. The billboard advertisements provide great exposure to the readers, as they are located primarily on major highways. Billboards afford greatest visibility not only because of their size, but they reach the target audiences with profound messages in a different and effective way. Since we confront advertisements everyday as we travel, the current study looks into the billboard advertisements, namely the slogans, which are worthy of study for many reasons.

2.3 The Language of Slogans in Billboard Advertisements

Advertisements have their own particular language. Their aim is to communicate information about the company and the image they want to create to the readers. One way to attract the buyers is through the words that are advertised in advertisements. Words are frequently used to tie the pictures or images created in

advertisements to the product they are trying to sell. The words used in advertisements are known as slogans. A slogan is defined as follows:

"a word or phrase that is easy to remember, used for example
by a political party or in advertising to attract people's attention
or to suggest an idea quickly."

(Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary, 2005)

A slogan is generated using language with a certain type of sentence structure, which gives information of a product. In fact, a slogan is a memorable motto or phrase used in many contexts as an expression of an idea or purpose. Slogans vary from the written and the visual. Slogans are used to convey a deeper meaning. In fact, slogans can be used to elicit emotions, or paint a visual image that implies something more. Slogans play an important role is persuading the readers to purchase their services or products. Thus, the slogans relate to the context of the advertisement.

Many advertisers basically play on words to attract and hold the attention of the targeted consumer. Thus, Delin (2000:132) proclaims that, "vocabulary is clearly a central element in building the image of a product." In fact, positive vocabulary is usually seen in advertising as it draws upon the positive affective meaning of a product.

Usually the writers glamorize the differences in slogans to get the attention of readers. The slogans usually consist of a few words only. The reason is readers usually would not notice lengthy messages. Lutz (1995) confesses that advertisers usually come up with slogans that sound concrete, specific, and objective. He adds that in advertising, there are plenty of 'unfinished words', which appears to promise so much about a product's effectiveness without really making any assurances.

It could be said that every word in an advertisement is there for a reason. Since the aim of the advertiser is to get readers to buy a product, the words utilized in the

advertisements will put the product in the best possible light. Sometimes, it is noticeable that the advertisers use simple statements to assert facts about the world.

Considering the fact that language expresses meanings, and these meanings are carried by structures, the present study analyses the slogans of billboard advertisements in terms of groups and phrase using the Systemic Functional Linguistics model of language. SFL sees language as "a system for making meanings" (Halliday, 1994: xvii). In fact, language enables people to fulfill certain communicative purposes in specific situations within a social group. Hence, advertisements play the role of marketing products or services and therefore, slogans are the vital component in advertisements.

2.4   Non-SFL Research on the Genre of Advertisements

A lot of non-SFL research has been done on the genre of advertisements. Howe (1995), Teh (1999), Choo (1999), Yong (2001), Arasoo (2003) and Lim (2003) are some of the local researchers who have done research on advertisements. Researches on advertisements are also found in the Internet, where two of the researches carried out by Geis (1982) and Vestergaard and Schroder (1985) are explicated in this section.

Howe (1995), Teh (1999), Choo (1999) and Yong (2001) have explored different types of printed advertisement data using Kathpalia's (1992) nine move structure for the purpose of analyzing the data while Arasoo, Geis and Vestergaard, and Schroder explored how language is used in the advertising field. Only Lim (2003) did a research on radio advertisements.

Howe (1995) carried out a study on car advertisements in a local newspaper. Howe's work was a genre-based analysis of the move structure in car advertisements,

especially in 'The Straits Times' newspaper in Singapore. He utilized Kathpalia's (1992) nine move structure for the purpose of analyzing car advertisements, namely the luxury, normal and small category of cars to determine whether move structure generalizations can be made for each category of car advertisement. The findings show that the 'Headlines, Targeting The Target, Appraising The Product and Urging Action' were the subcategories of the nine move structure found as central moves in the advertisements. Apart from that, the 'small' car advertisements provided factual information and performance characteristic, while the 'luxury' car advertisements included persuasive elements and prestige.

Teh (1999) did a study on home advertisements in a local newspaper. Her data consisted of 20 home advertisements collected from 'The Star' daily. The aim of her study was to give an explanatory account of how the advertisements were structured. She too utilized Kathpalia's nine move structure as a system to analyze the data. Her findings indicated that the nine move utilized by Kathpalia (1992) were found in the advertisements. However, different levels of prominence occurred according to the types of homes being advertised. Her study provided implications for the advertising industry as well as for ESP practitioners. In the advertising industry, her study will help the writer in the organization of the contents of home advertisements, whereas in the education field, it will be useful for syllabus designers to devise interesting teaching methods for teachers to avoid boredom among students in the classroom.

Choo (1999) carried out a study on the property advertisements in a local newspaper. This is also a genre-based study. In this study, the data of residential property advertisements were divided into four categories such as Bungalow, Semi-

Detached / Terrace House, Condominium and Apartment. . Similar to Howe (1995) and Teh (1999), Choo also utilized the nine move structure introduced by Kathpalia (1992). This study aimed to investigate the applicability of the nine move structure in analyzing the data as well as to identify the representative move structure for this type of advertisements. The findings show that six moves are found in the data. The six moves are 'Targeting The Market', 'Headlines', 'Justifying The Product', 'Offering Incentives', 'Urging Action', and 'Appraising The Product'.

Yong (2001) did a study on newspaper advertisements. Her study was aimed to investigate the organization of advertisements on private institutions of higher learning taken from 'The Star' as well as to show how the advertisements are structured. Her data consisted of 20 advertisements of different private institutions of higher learning. She also analyzed her data using the nine move structure adapted by Kathpalia. Her findings show that there is a uniform pattern of organization of structure in the advertisements. Eight of the nine move structure introduced by Kathpalia has been identified in her analysis.

Arasoo (2003) examined the language of advertisements. Her study focused on the persuasive writing in the educational institutions' advertisements. Her findings showed that appealing, claiming, advising, promising, reporting, urging action, giving information and being polite are used in advertisement slogans. However, the most frequent language functions found in her analysis were the functions of making appeals, claims and presenting information. And the function of being polite seems to be essential in all the language functions.

Apart from this, Lim (2006) carried out research on the aspect of humour in radio advertisements. Her study aimed to identify and examine the language of humour found in radio advertisements as well as to investigate and distinguish the different aspects of language and literary device used in the advertisements. Her data consisted of 30 radio advertisements, which were collected within the period of 5 months. About 15 minutes of the recording of each data was transcribed for the purpose of the analysis. The analysis indicates that aspects of language such as literary devices like repetition, figure of speech, double meaning, absurdity and punning were used to create humour in radio advertisements. Thus, the findings show that language can be influenced in many ways to bring in the sense of humour in radio advertisements in order to increase the advertisements' effectiveness.

Researches on advertisements are also found in the Internet sources. In 1982, Geis did a study on how language is used in American television advertising. His study focused on certain linguistic devices that are prominently found in advertising. His findings showed that the word 'help' employed in phrases such as 'helps to achieve' and comparative phrases such as 'more or less' are impressive. His findings also concluded that advertisers prefer vague language compared to language with explicit empirical consequences. Besides, advertisers also are in favour of subjective claims to objective claims.

Apart from that, Vestergaard and Schroder (1985) have made an attempt to study the language use in commercial press advertising in relationship with communicative functions of language. Their study focused on the expressive, directive, information, contextual and poetic and the five advertising functions. Additionally, they

also studied on the different textual aspects especially the coherence and cohesion, topicalization, presupposition and entailment and participant roles. Their findings revealed that the imperatives and directive speech acts are vital in encouraging the readers to purchase the products.

Studies on the genre of advertisements are mostly based on the advertisements advertised in the local newspapers. Only Lim (2006) explored spoken language in the radio advertisements. However, the studies described above are the non-SFL research. Since the current study is based on the SFL theory, researches done using the SFL theory are presented in the next section.

2.5   SFL Research

Within the SFL theory, only a few carried out research on the advertisement genre. Most of the researches are on lexical cohesion, transitivity, syntactic choices, nominal groups and many more. Sriniwass (1996), Viswanathan (2000) and Supramaniam (2004) showed the analysis of lexical cohesion in different types of data. Sriniwass (2003), Hashim (1996), Matthiessen (1999), Hwang (2000) and Sinar (2002) carried out a transitivity analysis to bring out the experiential meanings of the texts being analyzed. Only Wong (2001) has done research on group structure, mainly the Nominal Group structure in Inspirational Writings.

Sriniwass (1996) has done a research on the system of cohesion in chemistry texts. This research shows how lexical items cohered and how system networks are useful to represent the lexis of chemistry. The cohesive devices and deictic markers, which depicted the syntagmatic relations, were crucial to the analysis of transitivity in

the experiential metafunction. Furthermore, this research also explained that discourse-semantic relations are not only analyzed at the sentence level, yet it also deals with a text as a semantic unit. From the perspective of the lexical profile, this research showed that the semantic field expressed different meanings. The findings of this research show the lexical relations in the experiential meanings, which can be seen in the combination of experiential and textual meanings. Besides that, through the lexical profile, it enlightened us about what the text is about.

Sriniwass (2003) has also done a study on the lexico-grammatical choices that characterize scientific discourse. Her data were mainly two excerpts taken from two chemistry textbooks. Her study aimed to explore how the grammatical resources of transitivity in the two texts were organized to bring out the meanings in context. Other than the understanding and identification of experience through the linguistic patterns in the clause structure in its context of use, she also argues that a cognitively motivated grammatical analysis of text is also involved. Her findings suggest that each text is related to the context of situation in which they were produced. Thus, the language and its social context of use are interrelated. In fact, the findings of the study could help in the teaching of academic writing as well as in the preparation of materials for such instruction.

Apart from this, Viswanathan (2000) did research on conjunctive relations in agriculture and general editorials. Her research discussed about the analytical study of conjunctions, which imparted the logical connections between parts of text showing the natural logic of time, cause, comparison and addition. The findings of her research revealed the usage of conjunctions in the logical relations of the ideational function. Her

research also clearly showed that the roles of conjunction, categorized using the paratactic or the hypotactic relations are seen as additives or adversatives. This research also indicated that other than lexical cohesion, conjunctive relations are another type of discourse-semantic. This research also explained that cohesive conjunctions provide continuity to the textual Theme and Rheme relations.

Within the advertisement genre, very few researches have been done. Supramaniam (2004) has done research on lexical cohesion in newspaper commentaries. Her study is a SFL investigation of lexical cohesion based on Halliday and Hasan's (1976) theory and Martin's (1981 & 1985) network of taxonomic relations. Her findings show that repetition is a common semantic relation between words in the texts of newspaper commentaries. In addition, she mentioned that the texts cohere with the genre of advertisement and their context of situation in terms of field, tenor and mode. Her studies also provided some pedagogical implications in the field of teaching and learning of English. The English language instructors could apply their knowledge on lexical cohesion in the teaching process, which could help students to develop their writing skills.

Hashim's (1996) research was on syntactic choices and text organization in medical research articles. This research utilized the transitivity analysis. Her corpus was mainly Medical Texts. Her findings revealed that Process Types, namely the Material, Relational, Mental and Verbal Process Types were used to share information in every text. However, the Behavioural and Existential Process Types were the least used in the texts.

Matthiessen (1999) carried out a research on the system of transitivity of text-based profiles. He has given attention to the various options of transitivity focusing on relative frequencies in the Process Types, Circumstantial elements and also the combinations of these processes on a paradigmatic axis. The corpora used for this research were mainly narrative, informative, gossip and expository articles. Since his research was the experiential metafunction, his findings showed that for construing people's experience, and the lexico-grammatical analysis was the resource. Furthermore, he also agreed with Halliday's idea on the 'patterns of clustering', which revealed that transitivity, mood and theme are interrelated between one clause to another. In addition, he explicated that there is also a strongly connected system, which is known as 'nuclear transitivity' comprising of Agency and Process Type. Besides that, the less strongly connected findings showed that all the Process Types were found in the texts.

Hwang (2000) carried out a research entitled "Analysis Fungsional Sistemik Teks Undang-undang Perlembagaan Persekutuan Malaysia" which is translated as "Systemic Functional Analysis of the Federal Ordinance Act of Malaysia." She investigated the experiential function in the Federal Constitution. Through a quantitative comparison of the usage of process types in both the versions, her findings showed that the Material process types are dominant in both the versions. The Existential process type is not common at all in these types of text. Since her findings showed that Material processes are found the most, she disagreed with Halliday's view that Relational process were used to convey meaning in academic texts. In fact, her research shows that transitivity analysis can be conducted in bilingual text.

The current study is closely aligned with the work of Wong (2001). He has done a study on the nominal groups in Inspirational Writings. His study focused on the nominal group, which carries the lexical content. His research is based on how nominal group function in response to the concepts found in inspirational writings with Christian themes. His corpus dealt with such writings from five different sources. His findings revealed that this kind of texts has simplified nominal group structure. His findings also illustrated that the highest frequency of occurrence was the Head-Only structure in the nominal group logical structure. Then it was followed by the Pre-Modifier + Head Structure. It is noted that in this context of use, the nominal group convey the sense on transcendence and simplicity needed for faith and inspiration. Even though it was difficult to differentiate the Classifier and Epithet elements, he stated that a close reference to the Christian concepts was helpful in negotiating through the difficulties. Finally, he stated that to teach inspirational writings, knowledge of underlying ideas and notions, and also an ability to create simplified nominal group structures in sentences is needed. This study drew attention to the importance of nominal group as an important grammatical characteristic of inspirational writing for the expression of Christian themes.

Sinar (2002) highlighted transitivity analysis in lecture discourse. Her research explores the phrasal and experiential realizations in lecture discourse. The corpus for this study was lecture texts, which were recorded through audio visual aids. The findings of this research showed that seven text phrases comprise the text structuring, content, conclusion, evaluation, examples, interaction and background phrase, used different Process Types. The main Process Type found in the clauses was the Relational

Process as the lecture generalized the explanation of the conclusion stage. This is because the Relational Process Types are utilized to summarize and highlight the facts. To describe the events and activities, the Material Process Types were used and to check the students' understanding of the events and activities, the Mental Process Types were mainly used.

From the researches that have been explicated above, clearly it shows that very few researchers have done studies on advertisement genre especially using SFL theory. Through the source of Internet, many researches have been carried out in the genre of advertisements, but there has been little discussion about advertisements' slogans.

Therefore, the present study would like to explore a new field in the genre of advertisement, which is the billboard slogans using the SFL theory as a research tool. Although, the current study is similar to that of Wong's (2001) research, this study is extending its research into three types of groups and one common phrase.

2.6   SFL Theory

The theory that underpins this study is that of Systemic Functional Linguistic (Halliday and Matthiessen, 2004). SFL is a theory of language that

> "is closely related to the context of culture and to the context
> of situation"

> (Droga and Humprey, 2002:1)

Systemic or Systemic-Functional theory has its origins from European linguistics that built up following the work of de Saussure, a Swiss scholar. SFL values the observation of language in use and provides a systemic view of how it functions. This means SFL focuses on the functions of language and it begins with social context. In other words,

SFL is related to the understanding of the ways in which language is used for different purposes and in different contexts.

Here it means the context shapes the structure of the language. Christie and Unsworth (2000:3) note that,

> "The context of situation is the immediate context
> in which the language is used"

In other words, SFL takes into account not only the form of language use but also the context in which the language use occurs. SFL is functional and semantic. Therefore, SFL looks at the text by referring to the function of the text in a context rather than to aspects of grammaticality.

Halliday (1994: xiii) explains that functional grammar is functional in three ways:

- "it is designed to account for how the language is used,
- the fundamental components of language structures are meanings,
- and each element in a language is explained by referring to its function"

The first function indicates that text, whether written or spoken, unfolds in some context of use. This indicates that the way a language is organized is functional and not subjective. While the second function explains that all languages are organized around two types of meanings in language, which are the '*ideational*' or reflective, and the '*interpersonal*' or active combined with the '*textual*' that are called metafunctions in SFL theory. The third describes that a functional grammar helps us to understand all the units of a language, which are the clauses, groups, phrases and so on. Halliday points out that each part is construed as functional with respect to the whole (Ibid., 1994: xiii).

Therefore, SFL provides a formal descriptive tool for analyzing text. Bloor and Bloor (2004:2) claim that, "for SFL, a language is a 'system of meanings'". This viewpoint shows that grammar is a study of how meanings are built up through the choices of words and other grammatical resources. Since the grammar is concerned with meaning and function, as well as how the language is used, Halliday calls the study of grammar as Systemic Functional Grammar (hereafter SFG).

SFG is systemic in that the main focus in description is on the grammatical paradigm or system. In other words, SFG is meaning, not form based. SFG is concerned with describing the linguistic options or choices that are available to construct meanings in particular contexts.

Halliday (1994) points out that functional grammar focuses on the text as a means for people to interact with each other. Halliday's '*Introduction to Functional Grammar*' (henceforth IFG) (1994/2004) was written with the purpose of providing a general grammar for text analysis and interpretation. Haliday himself claims that the IFG helps in text analysis and interpretation. Martin, et.al (1997:2) concur with Halliday's claim by indicating that IFG is

> "a grammar which provides a basic lingua franca for
> text analysts working in a wide range of differing contexts
> and it is very effectively organized as a tool of this kind."

The IFG grammar is rich in semantics. In fact, a functional grammar provides the tools for understanding "why, the text means what it does" (Halliday, 1994: xv).

Thompson (1996) also asserts that SFL is particularly suitable for analysis because SFL enables us to learn more about the general grammatical resources of the language by looking at how they are used in text as well as understand how texts work by applying what we know about the meaning of grammatical resources.
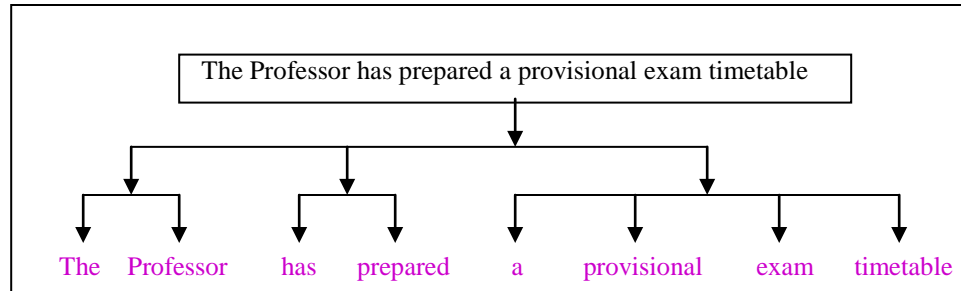
In SFL, great attention is paid to the lexicogrammar in particular, the part that is seen to be encoding the semantics of language. Within SFL theory, meaning is theorized by three main functions, in which the lexicogrammar of every language is related to. They are known as the ideational metafunction, the interpersonal metafunction and the textual metafunction. All these metafunctions contribute simultaneously to the meaning of a text as a whole.

From the perspective of SFL, every text that is created has its particular linguistic form because of the social purpose it fulfils. In SFL, a sentence is not regarded as a grammatical unit but rather as a textual unit. Ravelli (2000) points out that analysis can be carried out in terms of unit, in which each unit can be approached from the perspective of function. Therefore, the basic grammatical units are the clause, group, word and morpheme. Since SFL utilizes the notion of rank, the analysis of grammar begins with a hierarchical rank scale as shown below.

clause
↓
group/phrase
↓
word
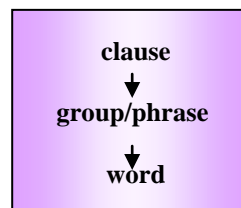
Figure 2.2   The basis of the rank scale for English
(drawn from Ravelli, 2000:31)

The rank scale as shown in Figure 2.2 shows that the analysis begins with a clause, which represents an event. The highest rank is the clause, which is made up of groups and phrases while the second rank is the groups and phrases, which is made up of words. An example of rank scale is shown in Figure 2.3.

32

The Professor has prepared a provisional exam timetable							
The	Professor	has	prepared	a	provisional	exam	timetable

Figure 2.3   Rank scale of a text
(drawn from Eggins, 2004: 128)

Figure 2.3 shows that a sentence could be analyzed according to the hierarchical rank, which begins with the clause structure and moves to the rank below the clause, which are the groups and phrase structure before it moves down to the word structure. Figure 2.3 shows that the clause is made up of three groups. It begins with a Nominal Group, followed by a Verbal Group and ends with another Nominal Group. Each of the groups in Figure 2.3 comprises of more than a word, as what Lock (1996) mentions that a group could be consisting of a number of words or only one word.

Since the current study focuses on the unit of groups and phrases at the rank scale, the SFL theory is more applicable. The reason is SFL employs the notion of rank in which each of the ranks refers to a unit of meaning. As slogans are usually short and sometimes are incomplete texts, the analysis of groups and phrase is appropriate for this type of texts to show how the meanings of texts are brought to light. SFL is chosen because it is rich with a linguistic system and provides the tools for investigating the real language use in our daily lives.

In this section, the SFL theory has been highlighted. The following subsection gives a summary of the linguists involved in the findings and development of SFL theory.

2.6.1 Linguists of SFL

The main linguist who was the pioneer for the SFL theory is Michael Halliday, better known as Halliday. He has been working in a number of universities in Britain and overseas, most recently in Australia. Like many major figures in modern British linguistics, Halliday was a follower of J.R.Firth (1890-1960), who held the first British chair in General Linguistics, established at the London University in 1945. Halliday acquired the concept of language as a set of choices expressible as systems from Firth, which then he named the systemic linguistics. Two linguists, Firth and Mallinowski, mostly influence Halliday's work.

Bronislaw Mallinowski (1884-1942) was an anthropologist and ethnographer who contributed towards the formulation of SFL theory. Through his observation of the islanders in the Trobriand Islands in the South Pacific of Papua New Guinea, Mallinowski found that language plays a part in getting things done. Therefore, Mallinowski introduced the term '*context of situation*' and '*context of culture*' through his studies of the islanders in South Pacific (Bloor and Bloor, 2004).

His observation shows that the literal meaning of an utterance as well as the social context in which the utterance occurs is vital. This is similar to the context of culture, where the meaning in language is the meaning in the events. Eggins (2004:88) acknowledges that, "Malinowski claimed that language only becomes intelligible when it is placed within its context of situation." Eggins also explains that Malinowski found that language is functional, which is why people use language and semantics, which deals with what language means. Therefore, language only makes sense when it is elucidated within its context.

Mallinowski's colleague, J.R. Firth (1890-1960) continued Mallinowski's work. Berns (1984a:5 in Brown, 2000:250) asserts that the functional approach to describing language is one that has its roots in the traditions of British linguist, J.R.Firth, who viewed language as interactive and interpersonal, "a way of behaving and making others behave."

Similar to Malinowski, Firth also stressed on the importance of context of situation. Firth found that the context of situation is the central part in the semantic description of language, which could be seen as follows:

> "Firth pointed out that given a description of a context, we could predict what language will be used."

(Eggins, 2004:89)

SFL was initiated by J.R. Fifth but was mainly developed by his student MAK Halliday. Firth and Malinowski's emphasis on the importance of context of situation is central to Halliday's view of language, which contributed to SFL theory.

Halliday approaches language from the point of meaning and function in SFL theory. Thus, SFL enables us to see the link between the language and context through the choice of expression. In fact, SFL is designed to help us to understand how language is structured with emphasis on the social context of situation.

Many linguists have acknowledged that Michael Halliday was the foremost theorist in the field of SFL. For example, Unsworth and Christie (2000) report that Michael Halliday began the seminal work on SFL in the 1950s and 1960s. Apart from that, Eggins (2004) asserts that Halliday also followed the functional-semantic tradition pursued by Firth.

In general, Unsworth and Christie (2000) and Eggins (2004) acknowledge that although other linguists influenced Halliday, he was the foremost linguist who contributed to SFL. They also pinpoint that Halliday, like the other linguists, sees function as the descriptive principle of language, which is related to the context in which it is used.

It is said that at the early stage, Halliday was a specialist in Chinese language and literature. Some of his early research was involved with the study of child language development. This study had a considerable influence on the present systemic model, which relates to the three metafunctions: ideational, interpersonal and textual.

This section has discussed the linguists involve in bringing up the theory of SFL. Since the present study involves the ideational metafunction, the following subsection explains the metafunctions of SFL.

2.6.2 Metafunctions

In the systemic functional model, language is functionally varied. Grammatical structure is not stated in terms of grammatical classes, but rather in terms of the functions they serve. Language involves three major functions, called metafunctions.

The term Metafunction refers to the different modes of meaning construed by the grammar. As the function of language is to make meanings, Halliday (1994:34/35) identifies three '*metafunctions*' or types of simultaneous meaning:

a) "Ideational (the clause as representation: the construal of some process in ongoing human experience),

b) Textual (the clause as message: the thematic element ["quantum of information"] the speaker selects for "grounding" what he is going on to say) and

c) Interpersonal (the clause as exchange: the element the speaker makes responsible for the validity what he is saying)".

Each metafunction has an associated grammar system. The ideational meaning is described in the system of Transitivity, which construes the world of experience into a manageable set of Process Types. The processes are divided into three components, which are the process itself; participants in the process and the circumstances associated with the process. Thus, the processes provide a framework for interpreting our experience of what is going on around us.

Textual meaning is described through the system of Theme. Thematic structure gives the clause its character as a message and thus, creates meaning to the context. The descriptive elements used to show this are called Theme and Rheme. Interpersonal meaning, or meaning as exchange, is described through the system of Mood. The term "mood" has a history of use in linguistics and grammar.

In the present study, the ideational (experiential and logical) meanings construing Field, which are realized by the lexico-grammar of Groups and Phrases will be analyzed. Since many researchers have used systems of Transitivity as a research tool in analyzing a clause, and paid little attention to the analysis of text using Groups and Phrases, this study has chosen to do an analysis using Groups and Phrases.

2.6.3   Groups and Phrase

This study attempts to analyze billboard slogans using the theoretical framework of groups and phrase. From an SFL perspective, the groups that make up the clause are the Nominal Group, the Verbal Group and the Adverbial Group while the phrase is the Prepositional Phrase. In the notion of rank scale, a group is the constituent unit of a clause, which is functional according to the context of situation.

In the ideational metafunction, language has a representational function, as it is used to encode our experience of the world and conveys a picture of reality. Butt et.al (1995) note that language can build up pictures of reality in terms of the things, events and circumstances. In the ideational metafunction, the functional grammarians would ask questions about "who does what to whom under what circumstances" (ibid., 1995:40). From this ideational point of view, a clause can be broken up into three functional constituents, which are the Participant, Process, and Circumstance.

Since this study focuses on the groups and phrases, the structure of participants, processes and circumstances will be discussed at the rank scale. A Nominal Group realizes a Participant in the grammar of a clause. Usually the Nominal Group is called the Head in the logical structure and Thing in the experiential structure. The Head or Thing can stand alone and/or followed by other words in the group structure. These words are identified as premodification when they lead the Head or Thing, and postmodification when they follow the Head or Thing. Thus, the whole text forms the ideational meaning structure. The premodification is divided into several parts, which are the Deictics, Numeratives, Epithets and Classifiers. Every part has different functions in the Nominal Group

The postmodification is used to qualify the Thing in detail. Therefore, it is functionally termed as Qualifier. Usually the qualifier is a Prepositional Phrase. All of these belong to a Nominal Group.

The next group is the Verbal Group. It describes about what is happening, acting, doing, sensing or saying. Similar to the Nominal Group, the Verbal Group comprises one word or a group of words. The central part of the Verbal Group is

represented by the word class verb. This verb is the event in the Verbal Group structure, which indicates the activity that is taking place. Even, Thompson (1996:185) specified that "the verbal group has only one lexical item: the main verb, which expresses the Event."

As the Nominal Group, the event in the Verbal Group may be one word or preceded by other words in the group. Butt, et.al (1995:54) also points out that

"The elements that precede the Event itself are a quite limited
set of forms known as AUXILIARY VERBS or AUXILIARIES"

Next are the Circumstances, which are realized by the Adverbial Group and Prepositional Phrase. Circumstances are used to show the Process in time or space. This shows how the Process occurs or gives information about the cause of the Process.

The Adverbial Group could be one word or several words. The Head of the Adverbial Group is the adverb, which could have premodification and postmodification. Generally the Head adverb is premodified by some intensifier, such as *very*, *so* and many more. As for the postmodifier, it is similar to the Qualifier in the Nominal Group in both structure and function. Usually it is a Prepositional Phrase. On top of that, there is often a structural link between the premodifiers and postmodifiers in the Adverbial Group, such as, so…that, and as…as.

As for the Prepositional Phrase, it has the structure of preposition plus Nominal Group. A Prepositional Phrase serves as a Circumstance in a clause and as a Qualifier within a Nominal Group, or even as a Postmodifier in an Adverbial Group. Butt, et.al. (1995: 57) observe that, "…when a Prepositional Phrase stands as a circumstance, it is acting in its own right as a constituent of its clause." However, in the Nominal Group, the Prepositional Phrase is a part of the description of the Thing.

The Participant, Process and Circumstances expressed in a clause are parts of the way in which we represent what is going on in the ideational metafunction. The speakers and writers use the ideational metafunction of a language to signify their experiences of the world around them. This point is also made by Stillar (1998:28), "the ideational resources of language are called upon to structure experience, to represent a particular arrangement of 'reality'."

Since traditional grammar predates functional grammar, it is significant to see the ways in which functional grammar and traditional grammar differ in terms of how billboard slogans are analyzed. Section 2.6.4 will provide a comparison of traditional grammar and functional grammar.

2.6.4 Traditional Grammar and Functional Grammar

The main difference between traditional grammar and functional grammar is that traditional grammar attempts to define rules for producing sentences that are grammatically correct in a language whereas SFL focuses on the function of language by looking at how it acts upon and is constrained by social context (Halliday and Matthiessen, 2004; Eggins, 2004; Bloor and Bloor, 2004; Christie and Unsworth, 2000; and Halliday, 1994).

Traditional grammar takes the word as the basic unit, and for that reason, it is considered a word-based grammar. The principle of a word-based grammar is that the important constituents of a language are the words, which join together to form larger units, such as phrases, clauses and sentences. Depending on their function in higher

groupings, words can be divided into classes, which are known in traditional grammar as '*the parts of speech*'.

Before the introduction of functional grammar, traditional grammar played a vital role in language. Traditional grammar is utilized to analyze and explain whether a sentence is well formed according to the correct grammar structure. Furthermore, traditional grammar looks at the surface structure and not at the meaning.

On the other hand, Halliday mentions that functional grammar equates meaning with function. SFL is functional and semantic because it defines the meaning of a text rather than its grammar. SFL views language as a resource for making meanings, which means, grammar is a resource for creating meaning by means of wording. In fact, SFL is inextricably linked to semantics, as Filmore and Atkins (1992:76) comment that

> " …word's meaning can be understood only with reference to a structured
> background of experience, beliefs, or practices, constituting a kind of
> conceptual prerequisite for understanding the meaning."

SFL is based on functions, which have specific communicative purposes, enabling people to exchange ideas, goods, services or even information. Halliday (1994: xiii) explains that functions become the "fundamental components of meaning", when it is used for communicative purposes. Even Thompson (1996:6) adds that,

> "the form of language can be substantially explained by
> examining its functions".

As opposed to structural approaches in traditional grammar, which is primarily on syntax, SFL explores the social contexts, in which it looks at how language is used and influenced by social context. In the current study, the texts are billboard slogans, which have their own unique structures because of the social purposes they fulfil. The forms of language are influenced by particular situation types, which are the social contexts of advertisements. Therefore, SFL may shed some light on how language is

structured. As it is text-oriented, it describes the patterns of language use in specific contexts.

Thus, the current study utilizes SFL theory to analyze the texts as they are related to the social context.

2.7 Contexts and Language

Christie & Unsworth (2000) claim that, SFL is concerned with understanding the ways language is used for different purposes and in different contexts. Besides that, "Functional grammar sees language as a system, where the choices of lexico-grammar are motivated by the purposes for which language is used" (Butt et.al. (1995:1). Apart from that, Finegan (1999) highlights that there are three faces of language, which are the meaning, expression and the context. The context is very vital as it links the expression and meaning. In general, Christie & Unsworth (2000), Butt et.al (1995) and Finegan (1999) propose that context helps to figure out the content of a written or verbal expression.

Language is expressed as a systematic resource for expressing meaning in context. According to Halliday, SFL is the study of how people exchange meanings through the use of language. Halliday and Matthiessen (2004:24) observes that

> "language is used to make sense of our experience and to
> carry out our interactions with other people".

This view of language as a system for meaningful interaction implies that language is not based on correct grammatical sentences but must be studied in contexts such as professional settings, classrooms, and language tests.

This shows that the grammar has to be related to what goes on outside language, especially with the happenings and conditions of the world, and with the social processes we deal with. At the same time, the understanding of experience, and the presentation of social processes have to be organized in the form of wording. This is done by transforming the understanding of experience into meaning, which is called the stratum of semantics. Then, the meaning is further transformed into wording, which is called the stratum of lexicogrammar.

This could be noticed in Figure 2.4, which gives a clear view of language as a complex semiotic system, which has various levels or strata.
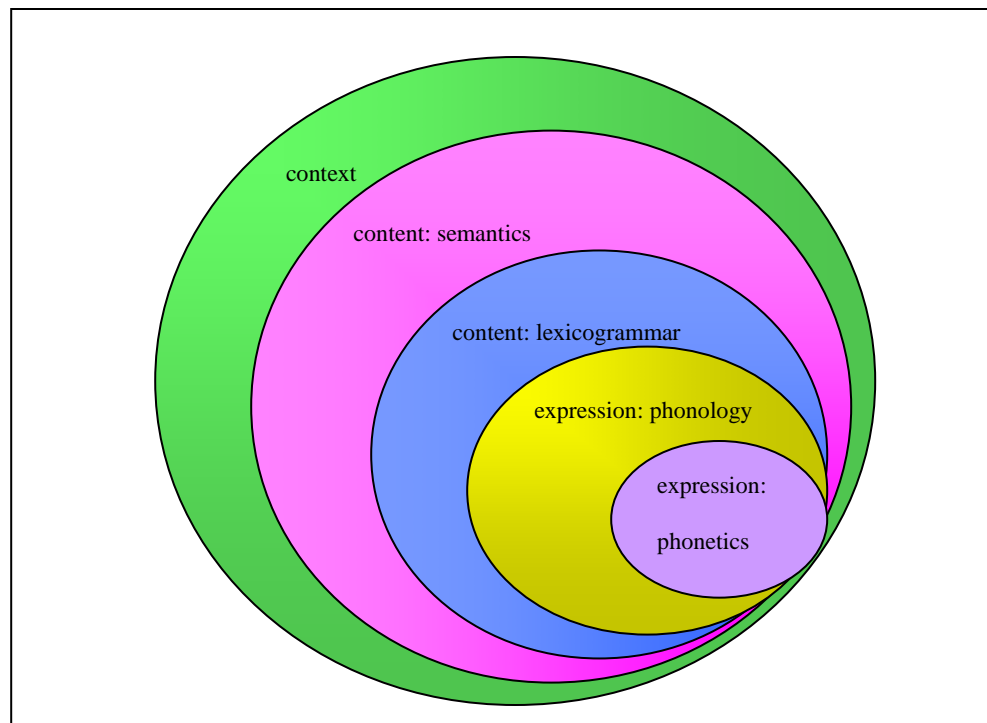
Figure 2.4   Stratification
(drawn from Halliday and Matthiessen, 2004:25)

Figure 2.4 shows that the base of the stratification is the phonetics that deals with sound. Next is the level of phonology, the organization of speech sound into formal structures and systems. The lexicogrammar level deals with the grammar and

vocabulary. Next is the level of semantics, which provides the meaning of a language being used. As language is used to make sense of one's experience and to carry out interactions, this stratification of various levels allows the meaning of a language to expand from the sound as the base until the context in which a language is functionally used.

The levels of stratification realize a text in sound and writing. To understand a text, it is important to understand the meanings it conveys. Therefore, the following subsection provides a summary of texts and their meanings.
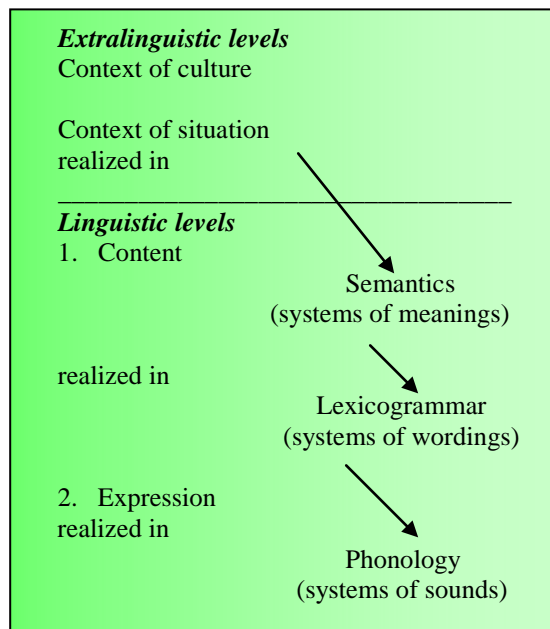
2.7.1   Texts and the Meanings

From the SFL perspective, linguists such as Malinowski, Firth and Halliday claim that the best way to understand the functions of language in context is to study the text involved in the context. Halliday and Hasan (1989:10) define text in the simplest way as "language that is functional," which means language is doing some job in some context. In the functional perspective, a text is therefore always seen as being related to its context of situation, as stated by Malinowski, which is "language only becomes intelligible when it is placed within its context of situation" (Eggins, 2004:88).

Text is a form of exchange, which is realized by the linguistic structures produced by the choices from the linguistic systems. This is in line with systemicists view that

> "a text is realized by clauses, which are located at different strata - the semantics (the stratum of meaning) and lexicogrammar (the stratum of wording) respectively".

> (Halliday and Hasan, 1976; Martin, 1992; Halliday and Matthiessen, 1999) in Halliday and Matthiessen (2004:587).

Figure 2.5, a diagram drawn from Butt, et.al (1995) further explains the relationship between language and context. The context of situation is realized in content and expression through the semantics, lexico-grammar and phonology as shown in Figure 2.5.

Extralinguistic levels
Context of culture

Context of situation
realized in
_____
Linguistic levels
1. Content

                        Semantics
                (systems of meanings)

realized in
                        Lexicogrammar
                (systems of wordings)

2. Expression
realized in
                        Phonology
                (systems of sounds)

Figure 2.5   The relation between language and context
(drawn from Butt, et.al, 1995:118)

The content in Figure 2.5, is similar with Halliday and Martin's (1993) observation that SFL views language as a stratified system, in which there are two levels of stratification; the content plane and the expression plane whereby the meaning or semantics of a clause, for example, are understood to be realized in and through lower-level systems of words and phrases and, ultimately, sound patterns in phonology.

Derewianka (2003) claims that meanings of a text are realized through the lexical and grammatical choices that are being made. A text can be analyzed according to its meaning by delving into the grammar of the text. However, the term '*grammar*' here does not refer to rules that separate correct sentences from incorrect ones. Here,

language is seen as a dynamic system, which means each system contains a set of options from which the speaker or the writer selects according to the meaning he or she wants to make.

In distinguishing texts, three extralinguistic factors, which are the Field, Tenor and Mode of discourse, construe a text's meanings. Butt, et.al (1995:16) also supports Halliday's view that

> "Field, tenor and mode of discourse are the extralinguistic
> situational features which are realized in the text as it is
> created and together they are known as the CONTEXT OF
> SITUATION."

Hence, context is the total environment in which a text unfolds. As the current study is on the advertisement genre, the texts are the billboard slogans. The texts are related to the context of situation, which is the advertisement context.

2.7.2   Context of Situation

The concept of context of situation was rooted from Malinowski based on his observations of the Trobriand islanders' fishing expeditions in which language was important in getting things done. And this concept was subsequently elaborated by Firth.

Thus, the context of situation is known the social aspect of language. Here the participants, process and the role of language in the activity are vital in bringing out the meanings of a text. Stillar (1998:52) acknowledges that

> "…text always occurs in a context that enables it to function
> ideationally, interpersonally, and textually."

This means the functional meaning of linguistic resources become pertinent only in relation to its context as Halliday (1974: 33) points out "All language functions in

contexts of situation, and is relatable to those contexts." Eggins (2004:8) also suggests that

> "Our ability to deduce context from text is one way in which
> language and context are interrelated"

When we are able to predict accurately what language will be appropriate in a specific context, we understand that language use is responsive to context.

The relationship between language and social context can be noticed in the stratification system as shown in Figure 2.4 (pg.43). SFL proposes that all language use is motivated by social needs and that it is functional in as much as it fulfills those needs. One could say that,

> "the form of language can be substantially explained by
> examining its functions"

(Thompson, 1996:6).

> "One important implication of the functional view of
> language is that context and language are interdependent"

(ibid, 1996:9).

The views of Thompson (1996) above show that language plays a role in context. In fact, the context of culture is realized by Genre, whereas the context of situation is realized by Register, which in turn is realized by language itself.

Within any context of situation, the three main variables, which are the Field, Tenor and Mode, determine the language choices that are made. These variables function together and are responsible for the pattern of language features in the text. The Field refers to what is happening, to the nature of the social action that is taking place. The Tenor refers to who is taking part, to the nature of the participants, their statuses and roles. The Mode refers to the role of relationship played by the language itself.

Since the focus of the present study lies with the context of situation, it explains how a text is related to the social purpose within which it is located. As a text is in the process of being constructed, the choices made form the context for subsequent choices, moving the text in a particular direction. This implies that the knowledge of the context allows us to make predictions about the lexicogrammar of the text. Therefore, in this study, the field of the text is associated with the realization of ideational meanings, which are realized through Groups and Phrase. Here the lexicogrammar of the texts provides clues about their contexts of situation.

In short, SFL theory states that particular aspects of a given context define the meanings likely to be expressed and the language likely to be used to express those meanings. As meanings are related to the context of situation, the next section will describe the semantic system of a language.

2.8 The Semantic System of a Language

In this section, a brief introduction of semantics is presented by referring to its meaning as well as its use in the context of situation.

According to Finegan (1999:183), semantics refers to

> "the study of the systematic ways in which languages structure
> meaning, especially in words, phrases and sentences."

It is said that semantics may also indicate the theoretical study of meaning in systems of signs. In view of the fact that every grammatical feature encodes a specific meaning, SFL is a grammar related to semantics. The three metafunctions in SFL are expressed by different grammatical structures.

Functional linguistics treats language as a system for enabling people to exchange meanings in communication. In the case of lexical semantics, the meaning of a word is a function of its use in purposeful communication. It means a speaker uses language to express communicative intentions according to the context of situation. Halliday (2002:198) acknowledges that,

> " The semantic system of a natural language is organized
> into a small number of distinct components, different kinds
> of meaning potential that relate to the most general functions
> that language has evolved to serve."

Thus, in the ideational metafunction, the semantic system is an expression of experience, which includes experience in terms of happening. However, in the interpersonal metafunction, where language is used for interaction, the semantic system stresses the speaker's intrusion in the speech event. As for the textual metafunction, the semantic system helps the speaker to structure meaning as text. Here, it is noted that every act of meaning has a context of situation. Thus, Halliday and Matthiessen (2004:588) acknowledge that, "the text is the most extensive unit of meaning".

In other words, the text is the most extensive semantic unit, which is realized by the lexicogrammatical system. Every lexicogrammatical system realizes some systemic feature in the semantics. Although this study is based on the ideational metafunction, the grammatical system that is being analyzed is the Groups and Phrase. Therefore, Section 2.9 presents a summary of the current study on groups and phrase.

2.9   The current study on Groups and Phrase

The reviews of the SFL researches in advertisements in Section 2.5 indicate that many people have done research on different kinds of data using SFL as the theoretical

framework. However, only a handful of research has been done on the advertisement genre. Out of the few researches on the advertisement genre, only one research has been done using the SFL theory. But this does not mean that there are no other researches done on the advertisement genre using SFL theory. Researches on the advertisement genre are available from other sources such as the Internet.

The current study is also based on SFL theory focusing on the ideational metafunction but at the rank below the clauses, that of groups and phrases. Although both groups and phrases stand at the same rank scale, there are differences between them. Halliday (1985:159) explicates that

> "A phrase is different from a group in that, whereas a group is an expansion of a word,
> a phrase is a contraction of a clause. Starting from opposite ends, the two achieve
> roughly the same status on the rank scale, as units that lie somewhere intermediate
> between the rank of a clause and that of a word"

In the interpretation of group structure, the ideational metafunction is divided into the experiential and logical structures. Halliday and Matthiessen (2004:310) describe that

> "the ideational heading has been meaning as organization
> of experience whereas the logical aspect is as the expression
> of certain logical relations".

The main classes of groups are the Nominal Group, Verbal Group and Adverbial Group. Following the group is the phrase, which refers to the Prepositional Phrase. Each group and phrase serves different functions in the clause. The Nominal Group serves as Subject or Complement, Verbal Group as Finite + Predicator, while Adverbial Group as Adjunct.

Since the texts of this study are slogans of billboard advertisements, which generally appear as one word or short phrases, therefore, they should be analyzed at the rank of groups and phrases. Furthermore, the researchers that have done studies on advertisement genre have not really focused on all the groups and phrases as expounded by Halliday and Matthiessen (2004) in their theory.

Hence, the current study would like to fill the gap in the area of investigations into the ideational metafunction by analyzing groups and phrase found in the slogans of billboard advertisements. Thus, the current study will answer the Grand Tour question introduced in Chapter 1 as follows:

How are ideational meanings expressed in Malaysian billboard slogans?

In order to answer the Grand Tour question above, two research questions are formulated as follows:

i) **What are the experiential meanings expressed in Malaysian billboard slogans?**

ii) **What are the logical meanings expressed in Malaysian billboard slogans?**

The analysis of groups and phrase are presented with reference to Halliday and Matthiessen's (2004) theory.

2.10 Chapter Summary

Chapter 2 has given an overview of the language of advertisements. Then, it focused on the billboard advertisements and the language of slogans in billboard advertisements. Following this, researches done in advertisements and SFL have been

explained. Next, it focused on SFL theory, followed by historical perspectives of SFL, the metafunctions and the differences between the traditional and functional grammar. The structure of language in different contexts was expounded by focusing on the texts and meanings as well as the context of situation. Then, the semantic system of a language was discussed. The groups and phrase were highlighted in the next section. Lastly, this chapter was concluded with an explanation on why this research is being carried out. The next chapter will give an overview of the research methodology and theoretical framework of this study.