

## **CHAPTER II**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

#### **2.1 Theoretical Framework**

##### **2.1.1 Systemic Functional Multimodal Discourse Analysis (SF-MDA)**

In this subsection, the researcher does not only describe a brief of Systemic Functional Multimodal Discourse Analysis (SF-MDA) but also its analytical tools that were used in this research, which are the ideational meaning of Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) and the representational meaning of Visual Grammar.

###### **2.1.1.1 Systemic Functional Multimodal Discourse Analysis (SF-MDA)**

The Systemic Functional approach to Multimodal Discourse Analysis (SF-MDA) is a subfield of social semiotics that emphasizes the 'grammatics' of semiotic resources with the aim of understanding the contributions of different resources and the meanings that emerge when semiotic choices combine in multimodal phenomena over space and time. It is built upon Halliday's view that the organization of semiotic resources reflects the social functions which they must perform (O'Halloran & Lim, 2014). SF-MDA deals with the systemic organization of semiotic resources as tools to make meaning in society (Jewitt, Bezemer, & O'Halloran, 2016).

SF-MDA is an extension of Halliday's Systemic Functional Theory (SFT), originally developed from Systemic Functional Linguistic (SFL) theory. Halliday originally developed SFL for teaching Mandarin, but then it was expanded to the study of English. However, even though SFL was developed for the study of language, the fundamental principles of SFL can be applied to the study of other semiotic resources. Thus, the term Systemic Functional Theory (SFT) is proposed to refer to the higher order and general principles of the theory that apply to the Systemic Functional approach to Multimodal Discourse Analysis (SF-MDA) while SFL refers to the application of SFT in the study of language (Jewitt et al., 2016;

O'Halloran & Lim, 2014). Therefore, this research employed SF-MDA rather than the SFL approach since this research did not only analyze the language (textual resource) but also the visual resource of the data and how these semiotic resources interrelate with one another to make meaning.

Moreover, Halliday (1978, 2004) in his social semiotic theory proposed the metafunctional principle which is the principle that semiotic resources offer the tools for constructing three meanings (i.e. meaning potential); 1) ideational meaning which comprises experiential meaning (to construct our experience of the world) and logical relations (to make logical connections in that world), 2) interpersonal meaning (for enacting social relations), and 3) textual meaning (for organizing the message). In the same way, the meaning potential of the different semiotic resources is also described metafunctionally in SF-MDA. Thus, this metafunctional principle plays a significant role in understanding the functionalities and fundamental organization of semiotic resources, as well as examining how semiotic choices combine and interrelate to make meaning in multimodal phenomena to accomplish specific objectives (e.g., to construct knowledge in school textbooks; to persuade a consumer to buy a product; to promote a campaign to the public) (Jewitt et al., 2016; O'Halloran, 2008; O'Halloran & Lim, 2014).

Furthermore, in this research, the semiotic resources put under scrutiny were textual and visual resources of campaign posters that were analyzed based on the ideational (textual resource) and the representational (visual resource) meaning by employing the appropriate SF-MDA analytical tools.

### **2.1.1.2 Ideational Meaning of Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL)**

Ideational meaning is one of the three (meta)functions of language, along with interpersonal and textual meanings, proposed by Halliday (1994). Systemic Functional Linguistics (henceforth, SFL) is defined as a functional-semantic approach to language which investigates how individuals use language in different contexts as well as how language is constructed for use as a semiotic system (Eggins, 2004). SFL views language as a social semiotic resource that people use

to make meaning in context to achieve their purposes (Halliday, 1985, as cited in Fauziati, 2016; Jewitt et al., 2016). In short, SFL is an approach that studies language use and its relation to its social context.

The main goal of SFL is to construct a functional grammar that accounts for the meaning-making potential of language (Jewitt et al., 2016). In SFL, language and other meaning-making systems must be studied in context. In other words, language study cannot be separated from the context where it occurs. Accordingly, a text's context and type (register and genre) should be considered first when studying it. These aspects are linked to three contextual variables: field (the topic being discussed), tenor (the relationship between participants), and mode (the communication channel). These variables help to illustrate how people's language use is primarily influenced by their functions (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004 as cited in Endarto, 2017).

Moreover, Halliday proposed a theory of the three functional components of meaning, also known as functions of language, which encompasses three different meanings/metafunctions; ideational, interpersonal, and textual (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004). These metafunctions are simultaneously realized in every language (clause) people use and connect their linguistic choices to the context where it occurs (Schleppegrell, 2012).

**The ideational meaning** constructs our perceptions of the world around and within us. It involves experiential meaning (the representation and construction of our experience in the world) and logical meaning (the construction of logical relations happening in that world). It constructs our ideas and experiences about the world in clauses through the system of *transitivity* and is influenced by the *field* of discourse. **The interpersonal meaning** constructs social roles and power dynamics. This meaning is realized in lexicogrammar through the system of *mood* and *modality* and influenced by the *tenor* of discourse. It involves different kinds of speech functions, namely offers, statements, commands, and questions. **The textual meaning** expresses the relationship between language and its environment, including both the verbal environment, which is what has been said or written before (co-text), and the non-verbal, situational environment (context). It is those

that make language contextually and co-textually relevant. This meaning is realized in lexicogrammar through the system of *theme* and *cohesion* and is influenced by the *mode* of discourse (Endarto, 2017; Gebhard & Accurso, 2020; Gerot & Wignel, 1994; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004).

However, since this research is focusing on analyzing campaign posters based on ideational meaning, this meaning is described further. As mentioned before, the ideational meaning constructs our ideas and experiences about the world in clauses through the system of transitivity. The system of transitivity itself is realized through three semantic categories; *participants*, *processes*, and *circumstances* (Gerot & Wignel, 1994).

a) Participants

Participants are entities involved in the processes. Each process has a different term to name the participants. Thus, the participant will be explained in detail in each process.

b) Circumstances

Circumstances are setting associated with the process. Circumstances realize meaning about time, place, manner, cause, accompaniment, matter, and role of the text. Therefore, circumstances answer the question of when, where, how, why, with(out) who or what, about what, and as what.

c) Processes

Processes are central to the transitivity system that explain the doings, happenings, feelings, and beings of the text. Participants and circumstances depend on the doings, happenings, feelings, and beings. This suggests that there are different kinds of goings on, which necessarily involve different kinds of participants in varying circumstances.

Processes are realized by verbs. Since there are many kinds of verbs, there are also many kinds of processes that Halliday and Matthiessen (2004) presented in the figure below.

## Picture 2.1

### *The Types of Process in English*



*Note.* From *An Introduction to Functional Grammar* (3<sup>rd</sup> ed., p.172), by M. A. K. Halliday and C. M. I. M. Matthiessen, 2004, Hodder Arnold. Copyright 2004 by Hodder Arnold.

Furthermore, since processes are central to the transitivity system, the kinds of processes are explained in detail in a separate section below (Halliday, 1994; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004; Gerot & Wignell, 1994).

### 1) **Material Processes**

Material processes are processes of material doing that construe figures of *doing* and *happening*. They express the notion that some entity ‘does’ something – which can be ‘directed’ to some other entity. Like any other process, a clause with a material process must have a doing (process) and a doer (participant), an entity who does the deed which is called the *Actor*. Moreover, if the process is extended or directed to some other entity, this entity is called the *Goal*.

Material processes can be transitive or intransitive depending on the process/verb used in the material clause. If the process causes a transformation from the initial phase of the participant (Actor) and is not extended to another entity (Goal), thus material clause represents a *happening* and is called intransitive. On the other hand, if the process is extended or directed to some other entity (Goal) and the outcome/change is registered on the Goal rather than the Actor, thus material clause represents a *doing* and is called transitive. Moreover, if there is a Goal of the process, as well as an Actor, the representation in material clauses, may come in either of two forms; operative (active) or receptive (passive). To understand this easily, the contrast between operative and receptive is just like the contrast in the voice of a sentence. For example, ‘The lion caught the tourist.’ (active) and ‘*The tourist was caught by the lion.*’ (passive).

## 2) Mental Processes

Mental processes are processes of ‘sensing’; *feeling, thinking, and perceiving*. These processes are different from the material ones since they are mental, covert kinds of goings-on and not kinds of doing and cannot be substituted by do. The participants involved in mental processes are called the *Senser* and the *Phenomenon*. The *Senser* is defined as a conscious being that ‘senses’ – feels, thinks, wants, or perceives. More accurately, human-like since the significant feature of the *Senser* is that of being ‘endowed with consciousness’. Thus, we can attribute consciousness to non-sensate being such as in ‘The laptop doesn’t like me, I swear.’ On the other hand, the *Phenomenon* is defined as someone or something which is ‘sensed’ – felt, thought, wanted, or perceived.

There are four sub-types of sensing: perceptive (perceiving through five senses), cognitive (thinking), desiderative (desirability), and emotive (feeling) that differ concerning phenomenality, directionality, gradability, potentiality, and ability to serve as metaphors of modality. Moreover, in mental clauses, there are three possible structures; clauses with the *Senser* and the *Phenomenon* (e.g., The

laptop doesn't like me.), clauses with the Sensor only (e.g., Mark understood.), and clauses with the Phenomenon only (e.g., Loneliness hurts.).

### 3) Relational Processes

Relational processes are processes that involve the *state of beings* (including *having*). These processes construe the relationship being set up between two separate entities in the clause. There are three main types of relation – intensive (x is a), possessive (x has a), and circumstantial (x is at a); and each of these comes in two distinct modes of being – attributive or identifying. This gives six categories of relational processes: intensive attributive, intensive identifying, circumstantial attributive, circumstantial identifying, possessive attributive, and possessive identifying.

As far as the modes of being are concerned, processes can be classified according to whether they are being used to identify something (identifying) or to assign a quality to something (attributive) in which they have their own characteristic of participant role. In identifying processes, the participant roles are *Token* and *Value* and these processes are reversible. While in attributive processes, the participant roles are *Carrier* and *Attribute* and these processes are not reversible.

### 4) Behavioral Processes

Behavioral processes are processes of *physiological* and *psychological behavior* such as breathing, dreaming, coughing, snoring, smiling, staring, listening, and pondering. These processes are processes located at the boundary between the material and mental processes. Thus, it is difficult to define their characteristics since they share characteristics of the material and mental processes. There is only one obligatory participant in behavioral processes which is *Behaver*, who is 'behaving', and is typically a conscious being, like the Sensor, but the process is more like one of 'doing'. However, even though there is only one participant, the Behaver, sometimes behavioral clauses involve the *Range* which specifies the range or scope of the process, defining its coordinates or domain.

## 5) Verbal Processes

Verbal processes are processes of *saying* or precisely, it covers any kind of symbolic exchange of meaning. Verbal clauses are often realized by two distinct clauses: the projecting clause (encodes a signal source or the Sayer and a signaling or the Verbal process) and the projected clauses (what is said) which each is analyzed in their own right. The participant's role in verbal processes is *Sayer* which, unlike mental processes, does not require a conscious being, thus it can be anything that puts out a signal.

Just like behavioral processes, these processes are located at the boundary between mental and relational processes, thus they share characteristics of mental and relational processes. However, verbal process clauses also have distinct characteristics of their own. Besides the Sayer, there are three further participant functions; *Receiver*, *Verbiage*, and *Target*. *Receiver* is the one to whom the saying is directed (e.g., Tell me the whole truth.). *Verbiage* is the function that corresponds to what is said that may be the content of what is said (e.g., The mystery is never been explained.) or the name of the saying (e.g., Let me ask you a question.). While *Target* is the one who is targeted by the process of saying (e.g., Please don't insult my intelligence.).

## 6) Existential Processes

Existential processes are processes of *existence* that represent the fact that something exists or happens. Existential processes are typically expressed by the verb *be* or the verbs meaning exist or happen: *exist*, *remain*, *arise*, *occur*, *come about*, *happen*, *take place*. The entity or event which is being said to exist is called *Existent* which can be any kind of phenomenon. For example, 'There was confusion.' The word *was* is the existential process and the word *confusion* is the existent that is being said to exist. However, the word *There* in the above example has no representational function but it serves to indicate the feature of existence and it is needed as a Subject in English. Moreover, these processes frequently contain



circumstantial elements in which if the circumstantial element is thematic, the subject there may be omitted (e.g., On the wall (there) was a Picasso painting.).

Furthermore, just like the last two processes, Existential processes are also located at the boundary between relational and material processes. Consequently, there is also a boundary between the three of them. On the borderline between the existential and the material processes, there is a special category of processes which is the **Meteorological process**. Meteorological processes are processes that deal with *the weather*. Some of these processes are construed existentially (e.g., There was a storm.), construed as material events (e.g., The wind is blowing.), and as relational attributives (e.g. It is cloudy.). Here, the word *It* can be interpreted as the *Carrier* since it is possible to substitute the weather, the sky, or the (time of) day.

### 2.1.1.3 Representational Meaning of Visual Grammar

Representational meaning/metafunction is one of the three metafunctions of Visual Grammar, along with interactive and compositional metafunctions, proposed by Kress and van Leeuwen (1996). Visual Grammar or Grammar of Visual Design is a framework developed by Kress and van Leeuwen based on Halliday's social semiotic approach to language. This framework was first proposed in 1996 and was later modified in 2006, and 2021 through their book *Reading Images: The Grammar of Visual Design*. It is a framework that investigates how the depicted elements (e.g., people, things, places) are combined in a visual statement to create a meaningful whole. Compared to Halliday's social semiotic approach to language, Kress and van Leeuwen's Visual Grammar is more focused on general social and semiotic processes rather than on the specific linguistic features since the principle of the framework, especially the three functions model, works well not only for language but also for all other semiotic modes including images (Kress & van Leeuwen, 2006, 2021).

In adopting Halliday's framework, Kress and van Leeuwen did not use the same terms as Halliday, instead, they use different terms for the same subject; representational instead of ideational, interactive instead of interpersonal, and

compositional instead of textual (Hu & Luo, 2016). **The representational meaning** refers to the way images depict the relationships between all entities presented in the picture (represented participants). Thus, it is focused on the represented participants which then be discussed within the narrative and conceptual representations (Hu & Luo, 2016; Widayanti, 2016). **The interactive meaning** refers to the relationship between the represented and the interactive participants or, to be precise, the relationship between the producer, the objects represented, and the viewers. The interactive meaning is realized in four elements: the image act & the gaze, the size of the frame & social distance, perspectives, and modality. **The compositional meaning** refers to the way how the representational and interactive elements are made to interrelate and interact with one another; the way they are integrated into a meaningful whole. The compositional meaning is realized through three interrelated systems: information value, salience, and framing (Kress and van Leeuwen, 2006, 2021).

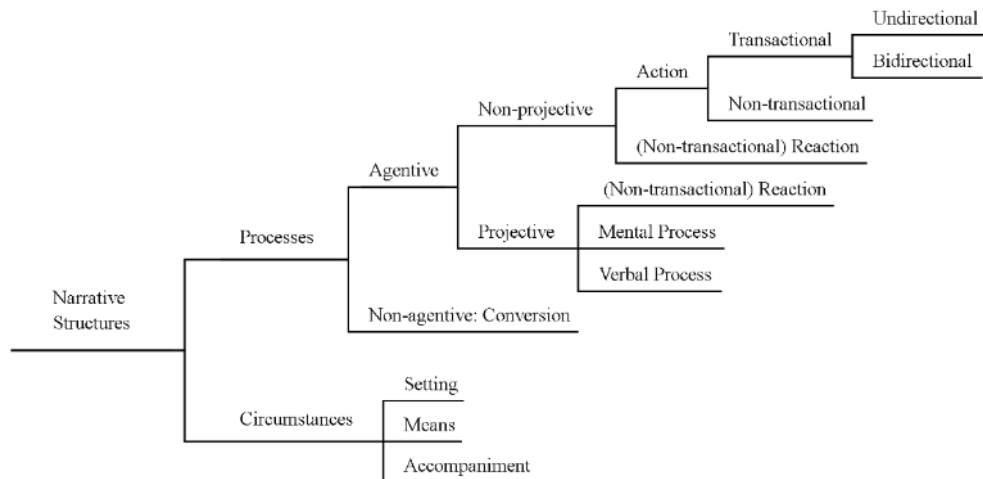
However, since this research is focusing on analyzing campaign posters based on representational meaning, this meaning is described further. As mentioned before, the representational meaning investigates the relationship between all elements depicted in the images which are discussed within the *narrative* and *conceptual representations*.

### 1) **Narrative Representation**

Narrative representation deals with the *Represented participants*, the participants who constitute the subject matter of the communication (e.g., people, places, and things including abstract things). It deals with the images in which the participants are linked by a *vector* which represents *doing* something or *doing* an action to or for each other. The narrative structure is presented in the figure below.

## Picture 2.2

### *Narrative Structures in Visual Communication*



*Note.* From *Reading Images: The Grammar of Visual Image* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed., p.74), by G. Kress and T. van Leeuwen, 2006, Routledge. Copyright 2006 by Routledge.

Furthermore, the narrative representation will be explained based on the figure above (Kress & van Leeuwen, 2006, as cited in Garcia, 2020; Kress & van Leeuwen, 2006).

The narrative structure is formed by processes and circumstances. The processes might be *Agentive* or *Non-agentive*. A non-agentive process (also called Conversion) in which a participant is the Goal of one action and the Actor of another one. This participant is called the *Relay*. This process is commonly used in the representation of natural events such as food chains.

On the other hand, an agentive process occurs when the participant is the *doer* of an action or reaction process. An agentive process might be *Projective* or *Non-projective*. Projective processes are carried out by speech and mental processes which are usually used in comic strips through thought and dialogue balloons that connect the image of the *Sayer* and the *Senser* to their speech or thought. In mental processes, there are two participants involved: the *Senser* and the *Phenomenon* which are connected by a thought balloon. The participant from which the thought

balloons emanated is called the *Senser*, while the other participant involved in the thought balloon is called the *Phenomenon*. The same thing happens in verbal processes. If the dialogue balloon emanates from one participant, it is called the *Sayer*, while the other participant involved in the dialogue balloon is called the *Utterance*.

Non-projective processes are carried out by action and reactional processes. The participants involved in action processes are the *Actor* (from which the vector emanates) and the *Goal* (to which the vector is 'directed'). An action process can be *Transactional* (which can be *Unidirectional* or *Bidirectional*) or *Non-transactional*. A unidirectional transactional action occurs when a vector (an arrow or object that represents a vector) connects two participants, an Actor and a Goal. While a bidirectional transactional action occurs when a vector (a double-headed arrow or object that represents it) connects two *Interactors* (participants both to which a vector comes from and to which a vector is directed). Furthermore, a non-transactional action occurs when a vector (an arrow or object that represents a vector) emanates from a participant, the Actor, but does not point to any other participant.

On the other hand, a reactional process might be *Transactional* or *Non-transactional*. The transactional reaction process occurs when a vector formed by an *eyeline* connects two participants, a *Reacter* and a *Phenomenon*. The Reacter is the participant who does the looking that necessarily be a human or a creature with visible eyes and capable of facial expression. The phenomenon is the participant to which the vector (an eyeline) is directed. Meanwhile, the non-transactional reaction process occurs when a vector emanates from a participant, the Reacter, but does not point to any other participant.

As mentioned earlier, the narrative structure is formed by processes and circumstances. As far as the circumstances are concerned, circumstances refer to secondary participants which are related to the main participant but not by means of a vector. It is divided into the locative circumstances (the placement of participants in images), the circumstances of means (relate to the tools employed in the action process of the images to represent a vector), and *the circumstances of*

*accompaniment* (refer to a participant without having vectorial relation with other participants and cannot be interpreted as a symbolic attributive).

Furthermore, the narrative structures are comparatively easy to translate to their linguistic counterparts, even though not all of them can be linguistically communicated (Kress & van Leeuwen, 2006). The equivalence between narrative processes in language and visual communication is presented in the table below.

**Table 2.1**

*Narrative Process in Language and Visual Communication*

<b>Visual Narrative Processes</b>	<b>Linguistic Narrative Clauses</b>
Non-transactional action	One-participant (Actor) material process ('action')
Unidirectional transactional action	Two-participant material process
Event	Passive transactional clause with agent deletion
Bidirectional transactional action	-
Non-transactional reaction	Behavioral process (field of looking)
Transactional reaction	Mental process: perception (visual only)
Mental process	Mental process (cognition and affection)
Verbal process	Verbal process (quotation)
-	Verbal process (affection)
Conversion	-

*Note.* From Reading Images: The Grammar of Visual Image (2<sup>nd</sup> ed., p.78), by G. Kress and T. van Leeuwen, 2006, Routledge. Copyright 2006 by Routledge.

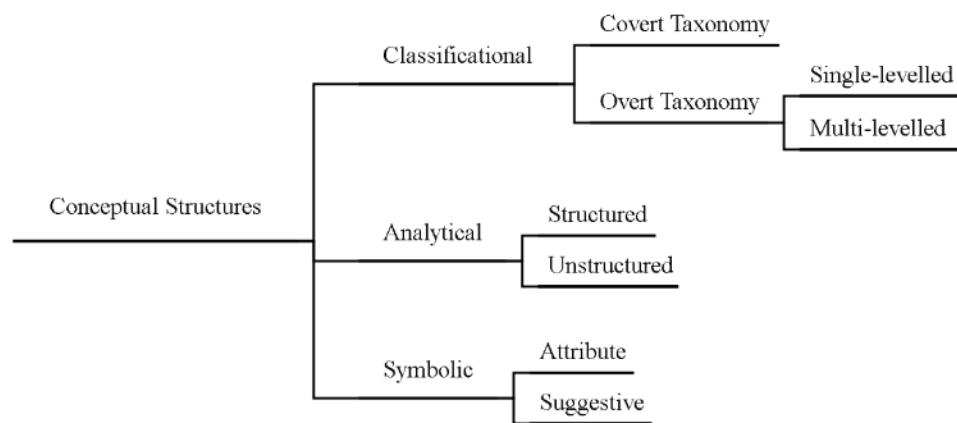
## 2) Conceptual Representation

Conceptual representation deals with images that are lacking in action due to the absence of a *vector*. Conceptual representation represents “participants in terms of their more generalized and more or less stable and timeless essence, in

terms of class, or structure or meaning.” (Kress & van Leeuwen, 2006, p. 79). They visually ‘define’, ‘analyze’, or ‘classify’ people, places, and things (including abstract things) (Kress & van Leeuwen, 2006). The conceptual structure is realized through classificational, analytical, and symbolic processes as presented in the figure below.

### Picture 2.3

#### *Conceptual Structures in Visual Communication*



*Note.* From *Reading Images: The Grammar of Visual Image* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed., pp.87, 104, 105), by G. Kress and T. van Leeuwen, 2006, Routledge. Copyright 2006 by Routledge.

Furthermore, the conceptual representation is explained based on the figure above (Kress & van Leeuwen, 2006, as cited in Garcia, 2020; Kress & van Leeuwen, 2006).

#### a) Classificational Processes

Classificational processes represent “participants in terms of their place in a static order” (Kress & van Leeuwen, 2006, p. 83). Classification structures group various people, places, or objects in one image and distribute

them symmetrically across the image space to demonstrate that they share a trait or are members of the same class.

Classificational structures are divided into *Covert Taxonomy* and *Overt Taxonomy*. Covert taxonomy is realized when the participants (e.g., people, places, objects), the *Subordinates*, are distributed symmetrically throughout an image which is characterized by their equal distance, size, and proportioned positioning from each other. The other one, overt taxonomy, is realized when the participants are structured within some kind of tree or level structure which can be *Single-leveled* or *Multi-leveled*. A single-leveled overt taxonomy is realized when a participant, the *Superordinate*, is linked with numerous participants, the *Subordinates*, through a tree structure with only two levels. Meanwhile, if the tree structure has three levels, it is called a multi-leveled overt taxonomy. The participants involved in this process are called in level order; the *Superordinate*, *Interordinates*, and *Subordinates*.

b) Analytical Processes

Analytical processes relate participants to each other in terms of a part-whole structure. It realizes that “a concept or entity is defined by showing how it is made up out of which parts” (Jewitt & Oyama, 2004). There are two kinds of participants involved in analytical structures: the whole which is called the *Carrier* and the parts which are called the *Possessive Attributes*.

Kress and van Leeuwen (2006) establish that there are seven kinds of analytical structures: unstructured analytical process, temporal analytical process, exhaustive analytical process, dimensional topography accuracy, quantitative topographical accuracy, topological accuracy, and abstraction.

c) Symbolic Processes

The symbolic processes deal with what the participants *mean* (the meaning) and what the participant *is* (the attribute of participants). They might be *Symbolic Attributive* or *Symbolic Suggestive*. Symbolic attributive involves two kinds of participants: “the participant whose meaning or identity is established in the relation, the *Carrier*, and the participants which represents the meaning or identity itself, the *Symbolic Attribute*” (Kress & van Leeuwen,

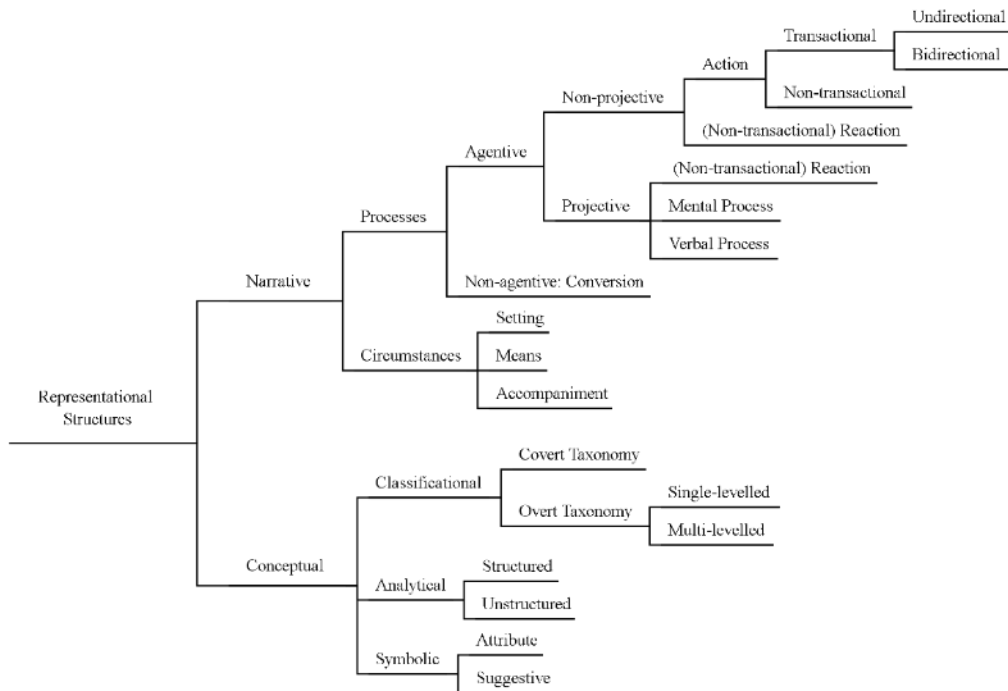
2006, p. 105). Symbolic attributes are realized through one or more of these characteristics: they are made salient in the representation (e.g., placement, size, lighting, focus, color), they are pointed at through a gesture, they look out of place in the whole, and they are conventionally associated with symbolic values.

Meanwhile, symbolic suggestive involves only one participant, the *Carrier*, which cannot be interpreted as an analytical process since this type of image detail tends to be “de-emphasized in favour of what could be called ‘mood’ or ‘atmosphere’” (Kress & van Leeuwen, 2006, p. 106). This is realized in several ways; the colors may all blend together, the focus may be soft, or the lighting may be extreme.

The overall structure of the representational meaning is presented in the figure below.

**Picture 2.4**

*Representational Structures in Visual Communication*





*Note.* From *Reading Images: The Grammar of Visual Image* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed., pp.59, 74, 87, 104, 105), by G. Kress and T. van Leeuwen, 2006, Routledge. Copyright 2006 by Routledge.

### **2.1.2 Poster as Media to Deploy Campaigns' Messages**

Posters are a means of communication used to transfer knowledge from the creator(s) to the viewers (Jog & Desai, 2019). They provide information, invite, and influence people to do or believe something that is described or written on the posters. Posters are publication media that combine visual, text, illustration, design, colors, and layouts to inform, educate, influence attitudes, sell products/services, change attitudes and behavior, and shape people's opinions on certain issues (Gobind & Ukpere, 2014; Jog & Desai, 2019; Nunyenge & Esena, 2013; Sitorus et al., 2022).

According to Nunyenge and Esena (2013), there are several types of posters. To begin with, advertising posters are utilized to promote a product, service, or event that use colorful images and a few supporting words to attract people's attention regarding how good they are. As for propaganda posters, they are mainly used for political matters such as an election or spreading new policies so the most common organization that utilizes this kind of poster is the government. Informative posters are used to spread information and awareness on certain issues in society. Thus, the recent poster (campaign poster) put under scrutiny is included in this type. Subject posters usually have a specific subject as the main focus of the posters such as bands and actresses/actors. Affirmation posters are utilized to convey motivational or inspirational messages to support certain people in need. Lastly, educational posters are mainly used in academia or the educational world to promote and explain research works.

As a medium of mass communication, the poster is considered to be attractive due to its unique combination of text and images (Dallyono & Sukyadi, 2019). Moreover, the use of posters as media of communication, notably in spreading campaigns' messages to raise people's awareness, is mainly because

posters are inexpensive yet effective to spread information to a large number of people (Gobind & Ukpere, 2014; Nunyenge & Esena, 2013). Posters are also considered as media that easily invite and attract viewers since posters often “draw on images from popular culture and express the living habits of people” (Gobind & Ukpere, 2014, p. 742). However, it is problematic to judge the success of posters in changing people’s behavior (Nishtar, 2004 as cited in Gobind & Ukpere, 2014) and perceptions. Therefore, further research should be conducted on this matter.

### **2.1.3 Parents’ Awareness of Children’s Language Development**

In this subsection, the researcher did not only describe a brief of parents’ awareness of children’s language development but also the organization and campaign that produced the campaign posters selected as the research data to maximize the validity and reliability of the obtained result. Therefore, it also contains a discussion regarding parents’ awareness of children’s language development and Worcestershire Speech & Language Therapy NHS Trust.

#### **2.1.3.1 Parents’ Awareness of Children’s Language Development**

Language is a tool used to communicate with others. Language is not merely spoken and written language but also includes other forms of communication such as signs, gestures, or facial expressions even though spoken is the most effective and widely used. In acquiring a language, humans begin when they are children and develop as they grow up (Indrayani, 2016). By acquiring a language, children are able to express their feelings to others and contribute to cultural learning in an extraordinary way (Tamis-LeMonda & Rodriguez, 2009). Moreover, language is essential in determining children’s learning process, school readiness, and academic achievement (Indrayani, 2016; Tamis-LeMonda & Rodriguez, 2009). Therefore, acquiring a language is incredibly essential for children in both their social and intellectual aspects.

As for language acquisition, experts have proposed several language acquisition theories, such as nativism, behaviorism, and cognitivism that are

different from one another. However, despite these theories, there are universal stages of children's language acquisition that align with their growth. There are six stages of children's first language acquisition. To begin with, the pre-talking/cooing stage (0-6 months) is when children can produce vowel-like sounds to respond to people's sounds such as chuckling sounds. Continue with the babbling stage (6-8 months) when children can produce a combination of consonant-vowel sounds such as "ma-ma-ma" and "da-da-da". The next is the holophrastic stage when children can produce a single complete word to represent the whole sentence such as "Mommy" for "That is mommy's dress". In the two-word stage (18-24 months), children begin to be able to produce two-word sentences and understand that certain relationships between both have different meanings such as "Mommy's food" and "Red balloon". Then, in the telegraphic stage, children began to be able to produce multi-word sentences but still deviated from the adult model such as "Me like cookies". Finally, in the later multiword stage (30+ months), children began to gain vocabulary progressively, have communicative aim at all of their utterances, and have no babbling anymore (Hutauruk, 2015; Indrayani, 2016; Lust, 2006).

During these stages, children are influenced by many factors: health, intelligence, social-economic of the family, family relations, family size, relationship with peers, and personality (Indrayani, 2016). Healthy children are easier and faster at acquiring a language than children with disabilities or who do not speak well. Children with higher intelligence outperformed children with lower intelligence in acquiring a language. The social-economic of the family has also influenced children's language acquisition in which poorer children have little opportunity to get better attention in learning a language than the richer ones. Family relations, notably, the parent-child relationship greatly influence children's language development (Hutauruk, 2015; Hutton, n.d., as cited in Klass, 2019). Children with a good relationship with their parents and family have a greater opportunity to be exposed to and learn language through communication with their family than those who have bad relationships. Further, this factor is the factor being highlighted in the poster put under the scrutiny of this study. The size of the family also influences children's language development in which a single child receives

more attention from her/his parents to learn a language. As for the relationship with peers, children who are exposed to and have good relationships with their peers are more motivated to learn to speak rather than those who do not. Finally, personality influences children's language development in which children with the ability to adapt to surroundings better will acquire the language faster (Indrayani, 2016).

Moreover, the term parents' awareness here refers to parents' knowledge and understanding of language development in children. This knowledge and understanding will help parents to monitor their children's language development. Parents who are aware of their children's language development will be able to give their children appropriate and adequate stimulation and language input that best supports their children's language development (Thomas et al., 2019). It also will allow parents to be aware of their children's language development, difficulties, and any speech, language, and communication needs (SLCN) so that they can work together with language therapist on how to respond, anticipate, and overcome them as early as possible to best support their children's language development (Bercow, 2018; Safwat & Sheikhany, 2014).

One of the ways to build parents' awareness of children's language development besides the pertinent knowledge, is knowing their children's language development through building positive parent-child interaction. Parents need to know their children's language development to help them support their children's language development by building a good quality interaction with children such as talking, playing, asking-answering questions, and sharing reading. Positive parent-child interaction will help children to communicate during early childhood. This also can help foster children's creative minds and social skills (Hutauruk, 2015; Klass, 2019; Thomas et al., 2019).

Besides raising parents' awareness of their children's growth, positive parent-child interaction can also support greatly children's language development in many ways (Hutauruk, 2015; Hutton, n.d., as cited in Klass, 2019). It will help children to socialize with their surroundings, build a healthy family communication environment, and enhance their relationship values and communication skills. Moreover, it is also important to shape children's literacy environment and

language development including vocabulary growth (Roberts & Kaiser, 2011 as cited in McGillion, Pine, Herbert, & Matthews, 2017) which then is responsible significantly for determining children's school readiness and later academic achievements (McGillion et al., 2017; Safwat & Sheikhan, 2014; Thomas et al., 2019).

Therefore, in this research, the campaign posters put under scrutiny are those that raise the parents' awareness of children's language development issues by encouraging parents to build positive interactions/relationships with their children in relation to parents' excessive use of technology.

### **2.1.3.2 Worcestershire Speech & Language Therapy NHS Trust**

Worcestershire Speech & Language Therapy NHS Trust is one of the services provided by Herefordshire and Worcestershire Health and Care NHS Trust, which is the primary provider of mental health and learning disability services in Herefordshire and Worcestershire, as well as community nursing and therapy in Worcestershire (Herefordshire and Worcestershire Health and Care NHS Trust, n.d.). This organization is located in Worcestershire, United Kingdom, and provides its services across two counties, Herefordshire and Worcestershire both online and offline. This organization can be reached through its official website at <https://www.hacw.nhs.uk/>, Twitter at [@HWHCT\\_NHS](#), and YouTube at [Herefordshire & Worcestershire Health and Care NHS](#).

On the other hand, Worcestershire Speech & Language Therapy NHS Trust is a service that provides speech and language therapy for children and young people in Worcestershire, UK. They work together both with the NHS and the Local Authority in providing and delivering services to children and young people in Children's Centers, schools, and in specialist provision to improve life changes through improving the language (Language for Learning, n.d.; SLT Worcestershire, n.d.). They can be reached through their webpage at <https://www.hacw.nhs.uk/childrensSLT>, Facebook at [@childrenSLT](#), and Twitter at [@SLT\\_Worcs](#).

Furthermore, Get Worcestershire Talking is a campaign launched by the Children's Speech & Language Therapy Service in Worcestershire with the main purpose to raise people's awareness regarding the massive impact of poor communication skills on children's language outcomes and working together to change this for children in Worcestershire. This campaign provides services online and offline. The offline services are realized through events such as Talking Walk-in Sessions, We Need to Talk! Month, etc. On the other hand, the online services realize through Worcestershire Speech & Language Therapy's Facebook and Twitter regular updates that encompass; information about training events, practical tips to help support children, links to resources, news, and competitions, information about Talking Walk-in Sessions dates and times, and updates on the Named TA for SLCN scheme (Language for Learning, 2014).

We Need to Talk! Month (#weneedtotalk), on the other hand, is part of the Get Worcestershire Talking campaign. It is a month-long campaign aiming at raising people's awareness of the importance of face-to-face communication and interaction. This campaign provides massive information and advice regarding how to support children's speech, language, and communication skills with the help of technology. Each week, this campaign provides a different focus. This campaign encourages people involved to spend more time talking, listening, and playing with their children. This campaign is available both offline and online. Moreover, participants can get various tips, resources, and information and also follow the campaign on Worcestershire Speech & Language Therapy's Facebook and Twitter accounts (Language for Learning, 2015). The posters put under scrutiny in this research are posters published under this campaign.

## **2.2 Study of the Relevant Research**

There are numerous studies conducted regarding posters analysis from multimodal perspectives such as advertisement posters (Ananda, Fitriani, Samad, & Patak, 2019; Hardini & Gustiawan, 2020; Harti, 2019; Liang, 2014), movie posters (Bo, 2018; Iftikhar, Shahnaz, & Masroor, 2019; Yu, 2019), healthcare

posters (Hansen, Eisner, Pfaller, & Schicktanz, 2017; Oyebode & Unuabonah, 2013), political posters (Lirola, 2016), and campaign posters. As for campaign posters, several topics are being raised such as environmental protection posters (Dallyono & Sukiyadi, 2019; Sitorus et al., 2022), humanitarian issues posters (Mulyadi & Sudana, 2021), suicide prevention campaign posters (Sindoni, 2019), and violence against women campaign posters (Belgrimet & Rabab'ah, 2021). These studies mainly purposed to shed light on how the combination of different semiotic resources contributes to the meaning-making in the posters.

One of the studies on campaign poster analysis was conducted by Dallyono and Sukiyadi (2019) on environmental protection posters from multimodal perspectives. Their study aims mainly to examine the contribution of textual and visual resources in raising people's awareness of the issue raised. In an attempt to analyze the posters, three tools were employed, namely, Systemic Functional Linguistics, Social Semiotics, and Reading Images. Their study revealed that these environmental protection posters are important to represent and convey messages regarding environmental messages through these multimodal resources. In a similar vein, Mulyadi and Sudana (2021) conducted a study on humanitarian issues posters. The study aimed to examine the use of campaign posters in deploying messages regarding the principles of humanity and to decrease the continuity of humanitarian crises in the world. The posters were analyzed based on social semiotics from multimodal perspectives by utilizing several tools, namely, Reading Images, Systemic Functional Linguistics, the Connotation of Names and Addresses, Social Semiotics, and Logico-Semantic. The study found that the use of campaign posters can be seen as part of attempts to raise people's awareness of freedom, equality, and values through multimodal. The other study was conducted by Belgrimet and Rabab'ah (2021) regarding the contribution of semiotics modes in the construction of meaning-making in English awareness campaign posters about violence against women. Kress and van Leeuwen's (2006) Visual Grammar were utilized to analyze the posters based on the three meanings/metafunctions, namely, representational, interactive, and compositional. The study found that English awareness campaign posters about violence against women applied a variety of semiotic resources.

However, the sample posters are considered conceptual so the posters tend to be static and fixed.

However, the researcher has not found any study of campaign poster analysis regarding the promotion of parents' awareness of children's language development from multimodal perspectives. Therefore, the present study aims at examining the textual and visual resources in campaign posters regarding the promotion of parents' awareness of children's language development to reveal the contribution of each semiotic mode to the construction of the campaign's message in the posters.

### **2.3 Conceptual Framework**

This research focuses on textual and visual resource analysis to reveal the contribution of each resource in representing the campaign's messages in the posters. The textual resources were analyzed by employing the ideational meaning of Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) proposed by Halliday and Matthiessen (2004), while the visual resources were analyzed by employing the representational meaning of Visual Grammar proposed by Kress and van Leeuwen (2006). Furthermore, the relationship between textual and visual resources was described to reveal how these resources interrelated with one another to construct meaning in the selected campaign posters. Lastly, the findings of this research described the contribution of textual and visual resources as well as the relation between them in representing the campaign's messages in the selected campaign posters. The conceptual framework of this research is presented below.



**Picture 2.5**

*Conceptual Framework*

