

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This research is conducted to find out the role of women and the Ideology reflected in verbal language in Gillette Women's and Men's Products at Advertisements, the researcher certainly needs some main theories and some other supporting theories as references. The following is a review of main theories including the general concept of discourse and discourse analysis, critical discourse analysis, feminist stylistics, transitivity analysis, ideology, verbal language at advertisement as the tool to reveal the ideology reflected in verbal languages in Gillette Women's and Men's Products at Advertisements.

2.1 Discourse and Discourse Analysis

A discourse is a set of meanings through which a group of people communicate about a particular topic. Discourse is often defined in two different ways: according to the formalist or structuralize paradigm, discourse is 'language above the clause' (Stubbs, 1983: 1). This approach to discourse focuses on the form which 'language above the sentence' takes, looking at structural properties such as organization and cohesion, but paying little attention to the social ideas that inform the way people use and interpret language.

This social aspect of language is emphasized by the second, so-called functionalist paradigm, which states that discourse is 'language in use' (Brown and Yule, 1983: 1). According to the functionalist paradigm, the analysis of language cannot be divorced from the analysis of the purpose and functions of language in human life. Discourse is therefore seen as a culturally and socially organized way of speaking. As Richardson (2007: 24; emphasis in original) notes, researchers who adopt this definition of discourse 'assume that language is used to mean something and to do something' and that this 'meaning and doing' is linked to the context of its usage. If we want to interpret a text properly, 'we need to work out what the speaker or writer is doing through discourse, and how this "doing" is linked to wider interpersonal, institutional, socio-cultural and material contexts.' 'Text' refers to 'the observable product of interaction', whereas discourse is 'the process of interaction itself: a cultural activity' (Talbot, 2007: 9). This

view of language as action and social behavior is emphasized in CDA, which sees discourse – the use of language in speech and writing – as a form of *social practice*.

A different view of discourse that has also been incorporated into the theoretical framework of CDA, especially the one developed by Fairclough, is by Foucault. This is because he offers important theoretical concepts for understanding institutions as sites of discursive power. Foucault does not think of discourse as a piece of text, but as ‘practices that systematically form the objects of which they speak’ (Foucault, 1972: 49). By discourse, Foucault means ‘a group of statements which provide a language for talking about – a way of representing the knowledge about – a particular topic at a particular historical moment’ (Hall, 1992: 291). Whereas according to Yule (1996: 83), states that:

Discourse analysis covers an extremely wide range of activities, from the narrowly focused investigation of how words such as ‘oh’ or ‘well’ are used in casual talk, to the study of the dominant ideology in a culture as represented, for example, in each educational or political practices. When it is restricted to linguistic issues, discourse analysis focuses on the record (spoken or written) of the process by which language is used in some contexts to express intention.

From the statement above, it is clear that discourse analysis has a wide range in the process of analysis, ranging from analyzing individual words to the ideology.

Discourse Analysis (DA) is the analytical framework which was created for studying actual text and talk in the communicative context. It is often considered as a general methodology, theory or merely critique tied to social construction or social power. Some discourse analysts are linguists or applied linguists and as such they try to analyze texts (textual and verbal) in terms of their grammatical structures, others draw mainly on conversational analysis (CA) and speech act theory. Other discourse analysts may have no specific procedure of rigorous analysis. Instead, they search for patterns of language use that may be linked to social or power structure and ideological colorings. This is another branch of DA, which is called Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) and which combine linguistic analysis, ideological critique and cognitive psychology. CDA has now become one of the most widely used DA models in modern linguistics. Its aim is to uncover ideological and power relations and it has mainly been applied

for the analysis of political and social discourse. The following will provide a general introduction to the field of CDA and describe one of the CDA frameworks in detail.

2.2 Critical Discourse Analysis

Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) is 'a theory and method analyzing the way that individuals and institutions use language' (Richardson, 2007: 1; emphasis in original). Critical discourse analysts focus on 'relations between discourse, power, dominance and social inequality' (Van Dijk, 1993: 249) and how discourse (re)produces and maintains these relations of dominance and inequality'. CDA therefore addresses broader social issues and attends to external factors, including ideology, power, inequality, etc. and draws on social and philosophical theory to analyze and interpret written and spoken texts. As Fairclough (2001: 26) puts it:

CDA analyses texts and interactions, but it does not start from texts and interactions. It starts rather from social issues and problems, problems which face people in their social lives, issues which are taken up within sociology, political science and/or cultural studies.

Critical discourse analysis draws from work carried out in the area known as critical theory, which considers 'the social, cultural, economic and political ways in which people are inequitably positioned' (Pennycook, 1997: 23) as well as 'how the production and reception of text is ideologically shaped by relations of power' (Pennycook, 1997: 28). A critical perspective on discourse analysis, then, explores the connections between language use and the social and political context in which it occurs. It does this in a way that deals critically with the norms and expectations of particular discourse communities, raises issues of social, economic and political concern, yet aims to provide students with the tools they need to succeed.

Fairclough (1992) offers five theoretical propositions that frame his approach to CDA.

1. Discourse (Language Use) shapes and is shaped by society: this is viewed as several ways, dialectic relationship – language changes according to the context – situations are altered according to language used – for example, advertising and news can affect attitudes, behavior, etc.
2. Discourse helps to constitute (and change) knowledge, social relations and social identity: the way language is used affects the way the world is represented –

nationalism, us and them. An appeal to “Back Basics’ sounds like a good thing, but in many ways masquerades many of the implications of such a move and the underlying philosophy. Anti-abortionist terming themselves ‘pro-life’ implies that their opponents are ‘anti-life’.

3. Discourse is shaped by relations of power and invested with ideologies: an example of this is the way certain languages, accents or dialects are valued or devalued – notion of standards as good is an interpretation that needs to be problematized. Medical language – traditional medicine – technologized – is presented compared with alternative therapies – hold ideological assumptions about what is best, common sense, etc. even the term ‘alternative medicine’ is marginalizing in that it implies that ‘non- alternative medicine’ is the norm, rather than one of two options.
4. The shaping of discourse is a stake in power struggles. If the previous tenet is correct, then language is powerful mechanism for social control and, therefore, is contested and contestable.
5. CDA aims to show how society and discourse shape each other: Language use is not a neutral phenomenon- it is concerned with developing consciousness of the issue, a precondition for developing new practices and conventions – and thus contributing to social emancipation and social justice.

Fairclough and Wodak (1997) add that CDA aims at demystifying texts shaped ideologically by relations of power; it focuses on the opaque relationship between discourse and societal structure; and it does so through open interpretation and explanation, by relying on systematic scientific procedures, that is, by achieving distance from the data and setting them in context.

2.3 Feminist Stylistics

According to Carter and Simpson shows that linguistics stylistics is where ‘practitioners attempt to derive from the study of style and language a refinement of models for the analysis of language and thus to contribute to the development linguistics theory (1989:4). The statement explain that stylistics is theory of linguistics which are not limited only on word or

sentence or discourse level but also analyzing contextual concept which influence interpretation and description meaning. Based on this concept, the researcher choose the theory which is using feminist point of view in analyzing the discourse, because it related with the aim of this study to find out the role of women as an actor in the discourse. Feminist Stylistics by Sarra Mills is the theory that the researcher use to find out the answer of the aims.

In her book Stylistics feminist mills explains that feminist Stylistics is a science that is used to express feminist thought in the text. Mills stated that 'Feminists also believe that society is organized in such a way that it works, in general, to the benefit of men rather than women; that is, that it is patriarchal (1995:13). The purpose of stylistics feminist is to see how the role of women actors at the discourse that affects the meaning when it is received by the receiver. In this case the feminists want to reveal the patriarchal constructions of culture in shaping women and men sexual through text. One of the patriarchal cultural constructions is about women sexuality and men in public area and private area. Priyatna explained that women's sexuality desire is directed to 'no desire' in public because of her desire only to receive when having sexual activity on the bed to fulfill the needs of men, while men may indicate his desire in both the public. It can be seen that female sexuality there are two binary opposition, that women who do not have desire and woman who has a big desire which is who knows how to please a man. Another case with male sexuality is seen as a natural and normal destiny either in public or private area. Construction of sexuality affects the role of women in the structure of the text, namely whether woman can be subject or object. And feminist stylistics research by mills become one of the strategies used to see how the role of women in the text.

Mills theory has many kinds of analysis structure, there are: feminist stylistics analysis at the level of word, analysis at the level of phrase/sentence, analysis at the level of discourse. The researcher in this study will use the analysis at the level of sentence. Mills also divided analysis at the level of sentence into six sub analysis, there are: ready-made phrases, presupposition and inference, metaphor, jokes and humour, transitivity choice, feminism ideology. But in this study the researcher will use transitivity Analysis to find the role of women at among advertisements.

2.4 Systemic Functional Linguistics

Systemic functional linguistics (SFL) is increasingly recognized as a very useful descriptive and interpretive framework for viewing language as a strategic, meaning-making resource (Eggins, 2004:1). This theory is developed by Michael Halliday. Halliday prefaces the 1994 edition of his functional grammar with an open-ended list of 21 possible applications of SFL (Halliday, 1994: xxix-xxx). This include theoretical concerns ('to understand the nature and functions of language'), historical ones ('to understand how languages evolve through time'), developmental ones ('to understand how a child develops language, and how language may have evolved in the human species'), and educational ones ('to help people learn their mother tongue, foreign languages, etc.') (Eggins, 2004:2). Although Halliday's functional grammar deals in detail with the structural organization of English clauses, phrases, and sentences, Halliday's interest has always been with the meanings of language in use in the textual processes of social life, or 'the sociosemantics of text'. As Halliday says of his functional grammar:

The aim has been to construct a grammar for purposes of text analysis: one that would make it possible to say sensible and useful things about any text, spoken or written, in modern English (Halliday, 1994:xv).

Gerot and Wignell (1994:6) explained that functional grammar tries to focus on texts and their contexts. It differs from the traditional grammar, because it does not only deal with the structures but also with how the structures build meaning.

All meaning is situated in a context of situation and context of culture. Context of culture determines who people are, what people do, and what people say. Context of situation is specified through the use of register variables: field, tenor, and mode. Field refers to what is going on. It influences the ideational meaning that is realized by transitivity system. Tenor refers to the social relationships between the participants. It influences the interpersonal meaning that is realized by the MOOD system. Mode refers to how language is being used. It influences the textual meaning that is realized by Theme and Rheme system.

Transitivity structure is one of theory that Mills use based on grammatical functional theory by Halliday. Transitivity system is a resource to construe our experience in terms of configurations of a process, participants, and circumstances. Those configurations are

determined by two major systems; process type and circumstances. Halliday is concerned with the representation of who acts (who is an agent) and who is acted upon (who is affected by the action of others). This theory also supported by Leuween in his explanation stated that active characteristics will happen if an actor is active in the activity and passive characteristics will happen if an actor is under controlled from the activity or only being receiver (2008:3). In that way by using transitivity, it helps to see an actor has position and interaction with others.

Mills use Halliday`s transitivity theory to see the men`s and women`s position, to analyze which one being active and take the responsibility to control the environment (actively in control of environment) and who being passive object `victim of circumstances`. Halliday divide seven different process types as this table below:

Table 2.1 Process types in English

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

each of the six types of process has its own small set of participant roles as this table below:

Table 2.2 Process types and nuclear participants

Process Type	Nuclear Participants	Example (Participants in italic)
Material	Actor, Goal	<i>He made the coffee</i>
Behavioural	Behaver, Range	<i>He threw a tantrum</i>
Mental	Senser, Phenomenon	<i>She saw the house</i>
Verbal	Sayer, Target, Receiver, range/verbiage	<i>Nichole slurred Budi(Target)</i> <i>Honey told Jenny a rude joke(receiver)</i>
Relational: #attributive	Carrier, Attribute	<i>John was strong</i>
#Identifying	Token, Value	<i>John is ourleader</i>
Existential	Existent	<i>There was a handsome teacher</i>
Meteorological	-	<i>It' s hot</i>

Source: Gerot and Wignell, 1994:54

Processes are realized by verbs which we know that verbs have been defined as 'doing words'. However, some verbs that have been listed above are not doing words at all, but rather express states of being or having. The material, behavioural, mental and verbal processes are included in process of doing (non-relational process) while the relational, existential, and meteorological processes are process of being and having (relational process) (Gerot and Wignell, 1994:54). Below are the explanations of the transitivity analysis:

4.1 Material Process

Material Process is a process of material doing. They express the notion that some entity physically does something, which may be done to some other entity. From an activity which including the movement of the body and giving the direct affect. This process has two main structures, there are:

- a. Actor or agent (as a subject) is something which is doing something/the doer.
- b. Goal is something affected by doing process/ the done.

There are two varieties of material process: creative and dispositive.

- a. Creative

In this type, the goal is brought about by the process.

For example: *She kisses him*. Women as a subject doing 'kiss' to the man (him)

- b. Dispositive

In this type, we have doing and happening

For examples: *Whitlam was dismissed by Kerr*. Whitlam as a subject isn't as the actor from the process, but as a goal. This process shows the position of object affected by something doing.

4.2 Behavioral Process

Halliday describes this process semantically as a 'half-way house between mental and material process. It is for the reason that the meanings they realize are midway between materials on one hand mental on the other.

For examples: *First she tasted the porridge from papa bear's great bowl.*

That course encouraged me to think about the relevance of race.

Lock (1996:116) calls this kind of processes mental-action processes since that these kinds of processes share to characteristics of both mental and material processes.

Mental-action processes must normally have a participant which, like the senser. In mental processes, must be animate and is usually human. However, unlike senser, but like many actors in action process, questions can be ask of mental action processes, for example, what did she do first? and What did that course encourage

you to do? Finally, the norm tense choice for mental-action processes when the time reference is now is present continuous, as it is with action processes but not mental processes. Some verbs can be used for both mental processes and behavioral processes.

For the examples:

I think there is a problem here. (Mental process)

I am thinking about the problem. (Behavioral process)

I can taste the garlic in this. (Mental process)

I am tasting the soup. (Behavioral process)

In other cases, different verbs must be used like illustrated in the following examples:

I can see the screen. (Mental process)

I am looking at the screen (Behavioral process)

I am watching the screen.

I can hear the radio. (Mental process)

I am listening to the radio. (Behavioral process)

Halliday (1994:139) states that the boundaries of behavioral process are indeterminate; but they can be recognized from the following kinds as typical:

1. (near mental) processes of consciousness represented as forms of behavior, e.g. look, watch, stare, listen, think, worry, dream.
2. (near verbal) verbal processes of behavior, e.g. cry, laugh, smile, frown, sigh, snarl, whine.
3. Physiological process, e.g. breathe, cough, faint, shit, yawn, sleep.
4. (near material) bodily postures and pastimes, e.g. sing, dance, lie (down), sit, (up, down).

Example: *No one is listening.*

Most behavioral clauses have only one participant who is behaving. This participant is labeled **Behaver** and is typically a conscious being.

Example :

We all	Laughed.
<i>Participant: Behaver</i>	Process: Mental

Egins (1994:250) states that behavioral can contain a second participant that is like a range: a restatement of the process. This participant is labeled **Behaviour**.

Example :

He	Smiled	A broad smile.
<i>Participant: Behaver</i>	<i>Process: Mental</i>	<i>Participant: Behaviour</i>

If there is another participant which is not a restatement of the process, it is called **phenomenon**.

Example:

George	Sniffed	The soup
<i>Participant: Behaver</i>	<i>Process: Behavioral</i>	<i>Participant: Phenomenon</i>

4.2 Mental Process

Mental processes are ones of sensing, thinking, and perceiving. There are divided by three types: affective and reactive (liking, loving, hating, enjoying, appreciating, and detesting), cognitive (thinking, knowing, believing, expecting, finding). And perceptive (perceiving through the five senses: seeing, hearing feeling etc). Mental process is divided by two participants:

a. Senser

By definition a conscious being, for only those who are conscious can feel, think or see.

For example: *She knew information*

b. Phenomenon

Is that which is sensed: felt, thought, or seen

For example: *Loneliness hurts*

4.3 Verbal Process

Verbal process represents process of 'saying'. saying here has to be interpreted in a rather broad sense, it covers any kind of symbolic exchange of meaning such as in *My recipe says red wine*. A true verbal process can project both direct and indirect speech in all context. Those projected clauses are not treated as a participant of the process and are analyzed separately. *'There is a wide variety of structures which can convey the message, but they can be grouped into two main types. The message may be reported in a separate projected clause or it may be summarized within the same clause. If a projected clause is used, this is not analyzed as a participant in the verbal process : the process and participant in the verbal process : the process and participants in the projected clause are analyzed separately'.*(Thompson,1996:98).

It agrees to eggins (1994:252) "Analysis must described the transitivity structure of both the projecting clause (the verbal process clause) and the projected clause (which may be any process type)."

Example

"well, I've never seen one,"	He	Said
<i>Projected clause</i>	<i>Participant: sayer</i>	<i>Process: verbal</i>

The message conveyed by verbal processes may be quoted as in the former example above. Traditionally it is called direct speech. Quotes present the message as being (more or less) the original words. In the latter clause, the projected clause is the restatement of the meaning of the original words. This kind of projected clause is called report. Traditionally reports are called indirect speech. If, on the other hand, the message is summarized in the same clause, it is

treated as a participant in the process and is called **Verbiage**. The verbiage may consist of a label for the language itself.

He repeated the warning.

The owner made a public apology.

Alternatively it may summarize the content of what was said.

Someone asked his name.

The central participant of verbal process is the **sayer**. It is the participant who is saying, telling, stating, informing, asking, querying, demanding, commanding, offering, threatening, suggesting, so on. It can be a human or any other symbolic source.

Example: *she told me a strange story.*

The paper says there will be another election.

According to Halliday (1994:141) verbal process also accommodates three further participant functions in addition to sayer: **Receiver, verbiage, target**.

1. The receiver is the one to whom saying is directed.

Example: *Tell me the whole truth.*

2. The verbiage is the function that corresponds to what is said. This may mean one of the two things.

- a. It may be the content of what is said.

Example: *can you describe the apartment for me?*

- b. It may be the name of the saying.

Example: *Let me ask you a question!*

3. The target is the entity that is targeted by the process of saying.

Example: *Please don't insult my intelligence.*

4.4 Relational Process

Relational process can be said to be that of being, including having.

Butt and friends (1996:49) state the main characteristic of relational processes is that they relate a participant to its identity or description. In essence, they state that something is/was/will be and hence relational processes are often described as processes of being. But other verbs may relate a participant to a description, for example seem, become, look, appear, remain, have, feel, etc.

Relational process comes in two modes: attributive and identifying. In the Attributive mode, an entity has some quality ascribed or attributed to it. Meanwhile in identifying mode some entities have an identity assigned to it.

Halliday (2004:219-220) proposes four characteristics of attributive clauses which distinguish them from identifying ones.

- a. The nominal group functioning as attribute construes a close of thing and is typically indefinite..
- b. The verb realizing the process is one of the 'ascriptive' classes: become, turn, grow, get, remain, seem, sound, look, smell, etc.
- c. The interrogative probe for such clauses is what?, how?, or what ... like ?
- d. These clauses are no reversible. There are not passive forms.

Example: *Sarah is wise.*

Halliday (2004:220) also enumerates the characteristics of identifying clauses contrast with those of attributive clauses' listed above.

- a. The nominal group realizing function of identifier is typically definite.
- b. The verb realizing the process is one of the 'equative' classes : play, act as, mean, indicate, suggest, represent, illustrate, realize, etc.
- c. The interrogative probe for such clauses is which?, who?, which/who...as? These clauses are reversible.

Example : *Funnel webs are the deadliest spiders in Australia.*

As has been mentioned early, in the attributive mode and entity has some qualities ascribed to it. Structurally, the quality is labeled the **attribute**, and the entity to which it is ascribed is the **carrier**. The carrier is normally mapped onto the subject, and the attribute is normally mapped onto the complement.

Example:

This bread	Is	Stale.
<i>Participant: carrier</i>	<i>Pro: Relational: Attribute</i>	<i>Participant: Attribute</i>

Identifying relational process is about defining. Grammatically, defining involves two participants: a Token (that which defines). Both Token and Value are realized by nominal groups. Unlike nominal groups that represent the Attribute role in Attributive relational that is indefinite, typically the nominal group in identifying relational is definite,

e.g. a skinny one (Attribute) vs. The skinny one (identifying).

Halliday states that identifying clauses select for voice. They have an active and a passive form and are reversible.

The reversibility of identifying clauses raises the question of determining which “side” of the clause is Token, and which the Value. This can be determined both semantically and grammatically. Halliday (1985:115) as quoted by Eggins (1994:259) points out that semantically, the Token will be a “sign, Name, form, holder or occupant” of a value, which gives the “meaning, reference, function, status or role” of the Token.

However, it is the grammatical test which determines role assignment. The test involves replacing the verb *to be* with one of the synonymous identifying intensive verbs (equal, add up to, make, signify, mean, define, spell, indicate, express, suggest, act as, play, represent, stand for, refer to, exemplify), and then determining whether the resulting clause is active or passive, and which constituent is functioning as subject.

Token will always be subject in an active clause, and Value will always be subject in a passive clause.

Example: *You're the silkiest one here.*

And substitute a possible synonymous verb: *you represent the skinniest one here.*

Determine whether this substituted clause is active or passive, and label the subject role: = active(no presence of be+past participle+by)

You	Represent		The skinniest one here.
<i>Subject</i>	<i>Finite</i>	<i>Predicator</i>	<i>complement</i>
<i>MOOD</i>		<i>RESIDU</i>	
<i>Participant: Token</i>	<i>Process: Relational: identifying</i>		<i>Participant: Value</i>

Check the analysis by forming the passive, where subject will be Value;

The skinniest one here	Is	Represent	By you.
<i>Subject</i>	<i>Finite</i>	<i>Predicator</i>	<i>Adj: circumstance</i>
<i>MOOD</i>		<i>RESIDU</i>	
<i>Participant: Value</i>		<i>Process: Relational: identifying</i>	<i>Participant: Token</i>

4.5 Existential Process

The final process type in one that can almost be defined in negative term: essentially it expresses the mere existence of an entity without predicating anything else of it. It is existential process. This is easy to be identified as the structure involves the use of the word *there*.

In existential clause, the `there` is signals of the process type but does not function as a location circumstance, nor does it represent a participant. Halliday

(2004: 257) says 'the word *there* in such clauses has no representational function; but it is needed as a subject. 'Further Eggins (1994:254-255) said:

The structural there in an existential process does not receive any functional label, as it not encoding any representational meaning. It is left unanalyzed for transitivity, although in mood analysis it is of course assigned the subject role.'

Example:

There	Will be	A real bun fight	At the next meeting.
	<i>Process: Existential</i>	<i>Participant: Existent</i>	<i>Circumstance: location</i>

It is important to distinguished between *there* used as an existential Subject, and *there* used as a circumstance of location While structure *there* is usually unstressed, circumstantial *there* is usually stressed and often carries an intonation contour:

Structural *there*; *There is a book on the table, and a bag on te chair.*

Circumstantial *there*: *There is your book-on the table.*

The only obligatory participant in an existential process when receives a functional label is called the **Existent**. This participant, which usually follows the *there is / there are* sequence, may be a phenomenon and is often in fact an event (nominalized action).

Example : *There was* *a battle.*

Existent

4.6 Metrological Process

Some linguistics mention anther process type for some clauses as follows:

It `s hot

It`s windy

It`s hailing

The it has no representational function, but does provide a subject. These are analyzed as process: Meteorological (Gerot and Wignell 1994: 73, Halliday and Matthiessen 2004:175)

4.7 Circumstances

After we know the first major system of transitivity system, it is important to know the second system in transitivity; circumstances. Circumstances answer such questions as when, where, why, how, how many and as what. They realize meanings about time, place, manner, cause, accompaniment, matter, and role. The explanation below:

1. Extent / Time

Extent locates a process in time and space in terms of lines. It construes duration and spatial distance. The interrogative forms to identify Extent are *how far? How long?, how many (measure units)?, and how many times?*

Example: *I stayed up all night.*

She drove for another few miles.

2. Location

This circumstances locates a process in time and space in terms of points. The general interrogatives of location are *where? And when?*

Example: *We had a dinner party at Trumpington.*

He was killed in 1937.

3. Manner

Halliday (2004: 267) proposes three subcategories of manner: Means, Quality, and Comparison

1. Means refers to the means whereby a process takes place. It is typically expressed by a prepositional phrase with the preposition *by* or *with*. It is probed by *how?*, and *what with?*

Example: *So they did the transfusion through the umbilical artery.*

The pig was beaten with the stick.

2. Quality is typically expressed by an adverbial group, with *-ly* adverb as head. The interrogative form is *how*?

Example : *It was snowing heavily.*

It puzzled her too much.

3. Comparison is typically expressed by a prepositional phrase with *like* or *unlike*, or an adverbial group of similarity or difference. The interrogative form is *what...like*?

Example : *It went through my head like an earthquake.*

4. Cause

The category of cause can also be divided into three subcategories: Reason, Purpose, and Behalf.

1. Reason represents the reason for which a process takes place – what causes it. It is typically expressed by a prepositional phrase with *through* or *of* or with complex preposition such as *because of*, *as the result of*, and *thank to*. The corresponding WH-forms are *why*? or *how*?

Example : *I went out of curiosity.*

2. Purpose represents the purpose for which an action takes place – the intention behind it. Purpose is typically expressed by a prepositional phrase with *for* or with a complex preposition such as *in the hope of*, *for the purpose of*, and *for the sake of*. It is probed by *what for*?

Example: *she went nearer to watch them.*

3. Behalf represent the entity, typically a person on whose behalf or for whose sake the action is undertaken – who it is for. They are expressed by a prepositional phrase with *for* or with a complex preposition such as *for the sake of*, *in favor of*, *on behalf of*, etc

Example: *He did it for the sake of friendship.*

5. Accompaniment

Accompaniment is a form of joint participant in the process. This element represent the meanings 'and', 'or', as circumstance; it corresponds to the interrogatives *and who / what else?*, but not *who / what?*. It is expressed by prepositional phrases with prepositions such as *with, without, besides, instead of*.

Example : *She's sitting on the grass over there with her brother.*

6. Role

This categories comprises two sub categories: Guise and Product.

1. Guise construes the meaning of 'be' (Attribute and Identity) in the form of circumstance. Guise basically answer the question 'what as?'. The usual preposition is *as*.

Example: *I come here as a friend.*

2. Product corresponds to the interrogative *what into?*, with the meaning of 'become'

Example: *Aren't you growing into a big girl?*

7. Matter

This circumstance has particular link with verbal process. It is the circumstantial equivalent of verbiage, 'that is described, referred to, narrated, etc'. It is probed by *what about?* And is expressed by prepositions such as *about, concerning, with reference to*, and sometimes simply *of*.

Example: *Please don't worry about me!*

2.5 Ideology

Since CDA is concerned with exposing the often hidden ideologies that are reflected, reinforced and constructed in everyday and institutional discourse, the concept of ideology is crucial. Like the concepts of discourse and power, ideology is probably the one that most defies precise definition. Ideology for CDA is seen as an important aspect of establishing and maintaining unequal power relations.

The relationship to asymmetrical power relations may be direct one, or indirect one. However, ideology is most effective when its workings are least visible or indirect. Moreover, invisibility is achieved when ideologies are brought to discourse not as explicit elements of the text, but as background assumptions which on the one hand lead the text producer to 'textualize' the world in a particular way and on the other hand lead the interpreter to interpret the text in a particular way. Texts do not typically spout ideology. They so position the interpreter through their cues that she brings ideologies to the interpretation of texts – and reproduce them in the process (Fairclough, 1989:84-85). *Ideology* is interpreted as 'any social policy which in part or in whole derived from social theory in *a conscious way*'. Ideology certainly does not give the impression of having a single fixed meaning – far from it! Indeed, it is not unusual to find words like *ideology* described as 'meaningless' because they have so many meanings. But the situation is not quite that desperate: *ideology* does have a number of meanings, but it is not endlessly variable in meaning, and the meanings it has tend to cluster together in to a small number of main families (Fairclough, 1989:93-94).

However, to expose hidden ideologies in the discourse, people can use the theory of SFL. In SFL theory, ideology is the most abstract context to which reference will be made, that the discrete findings of the various analyses can be most coherently integrated. A ideology impacts on each of the levels of context, and through them is realized in linguistic choices, the linguistic evidence from all the preceding analyses can be used to make explicit what positions, biases, and interpretations are encoded in the text.

The impact of ideology on field relates to how the text encodes such ideational meanings as who initiates, what kind of actions/events are, who responds to those actions, and how. The

impact on ideology on tenor relates to how the text encodes such interpersonal meanings as how the writer relates to the reader, how typical intense experiences are and who the core participant is being argued about. The impact of ideology on mode relates to how the text encodes such textual meanings as what information is taken as 'given' and what is not, and what distance is constructed between reader and writer and between writer and event (Eggins, 2004:349-350).

2.6 Advertisement

Advertisement can be routed through a process of verbal and nonverbal communication. According to Adler and Rodman, verbal and nonverbal languages are two different communication tools. Verbal language is spoken and written languages are conveyed through words. Meanwhile, the nonverbal language is the language that is conveyed not with words, but through intonation, vocal quality, gestures, movements (body), appearances (physical), facial expressions and so on. In this research the writer will analyzed at printed advertisement.

In printed advertisement, verbal and nonverbal language may be through printed media advertising component. Morissan describes the basic components of print ads are: headlines, body copy, visual elements and layouts (2007: 278)

1. The title (headline) are the words that are in the first position of an advertisement. The word should attract attention and interesting to read. Headline has a bigger typography and separated from the body copy or ad agency
2. The body copy is a text that contains a message addressed to the readers of advertising. Writing body copy into the creative process of the copywriter or scriptwriter for interested advertising, message must be packaged even become short, compact and attractive.
3. The visual element is the element that communicates illustrations or pictures to be harmonious with headlines and body copy so as to produce effective information. Visual element consists of the trademarks, logos, colors and illustrations that advertised products

4. Layout is the physical arrangement of parts or part of an advertisement, including setting the composition of headlines, body copy, illustrations and anything that is put in an advertisement.

Headline and body copy is part of verbal language in advertisement. Elements and layouts are part of nonverbal language. Body copy Gillette's advertising print ads have a variety of language in clause sentences, phrases and words. This language conveyed the message of women who appear in the advertisement. This study focuses discussed verbally language with the phrase that is used as the headline in the advertisement. Discuss the meaning of verbal language using feminist stylistics theory as the primary and the CDA as a second theory to determine the ideology that became the background.

2.7 Gillette Company

The Gillette Company is the world leader in the men's grooming product category as well as in certain women's grooming products. Although more than half of company profits are still derived from shaving equipment--the area in which the company started--Gillette has also attained the top spots worldwide in writing instruments (Paper Mate, Parker, and Waterman brands) and correction products (Liquid Paper), toothbrushes and other oral care products (Oral-B), and alkaline batteries (Duracell products, which generate almost one-fourth of company profits). Gillette maintains 64 manufacturing facilities in 27 countries, and its products are sold in more than 200 countries and territories, with more than 60 percent of sales occurring outside the United States.

Gillette introduced a significant innovation in shaving technology--the first major innovation in safety razors since the beginning of the 1970s--with the Mach 3 in 1998. The new safety razor system introduced a third blade into the twin-blade system that had dominated the wet-shaving market for the previous quarter-century. The blades were set at an angle so that each blade shaves closer to the skin, allowing shavers to use fewer strokes to get the same close, comfortable shave. The shaving cartridge was set on a pivot, allowing the head of the razor to

move with the angle of the jaw and skin. In addition, the cartridge itself was designed to facilitate cleaning, and the handle was ergonomically designed to make the razor more comfortable in the hand. The entire Mach 3 system, protected by 35 patents, cost Gillette \$35 billion just to bring to market. As a result, the corporation set the price for replacement cartridges about 35 percent more than its previous best-selling razor, the SensorExcel. Marketing strategy was slanted to persuade current Gillette product users to trade up their previous equipment in favor of the newer, more expensive models because of their improved performance, offering a closer shave with fewer nicks and cuts.

Despite (or perhaps because of) the expense of the expense of introducing the new razor, Gillette saw its worst economic performance in almost a decade in 1998. Sales during the third quarter of the year alone dropped 15 percent. In October, Gillette management announced staff cuts of 4,700 jobs, about 11 percent of its total workforce. Lowered sales in key markets such as Brazil, Germany, and Russia also contributed to the loss of income, and share prices dropped by 11 percent virtually overnight.

Gillette's underperformance continued in 1999 and 2000, in large part because of currency-exchange differences. Its stationery and small-appliance businesses showed the greatest losses and the battery and toiletries businesses provided most of the profits. In October 2000 Gillette's managing board responded by firing CEO Michael Hawley and announcing a world-wide restructuring effort that would be led by former Nabisco CEO James M. Kilts, who joined the firm during its centennial year, in January 2001. Kilts, who had earned a reputation as a fixer of troubled companies, needed all his skills. Gillette's battery business, which had dominated the top of the market, lost market share to other brands (Energizer and Rayovac) that offered similar performance at a lower cost. In addition the company lacked fiscal discipline and used an antiquated quarterly tracking system. As a result of these and other expensive practices, Gillette's earnings continued to perform below expectations. Stock prices fell by about 60 percent in the months between early 1999 and late 2001.

Gillette's control of the toiletries market was threatened early in 2003 when rival Schick-Wilkinson Sword introduced the Quattro, the world's first four-blade shaving system. Gillette claimed that the Quattro illegally infringed on Gillette's patents for the Mach 3. The violence of the company's reaction was explained in part because the Quattro actually increased Schick's market share from about 14 percent to about 17 percent. At the same time Gillette's market share slipped by a similar amount--although the Boston-based firm still held a commanding 63 percent of the total wet-razor market. Although Gillette lost its attempt to ban sales of the Quattro in court, it nonetheless saw sales of its products increase. By the end of the first quarter of 2004, Gillette was able to report a 43 percent increase in profits, much of which was provided by its mens' and womens' wet razors, the Mach 3 and Venus systems. The company's grasp of its core businesses--toiletries and oral care--remained strong. While Colman M. Mockler served as CEO from 1975 to 1991, the company was the target of three takeover attempts. Eventually, on October 1, 2005, Gillette and Procter & Gamble merged companies. As a result of this merger, the Gillette Company no longer exists. Its last day of market tradingâ€”symbol G on the NYSE was September 30, 2005. The merger created the world's largest personal care and household products company.