

Language in a digital age: Be not afraid of digitality

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Language in a digital age: Be not afraid of digitality

Proceedings from the
*24th European Systemic Functional Linguistics
Conference and Workshop:*
1 - 3 July 2013, Coventry University, UK



Edited by Siân Alsop and Sheena Gardner
Department of English and Languages, Coventry University

2014

Some texts are born digital

Some achieve digitality

And others have digitality thrust upon them

(cf. Twelfth Night)

Language in a digital age: Be not afraid of digitality. Proceedings from the 24th European Systemic Functional Linguistics Conference and Workshop: 1st to 3rd July 2013, Coventry University, UK.

Edited by Siân Alsop and Sheena Gardner, Department of English and Languages (DEL), Coventry University, UK.

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Conference Themes: SFL and Language in a Digital Age

born digital	achieve digitality	digitality thrust upon them
blogs tweets wikis emails Facebook text messages webpages reality TV YouTube	images political discourse teacher education university lecturing newspapers mourning persuading belonging expert medical advice technical instruction cinema and TV viewing	register analysis mental processes logical relations cohesive ellipsis focus method of development research articles spoken interactions
new digital texts to analyse	we [can] do things differently in digitality	digitality and research methods

The aim of this conference was to explore Systemic Functional Linguistics insights into language use in today's digital age. Following the SFL proclivity for trinocular perspectives, the conference theme was realized through papers that used SFL to analyze new types of text that were born (or conceived) digitally, such as blogs, tweets and facebook; through texts that achieve digitality, being digitally conceived manifestations of established practices, such as giving medical advice, mourning, and teacher education; and through papers that had digitality thrust upon them in that new digital methods including corpus tools were used to provide new perspectives in SFL analysis of areas such as register, ellipsis and research articles.

The conference themes were bound together through three plenary presentations:

- Susan Hunston: *Observing Texts Digitally: At the Interface of Lexis and Grammar*
- Gunther Kress: *Writing, Texts and the New Media in a Social Semiotic Multimodal Frame*
- Michele Zappavigna: *Social Media, Ambient Affiliation, and Identity*

The references to Shakespeare's Twelfth Night were extended by a trip to see Hamlet at the Royal Shakespeare Company in Stratford-upon-Avon.

The extended abstracts submitted for inclusion in these Proceedings provide an overview of the richness of the research presented. They include 37 abstracts from 55 authors working in 18 different countries.

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Identity, Inclusion and Exclusion of Social Actors in Blog Posts to Comment Editorials and Opinion Columns of Online Chilean Cyber Newspapers

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Keywords: digital media; identity; social actors; blog comments; corruption

1. Introduction

In the last ten years, there has been a growing debate over the role that public digital media have had in social change, particularly in the creation of a public digital sphere where issues affecting local political organizations and the functioning of institutions is openly debated by citizens. The aim of this paper is to reflect upon the role of digital citizenry in the construction of the identity of social actors present in the blog comments of online newspapers that debate over cases of corruption dealt with in editorials and opinion columns of Chilean cyber newspapers.

The digital era of new media – Facebook, YouTube, online newspaper blogging, among others – are reconfiguring the political communication ecology of political elites. Communication networks in politics have been traditionally founded in the principle of political power (Wolfsfeld 2011) which renders political elites open access to media coverage and places politicians in a superior position to get their messages across.

At present, nonetheless, the immediateness of information transmission plus its ubiquitousness provides online anonymous citizens with the possibility of being informed and also being able to question issues debated in different platforms. This fact has allowed for the opening of a new arena for deliberation; a public sphere that contributes to the construction of an e-democracy with its own new agenda for online debate (Wright 2011). The latter implies that digital citizens intuitively sense that representative democracy, understood in light of the principle of political power, has become obsolete. In this, social media, particularly the blogs of online newspapers, according to Woodley (2008), have assumed a fundamental role in the birth and development of new patterns of democratic participation.

Barton and Lee (2013) point to the fact that the public sphere is becoming a textually mediated space in which written language is fundamental in vernacular activities that constitute everyday life. New technologies provide writing spaces where meaning is negotiated, such virtual spaces afford public debate to instantiate stance rich environments where opinions are constantly negotiated and renegotiated collaboratively by a networked audience.

The construction of public discourses according to Fairclough (2010) suggests ongoing negotiations of meanings in public sphere events. In this context, online newspaper blogging constitutes an instance of digital deliberation where individuals gather in a virtual public square or café to debate/read or hear about issues of public concern. It is in the critical exploration of blog comments posted in response to editorials and opinion columns of online newspapers, that we attempt to examine the identities of social actors construed and negotiated by bloggers.

The study of online newspaper blog comments involves dealing with the institution of entertainment, which is ultimately determined by the social formation, in other words, the relationship between the institution, the state and the economic system. The institution represented by media becomes a speech community composed of a repertoire of speech events. Blog comments to editorials and opinion columns constitute a specific type of speech event that portrays the struggle between the orders of discourse as a text unfolds. The overall picture of experience construed by bloggers is clearly distinguishable in the patterns of inclusion and exclusion of social actors present in online discussions (van Leeuwen 2008).

2. Data and Methods

This paper presents a qualitative study that adheres to the principles of Critical Discourse Analysis (Fairclough 2010, Fairclough and Fairclough 2012). The corpus used in the analysis consists of a 394 blog comments to editorials and columns selected from the Chilean digital portals EL MOSTRADOR and EMOL that debate over the approval of the formal charges

against the Chilean Minister of Education by the lower chamber of the Congress between the months of March and September of 2013. The representation of social actors in blog discussions is analysed in light of the sociosemantic perspective adopted by van Leeuwen (2008), Halliday and Matthiessen (2004) and the theoretical-methodological framework postulated by Martin and Rose (2007).

3. Results and discussion

The results of the analysis, in general terms, mirror the current situation that Chile is living from the perspective of every day citizens who feel puzzled at economic figures that show the country is enjoying economic success while social policy cannot tackle the long lasting crisis that affects all social institutions.

In 2011, a social movement led by secondary and tertiary education students demanded that the government end profit and take under its control an agonistic education system. In March 2013, Piñera's Education Minister, Harald Beyer, was accused of failing to investigate the complaints over the misuse of funds at several private universities. The news about the impeachment of the Minister of Education, motivated the publication of editorials and opinion columns in online newspapers.

A global analysis of the corpus composed of 394 blog comments shows the presence of four social actors whose existence is signalled by socio-semantic discursive resources that individualise or assimilate their presence in online discussions. The first and most frequently individualised participant is the Chilean Minister of Education, Harald Beyer, considered as a fair recipient of the constitutional accusation. Additionally, most bloggers assimilate, at the same level of dubious accountability, the Ministers of Education of all the democratic governments elected in the last 20 years, in addition to politicians of the right, centre and left wings.

Another important social actor identified in blog comments is profit, considered illegal under the law that regulates Chilean education. The identification of profit in an agentive role in discourse illustrates an order of things deeply enrooted in the Chilean neoliberal system. Chile and its citizens are construed as passive actors usually assuming the instrumental role of supporting the maintenance of the economic model. Neoliberalism takes an active role in discourse where it usually appears associated with material processes such as make profit, exercise control, dominate, among others.

A third participant identified in blog comments is the student movement represented as an agentive social actor in the struggle to create awareness not only among the political class but also between Chilean citizens who eventually took to the streets to support youth demands. Finally, one last social actor present in the blog comments to editorials and opinion columns is the every day Chilean citizen whose presence in discourse is assigned a peripheral place in the clause following prepositional circumstantial phrases of purpose, which clearly indicate these participants satisfy an instrumental purpose that highlights the passive role citizens play in the social, political and economic scenery of the country. This dominant representation of the Chilean citizen as a passive social actor has been slowly changing as people observe that political debate traditionally led by politicians must legitimate the voice of hundreds who seek discursive mobilization as the new face of what has been called participant e-democracy.

5. Conclusions

The negligence of the Minister of Education to supervise private universities suspected of infringement of the law that forbids profit in Chilean universities opened a debate that unveils the purpose that Chilean education has served as a means of social reproduction of inequality for the last 30 years. Blog comments sadly indicate that the brutal commodification of education in Chile has been the cause of increasing crosswise segregation and inequity in classrooms all over the country.

The corpus consisting of 394 blog comments to editorials and opinion columns provide a nuanced account of the vertical relationship there is between the Chilean state and its citizens in Chile. This verticality perceived by a majority of bloggers construes citizenship as a formal right, that is to say, a symbolic privilege. A factual merit that hides limited empowerment in a country that seems to be shaped to serve the purpose of an economic model that has proved to be a perverse mechanism to favour a few to the detriment of numerous hard working families who see that in education the only pathway to social mobility.

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Approaching the Journal des Sçavans 1665-1695

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Keywords: grammatical function; Journal des Sçavans; manual analysis; semantic categories; theme

1. Introduction

Some texts are definitely not born digital, they certainly will not achieve digitality in the foreseeable future, and they have a very high degree of resistance to having digitality thrust upon them. I shall call such texts "distinctly non-digital documents". As an example of such a document, I would like to consider the Journal des Sçavans in the period 1665 to 1700. The Journal des Sçavans was the first academic periodical, and its first issue appeared, in Paris, on 5th January 1665. The Journal des Sçavans was founded by Denis de Sallo, at the instigation of Colbert, who was Louis XIV's first minister.

For this study I shall use a corpus made up of five issues of the Journal des Sçavans for each of the years 1665, 1675, 1685, and 1695. Thus the corpus has a total of 20 issues, with an estimated total number of words of 66,400. The Journal des Sçavans is made up mainly of book reviews, which constitute 79% of the items in the corpus. Moreover, it covered the whole range of new knowledge.

Early issues of the Journal des Sçavans constitute distinctly non-digital documents. It is true they are available on the Internet, but there all links with digitality come to an end, for they are available only in image form, which means that they cannot be tagged. Similarly, they cannot be automatically read. The quality of seventeenth century print is far too poor for automatic programs currently available. In addition, the letter "s" is represented by "long s" in initial and medial positions, and "long s" is not recognized by current programs. The digraphs "ct" and "st" are represented by a single letter block where the two letters are joined. For the foreseeable future, the only way forward for the linguist is that of manual analysis.

2. Grammatical function

When the themes of this corpus are considered in terms of their grammatical function, as one might expect, the vast majority of themes function as subject, while the second largest group is those that function as adjunct.

Predicators functioning as theme are rare, accounting for no more than 1% of the themes. Predicators functioning as theme are usually imperatives:

The incidence of complements functioning as theme is virtually negligible.

Adjuncts are the other major category, after subjects, accounting for 22% of themes. However, a large number of the adjunct themes are clausal in nature.

There are some cases of cleft structures, where the clefted item functions as theme.

Similarly there are a small number of extraposed structures, where the extraposition matrix functions as theme.

We have seen that 22% of themes function as adjunct; however of these more than half, 52% are clausal, that is 12% of all themes are clausal adjunct themes. 52% of clausal adjunct themes are made up of 31% finite clauses, and 22% non-finite clauses.

Hence, it can be concluded that in this corpus the majority of themes function as subject, as would be expected. There is also a relatively large proportion of themes which function as adjunct, and of these more than half are clausal in form.

3. Semantic categories

The themes have been analyzed in terms of their semantic categories. The categories used are those that were developed in Banks 2008. The commonest category is that of humans other than the author, which accounts for 37% of the sample. This is

followed by the object of study or discussion, which accounts for 22%, and references to other texts, which account for 16%. Since the "other humans" category is relatively important, this has been looked at in greater detail. It is found that the following groups occur as other humans:

- The author of a book under review.
- A person mentioned in a book under review (or other item).
- The editor or publisher of a book under review.
- The translator of a book under review.
- References of a general nature.
- A person introduced by the reviewer of a book.

The vast majority are either the authors of book being reviewed, which account for 41% of the sample, or persons mentioned in reviews which account for 36%. In the case of authors of books being reviewed the word *auteur* recurs frequently. Otherwise, proper names commonly occur with this function.

Examples of the category of persons mentioned in reviews often occur when the reviewer is summarizing a work, particularly works of a historical nature. In items other than book reviews, this category is simply a person mentioned in the text.

Examples in the general category account for 8% of the sample. These occur often in introductory sections. The impersonal pronoun, *on*, frequently turns up with this function.

The roles of editor and publisher were not clearly distinguished at this time, and, indeed, were often the same person. This category accounts for 7% of the sample. The impersonal pronoun, *on*, again frequently occurs with this function.

Persons introduced by the reviewer account for 6% of the sample.

Finally, quite a number of works reviewed are translations of ancient texts, so the translator sometimes occurs as theme. These account for 2% of the sample.

The object of study or discussion is more often of an abstract nature rather than a physical object. Where the object of study or discussion is a physical object this is more likely to be in an item other than a book review.

References to other texts have been analyzed by type of text. Books under review account for more than three-quarters (77%) of the themes referring to other texts. Otherwise, other books account for a further 13%. Some of these are virtual, in that they are books which have not (yet) been written.

The third category of references to other texts is that of texts other than books, which account for 10% of the sample, these include letters, manuscripts and decrees. Thus books under review are the main type of other text thematized in the corpus.

4. Authors of book reviews

There is one semantic category of themes, which while it is not large, accounting for only 6% of themes, is nevertheless worthy of note. Within this category a group which is particularly significant is that of the authors of books reviewed; these constitute 86% of all the authors in the author category.

The commonest way for the author of a book review to refer to himself is by the use of the impersonal pronoun *on*, with general reference (*On.gen*), where the co-text leads us to believe that the author is to be included. The impersonal pronoun, *on*, is also sometimes used with specific reference to the reviewer himself. Examples with this function account for 10% of the sample.

The pronoun *nous* [*we*] accounts for 11% of the sample. Exactly half of these are inclusive *nous*, hence with general reference. The other half of the *nous* examples refer specifically to the reviewer. On the other hand the first person singular pronoun, *je*, only occurs twice in the whole of the corpus, and the two examples occur in adjacent sentences.

In addition, there are a small number of occurrences of *tout le monde* [*everyone*], *personne* [*no-one*] and *ce Journal* [*this Journal*].

We can therefore conclude that the writer of a book review refers to himself rarely, and even when he does so it is likely to be in very general terms. If we totalize the general uses of *on*, the general uses of *nous*, and the occurrences of *tout le monde* and *personne*, we will have a figure for the overall uses of references by the writer of a book review to himself in general terms. By totalizing the specific uses of *on*, those of *nous*, together with *je* and *ce* Journal, we will have the corresponding figure for specific references by the reviewer to himself. This gives 81% for general references, and 19% for specific references. Thus, where the reviewer refers to himself, there is a four to one chance that this will be in general terms.

5. Concluding remarks

I trust that the reader will agree that these are interesting results, but beyond the inherent interest of these results, is the very fact that they have necessarily been produced by manual analysis. In these days of increasing use of computer analysis of digitalized texts, it seems useful to point out that interesting results can be produced by the manual analysis of distinctly non-digital documents. Since manual analysis will, for the foreseeable future, be the only means of studying the linguistic nature of distinctly non-digital documents, it is important that their study should not be eliminated simply because they are not amenable to computer analysis. The moral of the story seems to be that one should not throw out the manual baby with the digital bathwater.

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"Like Being in a Rock Concert": Online Appraisal at a Startup Pitch Event

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1. Introduction

The Appraisal framework within SFL is beginning to be used to examine focused evaluation systems within discourse communities such as wine enthusiasts (Hommerberg 2011). In the present study I will use it to discuss the clustering of evaluative terms on a Twitter channel during an entrepreneurial pitch event held by a Finnish university. The study sheds light on the discourse of entrepreneurship, promotional language, and Twitter, the microblogging service on which the data appear. Twitter appeals to researchers as a source of "searchable talk" (Zappavigna 2011: 804), and these findings suggest ways in which field, tenor and mode may contribute to the patterns of Appraisal instantiated there.

The data are 280 Tweets commenting on a pitch competition in December 2011. A pitch is an oral presentation of business ideas to potential investors (Cunningham 2010); it overlaps with the genre of product demonstrations or demos. Business schools teach pitching as a communicative technology and it has been further reified through industry-supported training programmes and public contests. In this event, representatives of 15 teams who had just completed a training programme called Startup Sauna pitched their ideas for companies to about 800 classmates, investors and guests, speaking from a stage with a Twitter stream displayed next to it. This stream formed a second, reactive channel of mass communication at the event. While this digital backchannel (McCarthy and boyd 2005) was parasitic on the event in progress, it nevertheless consisted of full on-record utterances and thanks to coherence features such as links, these also made sense when detached from the event.

Almost half the tweets referred to one or more of the nascent companies by name, and these were unevenly distributed among the ten teams mentioned [note 1]. The rest concerned elements of the event or the Finnish "startup scene" in general. The crowd was multinational and tweets were in English except for 26 Russian, 13 Finnish and one Finnish/English tweet. It is difficult to count Tweets as tokens, owing to the incidence of multiple clauses and intertextual chains, so the analysis at this stage is mostly qualitative.

2. Analysis

Twitter provided a way for audience members to report the event live to off-site peers, critique the pitches and offer feedback, boost their favorites, and influence the choices of judges who would award prizes such as office space and a Silicon Valley trip. The opportunities to report, boost and influence were definitely taken. The operator of the official @StartupSauna account recorded each company's appearance on the stage, as in [1] and some individual observers also followed this pattern, as in [2]:

[1] Welcome on stage @Yodiz: making it easy to collaborate with your team

[2] #StartUpSauna Yodiz is now on the stage!! Save money and time managing different products efficiently!

The latter part of both tweets comes from the company's pitch or a written description, and thus is not an expression of original Attitude. The generally positive polarity of pitch talk and therefore in covertly quoted pitch talk makes it difficult in some cases to unpick reporting from evaluating; for example, the following :

[3] #StartUpSauna Actually making a difference in the world. #maxygen

This could be a serious slogan, or an ironic comment about Maxygen (a medical testing service) being more worthwhile than other startups [note 2]. As pitches progressed, more opinions were expressed and even with some ambiguous cases excluded, tweets that appraised (at least 80) soon far outnumbered tweets that reported (a few dozen). The following is clearly presented as personal opinion:

[4] Great energy from #zonear! Really really grrrreat pitch! Good job! #startupsauna #demoday

The company and pitch performance are evaluated positively with "generally appreciative" lexis, graded upward in several ways (Hommerberg 2011: 189), and all inscribed or explicit (Martin and White 2005: 61ff). In terms of Attitude, it refers to the startup's energy (Judgment: Capacity) as well as the impression made (Appreciation: Impact). Nearly all the tweets about companies showed positive polarity, and both reporting and evaluative tweets seemed to contribute to a form of positive graduation by their volume; it could be seen that the four teams selected for prizes were the ones named in the largest number of tweets about them.

Negative comments were rare, appearing only in some side conversations about the startup "scene", including a series of ritual insults between Finns and Swedes, but there was almost no negative Appraisal of individual startups. The most deprecatory tweet I could find about a contestant, contained an emoticon to mitigate its invoked claim that the pitch was confusing or superficial:

[5] Rock and roll ...@wavesum is from the future, and I'm sure they also do something :) #startupsauna

The evaluations thus consisted mostly of positive Appraisal focused on desirable values of energy, ability to impress and entertain (Appreciation), and in some cases social value (Judgment). Many tweets at this event quickly clustered around an even more specific set of signifiers or domains, notably sex, drugs and alcohol, and rock and roll, which were referenced in altogether 26 of 123 company-specific tweets. The same domains also appeared in a half-dozen general tweets about the event, such as "feels like being at a rock concert," "and I thought [it] had been rocking before!" "like Spring Brake [sic] for Silicon Valley - everyone is drunk" "like Excitera on steroids." [note 3]

The idea that frames or situations trigger specific patterns of Appraisal terms was explored in an earlier study of evaluation in celebration reports noted a focus on signifiers of public spectacle (e.g. "impressive," instantiating Appreciation) and enthusiasm (Affect), setting up a distinctive value system (ben-Aaron 2005). In the case at hand, the domains were more of a nonce thing for the particular event, partly cued by stage talk with the tweets covertly quoting and extending jokes from the pitches. Some examples:

[6] Wow, @zonear pitch has developed a lot. Great job! #startupsauna html5 can be sexy

[7] Yodiz is Viagra for software development #startupsauna

[8] @Wavesum taking the rock star attitude to the heart :D #startupsauna #demoday #yodiz

The first two borrowed slogans from the pitches, while the Wavesum presenter played electric guitar; rock mentions naturally reached a peak with that performance. The verb "rock" in its slang extension indicating vigor, mastery, or excitement aroused in others also produced utterances like "Yodiz rocks," "Zonear rocking the stage," and "Wavesum rocks, literally!!!" Making a maiden pitch at Startup Sauna was even compared to "the first gig at Tavastia [a Helsinki music club] for rockers."

3. Discussion and conclusions

Twitter was used to report, evaluate positively, and influence, but it was used hardly at all to critique the pitches. The polar scale of Appraisal in the core data could thus be said to extend from neutral to positive, rather than negative to positive. Explanations could be adduced at several levels. It is regularly observed that the lexicon of enthusiasm is limited and routinized compared to the lexicon of criticism, since dispreferred statements beg argument and mitigation. Thus it makes sense that microblogs of 140 or fewer characters could make more use of positive lexis; additionally, shorter texts are more likely to be retweeted and reused. The constraints of real-time reporting and lingua franca use may further contribute to brevity and reuse of already-present text and domains in the Twitter mode. It should be noted that the #StartupSauna hashtag selected only those tweets containing it. There were other, less findable Twitter streams ongoing for the event, which occasionally penetrated the hashtagged stream through retweets.

Stepping back from the text to discursive practices, positive polarity at a pitching event could be explained by the field and its producer-centered nature. Most attendees were also members of startup projects, offered services such as training or publicity, or aimed to invest in startups; thus any improvements to reputation, whether or not merited, could be seen as shared enrichment. From its experimental beginnings Twitter has rapidly been colonized as a publicity platform for enterprises as well as individuals, and this has created a hybrid public discourse (Erjavec 2004) that fuses promotion and reporting. It has been suggested that the level of promotional discipline at Startup Sauna is not typical of public event Twitter [note 4]. Further study of similar events would be needed to show whether the data are anomalous.

At the level of social and cognitive structuring, the attention-getting lexis like "rocks," "Viagra," "sexy," and "steroids" awakens discourses of physical energy, virility and rebellion. This is congruent with the identification of entrepreneurs as risk-takers (Fairclough 1991) and recurrent themes of "disruption" (Carr 2012) and "passion" in U.S. startup discourse. Values such as experience, age, caution and counsel are not invoked as virtues here; nor is talent. It has been suggested that this kind of stereotypically masculine domain structuring marginalizes women entrepreneurs and others (Jones 2012). However women at this event collaborated in building and reproducing the virility themes. The focus on the excitement of performance, "like a rock concert," rather than product or output, may also arise from an experience-seeking youth milieu. Participants employed Attitude-infused lexis to help reframe the contest as a kind of fraternity party, drawing on the language of entertainment, sport and national rivalry to cloak the gladiatorial exercise of publicly competing for limited career opportunities.

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Notes

- [1] Tweets from the first hour of the event were lost owing to a recording error.
- [2] Some tweets may have come from members of the given teams; this was not always clear.
- [3] A compere skit about porn movie star Ron Jeremy launching a rum distribution company, performed after the pitches, triggered a further 25 tweets; these are part of the total of 280 tweets but not part of the Appraisal analysis.
- [4] Thanks to Ruth Page for critical comment on this; see also boyd 2009.

A Side-by-Side Comparison of Interpersonal Semantics and Interactive Alignment in Conversation

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1. Introduction

In making the case that language-enculturated bonobos were capable of having a conversation with humans, Benson et al (2013) drew parallels between interpersonal semantics (Eggins and Slade 2005, Halliday 2004) and psycholinguistic mechanisms of interactive alignment (Garrod and Pickering 2004, Pickering and Garrod 2004). An explicit side-by-side comparison of interpersonal semantics (IS) and interactive alignment (IA) shows that the two approaches are congruent, but that IS labeling is more systematic, and disambiguates several move types which Pickering and Garrod lump together. Although the corpus used for comparison is small, it is the most extended one Pickering and Garrod use for exemplification of IA. The transcript was labeled for moves in IS, using UAM Corpus Tool, and correlated with IA terms. The definition of labels is included in Benson et al (2013).

2. The essence of the two approaches

2.1 IS refers to the systematic negotiation of interpersonal meanings in dialogue. The system is shared by interactants in conversation as they alternate speaker and listener roles, and is grounded in the here-and-now trajectory of the context of situation (Halliday and Matthiessen 2004). Moves in dialogue are thus both anticipatory and coupled.

The basic unit is the Exchange, in which an Opening move sets the agenda for negotiation. The Exchange terminates when there is a new Open. Exchanges can take two different paths. In the first scenario (Respond), the exchange unfolds smoothly to a conclusion, e.g. when a speaker's Question is coupled with a listener's Answer. In the second scenario (Rejoinder), the conclusion of the exchange is delayed to correct misunderstandings of various kinds. Both scenarios unfold either supportively or confrontationally. In the first scenario for example, instead of Answering a Question, Acknowledging a Statement, Accepting an Offer, or Complying with a Command (Respond & Support), the listener has the option of Contradicting, Withholding, Declining, or Not Complying (Respond & Confront). Similarly, in the second scenario, in the process of clearing up misunderstanding the listener might Resolve a Clarification Request (Rejoinder & Support), but would also have the option of Challenging it (Rejoinder & Confront).

2.2 Interactive alignment (IA) and repair (IR)

Dialogue, unlike monologue, is 'easy' for humans, because of the IA of interlocutors, or of IR when speakers/listeners experience misunderstanding. Automatic, non-conscious priming is 'the mechanism that drives interactive alignment' (Pickering and Garrod 2004: 177). Both IA and IR are therefore manifestations of fast, automatic, non-conscious System 1 processes rather than slower, cognitively effortful System 2 processes (Kahneman 2011). When confusion or misunderstanding interrupts this interactive flow, speakers/listeners invoke the 'interactive repair mechanism' to request clarification and thus to reset alignment: '(1) checking whether one can straightforwardly interpret the input in relation to

one's own representation, and (2) when this fails, reformulating the utterance in a way that leads to the establishment of implicit common ground' (Pickering and Garrod 2004: 179). Such interactive repair is still a System 1 phenomenon; System 2 involvement is required only when there is a serious breakdown in mutual understanding.

IA thus corresponds to the Respond scenario above. This is true even if the listener takes a confrontational stance, such as refusing to Comply with a speaker's Command, since speaker and listener understand each other. Similarly, IR corresponds to the Rejoinder scenario; the Tracking system deals with misunderstandings and misinterpretations, whether or not this happens supportively or confrontationally. The IA account, however, does not explicitly address the issue of confrontation, since it only addresses the co-operative interactions of speakers/listeners.

3. Side-by-side comparison of IS and IA labeling in a conversation

3.1 The corpus for comparison is the transcript of a single conversation in two parts, with a break in between of 28 seconds. The conversation is 'between two players in a cooperative maze game', in which 'one player A is trying to describe his position to his partner B, who is viewing the same maze on a computer screen in another room' (Pickering and Garrod 2004: 171).

3.2 First segment

B initiates the negotiation with one of the four possible Opening moves, a Question: 'Tell me where you are?', which A Answers with 'Right : two along from the bottom one up:'. The coupled moves thus follow the Respond & Support scenario.

Although we might expect the Exchange to be completed, this is not what happens, because B does not fully understand A's Answer. As a result, B launches a series of Tracking Moves; B is out of alignment and invokes IR, and the Exchange continues following the Rejoinder & Support scenario instead of the Respond & Support scenario. At this point, interpersonal semantics labeling diverges from interactive alignment labeling.

Pickering and Garrod's Reformulations (IR) are differentiated by IS as three kinds of Tracking moves: Clarification Request, Confirmation Request, and Probe. The first is an invitation to be more precise, the second an invitation to confirm or disconfirm, and the third is an offer of further details or implications for acceptance, rejection, or modification. Reformulation may or may not involve wording changes. A Probe, by definition, involves re-wording, a Clarify might or might not involve wording changes (cf. 'repetition with additional query' (Pickering and Garrod 2004: 179)), and a Confirm would canonically involve no wording change at all. The Resolve moves paired with the various Tracking moves may or may not involve changes in wording.

There is no fundamental disagreement between the two labeling systems about what is going on in the conversation, but IS analysis brings the Rejoinder & Support scenario into focus with the extended sequence of supportive Tracking moves, as well as the cooperative nature of the dialogue required for the maze task to succeed, although they're not quite there yet.

3.3 Second segment

At the end of the first segment, it was not clear whether or B fully understood A's Answer to B's original Question. When the transcript resumes, the occurrence of more Tracking moves shows that A and B are not yet re-aligned. Pickering and Garrod (2004:179) explain the source of the misunderstanding: 'A interprets two along by counting the boxes on the maze, whereas B is counting the links between the boxes'. The misalignment arose because 'the implicit common ground was faulty'. By the end of the second segment, however, A and B become re-aligned.

Comparison of IS and IA labeling in the second segment continues the Rejoinder & Support scenario. A and B overcome misunderstanding, and successfully negotiate A's location in the maze. As before, Pickering and Garrod's reformulations are differentiated by IS, and distributed in different speaker/listener couplings, with a gain in clarity. Pickering and Garrod leave a number of moves are unlabeled in this segment, which contribute to the successful outcome, and can be labeled in IS.

4. Coupled moves: summary conclusion

The side-by-side comparison shows that IA and IS are complementary approaches. With one minor exception, the conversation unfolds without A Challenging B or vice versa. A and B clearly are working together to achieve alignment, i.e. mutual understanding of A's original, but unsatisfactory Answer. B asks for Clarification, offers suggestions for feedback in

Probes, or asks for Confirmation six times. In each case, A's Resolves or Repairs are coupled with each of B's moves. In the more fine-grained IS labeling, two of A's Repair and Resolve moves are Elaborated and Enhanced. Indeed, when A and B come back into alignment, they Develop each other's moves; they switch from the Rejoinder & Support scenario to the Respond & Support scenario. IS analysis is congruent with the IA/IR analysis, although the IA/IR framework is not designed to take into account of either the Respond & Confront or the Rejoinder & Confront scenarios, which will come into play in quite different conversations.

What the IA approach contributes is the validation of the claim in IS that language in action creates the contexts of situation and culture. This is very similar to the IA view, as expressed by (Bargh 2006: 147) that 'amazing advances in our knowledge of the kinds of psychological concepts and processes that can be primed or put into motion non-consciously', among them 'social norms to guide or channel behavior within the situation'. The take home message is that (a) IS is a flexible tool for the analysis of conversation that is compatible with IA while making a clearer and more fine-grained account of conversation possible, and (b) IA analysis complements IS analysis by revealing the automatic mechanisms which cause such the participants in such a seemingly chaotic negotiation to discover a pathway to alignment, i.e. mutual understanding.

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On Describing Contexts of Situation: a Theoretical View

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Keywords: Context of Situation; system networks; mode; tenor; field

This paper is linked to Hilary Hillier's paper (pp. 73 - 76). It relates to a joint project being carried out by Hilary, Geoff Thompson and myself, which is investigating how two particular people (Hilary and her close friend Ruth) use language in different ways in different contexts of situation (Berry, Thompson and Hillier forthcoming.) Our procedure is as follows. (1) Hilary has provided the data, this consisting of (a) a wide range of texts and (b) her participant's account of the contexts which gave rise to the texts. (2) Hilary and I are now attempting to characterise the contexts in such a way as to bring out the differences in contextual features between them. Hilary (Hillier 2013) is drawing on insights from Gregory and Carroll (1978), Halliday and Hasan (1989) and Hillier (2004). I am drawing on insights from later SFL discussions, particularly the work of Hasan (e.g. 1999 and 2009). (3) Geoff and I will then analyse the texts to see if the contextual features we have identified seem to have influenced the semantic choices that Hilary and Ruth have made. The general hypothesis is that each of the contextual features we have identified will be found to "have left a trace" (Hasan 2009: 176) in the texts in that it does seem to have affected the semantic choices. If this turns out NOT to be the case, we shall of course have to revise our system networks [note 1].

The present paper first reviews insights from Hasan's work that are applicable to our project: e.g. her distinction between 'material situational setting' and 'relevant context' (e.g. 2009: 177-178); her assignment of 'rhetorical modes' to Field rather than to Mode (1999: 270-271 and 281-282); her notion of 'contextual configuration' (e.g. 1999: 232); her argument that descriptions of instances of contexts must go hand in hand with work on the system of context (2009: 175); her argument that it is necessary to draw system networks for context (2009: 185).

The paper then discusses differences between the approach taken in our project and that of Hasan. (i) We are concerned with how speakers and writers construe contexts and how they respond to the contexts they have construed, while Hasan seems more interested in the perspective of the analyst (e.g. 1999: 240). (ii) Hasan (1999: 221) challenges the view that "context is ALWAYS ALREADY THERE even before any speaking has been done" (original emphasis). She acknowledges that there is some truth in this, but draws attention to the "power of language to create context". She seems more interested in aspects of the context that have been created by the language rather than in the aspects of the context that are "already there". We are concerned with both.

The paper distinguishes between 'pre-text relevant contextual features' (i.e. already there features) and 'via-text relevant contextual features' (i.e. features created by the language). For instance, for our telephone conversation, as soon as Hilary picks up the phone, the language event is to be a spoken language event, in the sense that communication is to be by voice rather than by marks on a page/computer screen/etc. This feature is inherent in the nature of the language event, i.e. it is already there. Another such already there feature is 'interactants not co-present'. Again this is something inherent in the nature of a telephone conversation, not something that only comes into being as a result of the language that Hilary and Ruth use. On the other hand the feature 'change social distance' is a via-text feature created by the language. For instance in one of our letters Ruth is giving Hilary permission to use their conversations as data. In a covering note Ruth indicates that she is writing more formally than she normally would to Hilary given the normal social distance that characterises their friendship. She is temporarily by the way she writes changing the social distance between them, as she knows the letter may be read by others besides Hilary.

The paper considers the advisability of paying attention to both these types of feature. The hypothesis is that both types influence the semantic choices that speakers and writers make.

After discussing these theoretical points, the paper then applies the relevant distinctions to the contexts of our data, organising the discussion under the traditional SFL headings of Mode, Tenor and Field. System networks are provided under each of these headings.

The discussion of Tenor draws on the Hasan Tenor network presented in Bowcher (1999: 153). The discussion of hierarchical relations draws on Berry (1981a, 1981b and 1987). The discussion of Mode draws more generally on SFL accounts of Mode.

The paper admits that the discussion of Field is more ad hoc than the discussion of Mode and Tenor. It is suggested that what is wanted is for more people to provide detailed analyses of the Fields of particular sets of data. It is hoped that in this way general patterns will emerge which will lead to better motivated descriptions.

Contextual features discussed include:

Mode: spoken/written, +co-present/-co-present, spontaneous/planned, hand-written/typewriter-written/computer-written, +interactive/-interactive, immediate/delayed.

Tenor (social distance): one-to-one/one-to-many, +secondary addressees/-secondary addressees, frequent interaction/infrequent interaction, wide range of interaction/narrow range of interaction, accept social distance/change social distance, reduce social distance/ increase social distance.

Tenor (hierarchical relations): equal general knowledge/unequal general knowledge, speakerwriter=PRIMARY KNOWER/speakerwriter=SECONDARY KNOWER, equal specific knowledge/unequal specific knowledge, speaker1=primary knower/speaker2=primary knower.

Field: +personal purpose/-personal purpose, +professional purpose/-professional purpose, transferring knowledge/negotiating action, exchanging knowledge/informing, social activity/academic activity, maintaining relationship/establishing relationship, introducing people to field/demonstrating competence in field.

The paper concludes with a consideration of Hasan's plea for "checkable criteria" for descriptions of context (2009: 179), and indicates the directions our project is taking towards developing such criteria.

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Notes

[1] A revised version of this paper is to appear in Bowcher and Liang (forthcoming).

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The Digital Surgery: The Language of Online Medical Information on Terminal Illness

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Keywords: prognosis; death; SFL; semanticisation; metaphor

This paper is concerned with the lexicogrammar of death and life, focusing in particular on the language used in online medical information on the prognosis of diseases. In it, I discuss some work on the language of living and dying and raise questions about how social context influences the construal of sensitive human experiences.

Specifically, I consider ways in which information relating to life-limiting illness is conveyed to patients in doctor-patient discourse on health information websites. This is a significant communication issue, not only because of patient sensitivity, but also for practical reasons affecting treatment and care. For example, applications to the Benefits Agency for certain allowances require applicants to state whether they are suffering from a 'terminal illness', a term with a variety of definitions and one which may well be misunderstood by patients. Health professionals are often understandably reluctant to commit themselves to predictions of limited life span because prognoses are dependant on such issues as the interpretation of statistics, variability in treatment and care, and individual life style. Traditionally, such information, if given at all, was conveyed in face to face discussion in the doctor's surgery. In Britain and elsewhere, medical consultation has been a site of considerable research as we can see from such publications as Balint (1957), Byrne and Long (1994), Greenhalgh and Hurtwitz (1998) among others. Such personal consultations allow for exchange of ideas and the sharing of hesitancy and doubt, but nowadays these verbal exchanges are often supplemented by written information from websites. Reports indicate that over 56% of people world wide (and more in the UK) get health information online, sometimes from unreliable sources.

In this research I compare website accounts of potentially terminal illnesses, specifically those sections that discuss the prognosis of a disease. These sites include ones provided by charities such as Macmillan Cancer Charity and explanatory texts of an encyclopedic nature, such as Wikipedia. I discuss the variation in terminology and possibilities for misinterpretation in the light of the General Medical Council's initiative 'Good Medical Practice in Action'. I also report on a small amount of data from face-to-face doctor-patient interaction concerning limited life expectancy in personal stories published online, and point to differences and similarities in the presentation and discussion of medical information in face to face and online communication. I do not, however, consider so-called 'ask-the-expert' healthcare websites which have been discussed elsewhere (for example, Pounds 2013).

A wide variety of metaphors can be observed in the discussion of terminal illness online. It is well established that literary metaphor has long played an important lexical role in the language of death and dying and there has been some debate about preferences in metaphorical choice for different contexts (for example, family talk, religious ceremony, medical discussion, obituary, etc.). While acknowledging earlier research contributions on metaphor in discourses of death (for example, Bultnick (1998) and Crespo (2006), this paper focuses on the use of metaphor used in the end of life context on medical websites and draws attention to the current widespread preference for positive language, such as the use of the 'survival rate' for a disease rather than the 'death rate'.

The research is conducted within a framework of discourse analysis and systemic functional linguistics, following Halliday's work on the grammar of pain (1998) and the body of work on scientific language (for example, Halliday and Martin 1993). Halliday has stressed the many different ways in which human experience is semanticised and the diversity of lexicogrammatical environments in which forms occur. From his data, he classifies pain as falling into five representational categories with ten process-participant variations. Following in part his method of analysis, this paper classifies the construal of 'living' and 'dying' in our data into four representational categories with eleven process-participant variations. Thus, in the discussion of terminal illness and death, we find not only the traditional metaphorical euphemisms which reconstruct end of life in terms of journeys, battles, loss, rest and reward, for example, but also the relatively low frequency of personal reference and the use of grammatical metaphor. While this increases linguistic potential and offers the speaker/writer more choice, it inevitably leads to a certain amount of indeterminacy in discourse. The possibility of ambiguity in grammatical metaphors is illustrated from Halliday and Matthiessen's (2004) work on this aspect of metaphor as well as from the online medical data. This indeterminacy becomes greater with increased semantic space between participants in the discourse. In

this paper, it is argued that this may cause serious communication problems when patients depend on online communication on sensitive issues concerning health, because of the social, educational and physical distance between the expert producers of many such sites and the readership. I illustrate how this particular problem is exacerbated when patients access expert to expert sites via links from sites prepared for lay readers.

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“Making one’s own news”: Readers’ News-Making Potential in Online Newspapers

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Keywords: online newspapers; multimodality; meaning potential; speech and writing

1. Introduction

Newspapers have been deeply transformed in the process of going online. The transition from printed newspapers to online news sites has affected the entire process of producing, accessing, and perceiving news, accelerating hybridization of the genres involved and raising many issues as regards the activities of representing, construing and experiencing news (Bednarek and Caple 2012). A case in point is the possibility for readers to comment and express opinions on online articles in the comments-on-the-article sections of news sites or via links to social networks (Facebook, Twitter etc.). These possibilities involve readers in news-making activities, empowering them in terms of opinion-making (Cambria 2011).

The digital era of new media – Facebook, YouTube, online newspaper blogging, among others – are reconfiguring the political communication ecology of political elites. Communication networks in politics have been traditionally founded in the principle of political power (Wolfsfeld 2011) which renders political elites open access to media coverage and places politicians in a superior position to get their messages across.

But who are the Participants in those texts? What types of discourses are used in the comments? How do oral and written modes interact (Halliday 1978, 2002[1987]) in the comments? A combined systemic functional linguistics and multimodal corpus-assisted approach (Baldry and Thibault 2006) is used in this extended abstract to analyse the lexicogrammatical features of texts used in article comments published in two quality newspaper sites (www.guardian.co.uk and www.irishtimes.com) in 2012 vis-à-vis the issue of immigration. First the main characteristics of the Participants in the comments are illustrated and then, the presence in the written comments of features generally associated with oral discourse such as conversation-launching devices are considered. The newspapers selected are both national newspapers, have similar political affiliations and, despite their great differences in reader numbers, are representative of a good section of British and Irish readerships. Both have extremely user-friendly online formats.

2. Corpus construction and methodology

Web texts and genres are evolving rapidly and are increasingly difficult to process systematically (Cambria et al. 2012). The possibility of examining the Web and its genres as a corpus of meaning-making units which transcend the word level and which can be used to design and reshape meanings is thus an essential prerequisite in online news genre analysis, and in particular the possibility for readers to contribute to the meaning-making process.

Several hurdles had to be overcome when creating a corpus from online resources. The analysis had to characterize and quantify the type-token distribution and, at the same time, to collect intertextual data about the comments: their links to photos, audio or video files or other hyperlinks. Finally, a check needed to be carried out as to whether a paragraph or a specific line was in any way related to a photo, a link or any other or illuminating co-text of a multimodal nature (Baldry 2007) e.g. at its simplest the expression “this is upsetting” supported by an ironic and co-textual emoticon. This data, which clearly puts forward the need for mini-genre analysis, requires further steps towards understanding the whole meaning-making process i.e. taking the analysis beyond a string of words and, in this way, moving into the discourse level (Baldry and O’Halloran 2010).

The corpus construction process, on which this extended abstract is based, went through several stages. The first was a search for the word “immigration”, followed by a type-token relationship i.e. identifying articles which contained the word immigration in the context of headlines for 2012 in the two online newspapers mentioned above whose search engines generated a list of articles published in 2012 containing the word “immigration”. Each item in the list indicated the title of article, the date of publication, the name of the author, the first lines of the main body of the article and the number of comments posted. However, further offline editing was needed to complete the task. The second step was thus to create txt. files containing the readers’ comments to the articles permitting searches to be carried out for features of speech and writing

in the two corpora (one for www.guardian.co.uk and one for www.irishtimes.com) and to crosscheck frequency ratios with the BNC. Two text-comment subcorpora were thus created: one of over 400,000 words (www.guardian.co.uk) and another of over 100,000 (www.irishtimes.com). Pictures, avatars, videos and links were analysed separately and above all systematically.

As stated above, the purpose of the present study is to examine the presence in the written comments of features generally associated with oral discourse. The approach to Participants' analysis was in terms of metafunctions. Halliday's experiential meaning was interpreted in terms of the world as categories of experience so the experiential metafunction was construed as realising a part-whole structure based on the principle of constituency: a given unit (i.e. a Participant) has a function in a larger whole. His notion of interpersonal metafunction was construed as concerned with language as interaction (speech acts, dialogic moves), the expression of attitudinal and evaluative orientation (modality) and the taking-up and negotiating of particular subjective positions in discourse. It was taken as being expressed by field-like prosodies and as scopal in character (i.e. declarative, interrogative sentences) and as having to do with the relationship between the reader and people, events and objects. In the case of the articles containing comments article readers who become users of the comments tool which has the special property of turning them into opinion makers.

Recent literature rightly addresses the standard division between speech and writing showing how the boundaries between categories usually associated to speech and writing are collapsing (Sindoni 2013). Even so, Web 2.0 with its plethora of possibilities for commenting and offering comments on facts and events does show a difference in their use. Once we move away from an analysis of constructed sentences to 'real' language, past approaches to grammatical analysis are often found wanting (Biber 1988). This is particularly the case for spoken language and especially conversation where false starts, hesitations and reformulations are the norm (Carter and McCarthy 1997). Features generally associated with oral discourse such as the use of mental verbs, often with first and second person are characteristic of the interactive character of conversation. Speakers' reference to their own and their interlocutors' mental processes is a manifestation of the higher emotional load of conversation than of typical writing, which is informative in character. The use of mental or 'private' verbs is another sign of speakers' involvement. It is certainly no accident that mental verbs collocate with negation, which adds to the emotional character of what is said.

3. Data analysis and conclusion

Data from the two corpora show that the comments seem to struggle between the planned and unplanned writing. Usually speakers must cope with production and planning at the same time and sometimes resort to repeating the same item over and over again while searching for new linguistic material. In the comments analysed, one common strategy is the repetition of other people's opinion in order to make one's point clear and direct. Unlike a real face-to-face conversation, the Participant in the comment-making-activity has to make a sort of summary of the point s/he disagrees with, either by quoting directly in the post or by rephrasing some other commentators' comments. Repetition of one's point of view via the response to posts is also often used more or less consciously as a floor-holding device, or entirely deliberately, for emphasis (Biber et al. 1999). Multiple steps in data collection and analysis are required to carry out genre-related analysis. The analysis carried out in relation to this corpus of online newspaper readers' comments largely confirms our expectations that the boundaries between speech and writing are crumbling in Web 2.0 environments.

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Fast food grammar? Extending progressive aspect to mental processes to construe currency

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Keywords: progressive aspect; present tense; transitivity; mental process types; diachronic grammatical change

In 2004, McDonalds began telling the world they were "loving it". In doing so, their advertising team tapped into a relatively recent and increasingly popular grammatical change. As Halliday (e.g. Halliday 1994: 173) has shown, one grammatical distinction supporting a semanticised transitivity description is the unmarked present tense form of the verb phrase. For 'material' and 'verbal' processes, this is progressive '-ing', but it is simple for 'mental' and 'relational' processes (Martin, Matthiessen and Painter 1997: 118); hence:

"I think Tom won" not "I am thinking Tom won"*; and
"He appears to be nice" not "He is appearing to be nice"*.

This paper undertakes an initial corpus study into the marked use of progressive aspect ('-ing') present tense mental process clauses (e.g. "at the moment I am remembering Marjorie Perlott saying the same thing"; "she is LOVING her new place"; "I'm hoping that it will now bear fruit"; etc.), taking the mental process verbs 'hope' and 'hear' as its case studies. The first section of the paper charts the frequency of the present progressive for the aforementioned verbs in *The Corpus of Historical American English (CoHAE)*, a four-hundred million word historical corpus comprised of a range of popular text genres of American English from the early nineteenth century to the present day (Davies 2012). Given its sub-corpus structure, *CoHAE* allows for the study of the present progressive with 'hope' and 'hear' across decade periods from the 1810s to the first decade of the twenty first century (ibid). This investigation establishes the proportionally increased usage of 'hope' and 'hear' in the present progressive and increasingly so as time moves towards the present day. This can be seen from Tables 1 and 2 below with reference to 'hope' and 'hear' respectively.

Sub-corpus	Proportional frequency (instances per 1 million words)
1810s	0
1820s	0
1830s	0.44
1840s	0.06
1850s	0.25
1860s	0.35
1870s	0.21
1880s	0.43
1890s	0.85
1900s	0.93
1910s	1.77
1920s	2.15
1930s	2.17
1940s	1.86
1950s	2.46
1960s	2.84
1970s	2.90
1980s	4.57
1990s	5.81
2000s	7.06

Table 1: Present tense progressive with 'hope' in CoHAE

Sub-corpus	Proportional frequency (instances per 1 million words)
1810s	0
1820s	0.29
1830s	0.07
1840s	0.06
1850s	0.25
1860s	0.12
1870s	0.27
1880s	0.10
1890s	0.33
1900s	0.40
1910s	0.66
1920s	0.66
1930s	1.02
1940s	1.16
1950s	1.56
1960s	1.46
1970s	2.40
1980s	2.07
1990s	2.65
2000s	2.82

Table 2: Present tense progressive with 'hear' in CoHAE

Having established the diachronically increased usage of the aforementioned progressive present tense mental processes, the paper then proceeds to study the same processes in the present day *UK Web as Corpus (UKWaC)*, an approximately two billion word corpus comprised of data from .uk web domains circa 2007 (Ferraresi, Zanchetta, Baroni and Bernardini 2008). *UKWaC* renders a much larger dataset of examples of the phenomenon under study. The central claim of the present paper is that language users often adopt the marked progressive form for present tense mental process clauses so as to construe semantics of what I shall call, for want of a better word, 'currency'; that is, to emphatically represent events under discussion as current in the here and now. One form of evidence supporting this claim is the prominence of words which index time generally and, therein, present time specifically (e.g. 'new', 'now' and 'moment') within the collocational profiles of each 'hope' and 'hear' when present progressive in form; this being particularly apparent in the case of 'hope' owing to a larger dataset of instances (see Table 3 below). In this way, the expression of semantic 'currency' is coloured as a motif across the clause; as per Sinclair's (1991) criticisms of the traditional 'one word, one meaning' thesis on semantics, we should expect as much.

	Freq.	T-score	MI				
this ^[note1]	322	17.380	4.992	<i>continued from 'just'...</i>			
new	100	9.648	4.828	last	22	4.393	3.981
Here	79	8.854	8.007	even	21	4.268	3.866
next	59	7.548	5.854	again	20	4.267	4.449
here	56	7.280	5.200	future	19	4.191	4.702
time	51	6.625	3.790	once	18	4.108	4.981
these	42	6.072	3.988	start	16	3.831	4.568
now	38	5.789	4.037	week	13	3.402	4.147
years	30	5.061	3.718	still	13	3.237	3.292
day	29	5.092	4.197	really	12	3.190	3.660
soon	29	5.306	6.081	continue	12	3.347	4.892
season	27	5.130	6.287	moment	11	3.234	5.324
first	24	4.336	3.120	recent	11	3.176	4.557
become	24	4.752	5.060	only	11	2.416	1.881
just	22	4.208	3.281	release	11	3.244	5.512

Table 3: Currency collocates for '[BE-present] hoping that' in UKWaC [note 2]

The provision of examples permits inter-coder reliability confidence regarding collocates' membership to the acclaimed semantic group where this is lacking in the artificial view provided by the collocation list alone. Prior to such renewal-of-connection with the data (Firth 1957), even sympathetic readers may question the logic of some of the membership analysis here (e.g. 'first', 'next', 'really', 'only', 'even', 'again', 'one', 'years', 'day', 'season', etc.). The concordance view should allay such fears; for example, with respect to 'first', 'really' and 'years' [note 3]:

first:

Very squeally and not very powerful are the **first** impressions, I'm hoping that'll sort itself out after a few rides, some sheen on the pads or some such bollocks.

That is when we will *begin* to really find out what is going on with it. Obviously, I'm hoping that it is the **first** answer.

The Farewell brooches are due in stock *this week*, and they also are hoping that they will send the **first** batch sometime *this week*, but no promises!

The popular Englishman will be hoping that he can *become* the **first** of his countrymen since Nick Faldo in 1992 to lift the Claret Jug.

really:

so far Carolyn Leckie, Alex Neil, Tony Lewis Phil Gallie have all confirmed they will attend and put their parties position on Local Government Pensions. We **really** are hoping that between the 3 branches we can get a fantastic turnout and show the strength of feeling behind *this* issue.

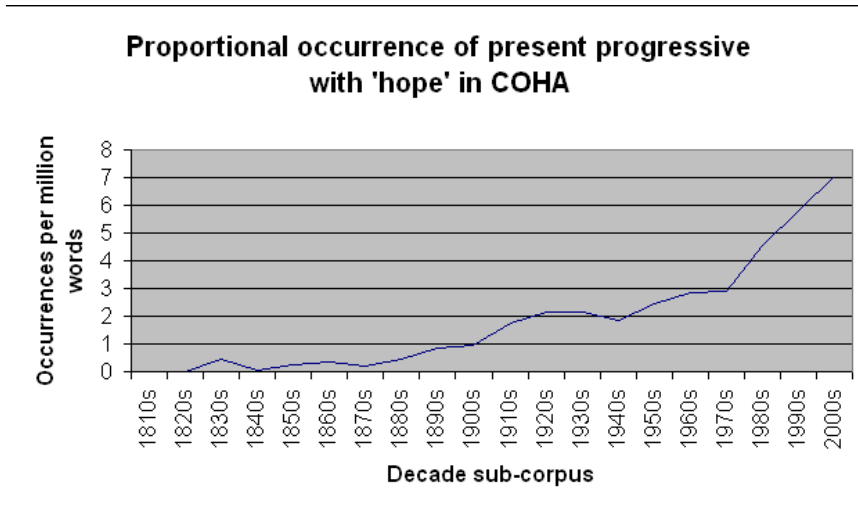
we do not have people who are or have been already involved in the College who are able to take up the opportunity." added Mr. Perkins "I **really** am hoping that Fylde will not go into *next year* without a Principal

years:

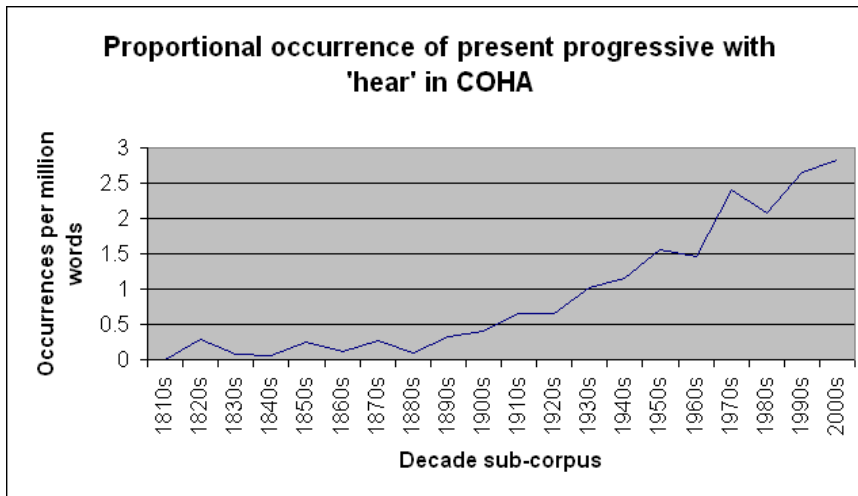
Theorists at Ohio State and elsewhere are hoping that in *coming years* the LFTD approach will help to solve a number of problems in nuclear physics and particle physics.

With UK grain stores full of a harvest worth a fraction of its value in *recent years* Mr Tunnard is hoping that Ginseng will be the key to a healthy profit.

Returning to the paper's central claim that the present progressive is used with mental process clauses to construe events as emphatically current in the here and now, a qualification need now be made. Taking the historical perspective again, the aforementioned semantic motive may, of course, not be a user's conscious reasoning in their recourse to this structure. An analogy may be drawn to processes like grammatical fossilisation and delexicalisation. Common across such processes is that language users' initial motives give way to linguistic behaviour which is largely without intention and therefore routine. Likewise, it may be plausible to suggest that the semantic pressures on the use of the present progressive with mental processes may have been greater at the feature's historical emergence than they are now with the structure, arguably, having settled somewhat into the English grammatical system. In this contention, the initial diachronic evidence suggests the period between the 1960s and 1980s is important. This is revealed more clearly when Tables 1 and 2 above are re-presented as Graphs 1 and 2 below. Future research on this topic may well benefit by comparing the collocational profile for this structure during its apparent proliferate emergent period of the 1960s-1980s with the collocational profile of its use in a present day corpus. I would hypothesise that 'currency' collocates would be notably more prominent in the former than they would in the latter.



Graph 1: Present tense progressive with 'hope' in COHAE



Graph 2: Present tense progressive with 'hear' in COHAE

Furthermore, this last observation may hint at explanations for the trends noted in this paper from the perspective of context. Two initial theories warrant further investigation in future research on this topic. Berry (2013) hypothesises a non-coincidental relationship between the above emergent 'peak' of present progressive mental process clauses and the introduction of the first dedicated live news media occurring at the same time. Extending the logic of Berry's (ibid) hypothesis, live news media have allowed press outlets to further attend to the 'recency' value of newsworthiness (cf. Gatlung and Ruge 1965; Bell 1991). With this augmented ability to cater for the recency news value, one would consequently expect to find in the language of such live news media the increased semantic and grammatical expression of recency, or 'currency' as I here call it. As a different contextual explanation for the increased occurrence of present progressive mental clauses, Halliday (2013) points to the increase in auto-biographical literature as seen during the 1960s-1980s period in question. Following Halliday's suggestion, the expression of the self, including the expression of one's inner experiences and feelings, is likely to be prominent in texts with such first-person present delivery of accounts. In turn, we may expect to see a preference for present progressive mental clauses in relaying one's history first hand.

While more research must be conducted to explore the above potential contextual explanations, more generally this paper serves to illustrate that users seek to convey new meanings with their language and that one evident way to achieve this goal is by extending modes of grammatical expression. As Davidse (1991: 291) has previously identified, the trend of grammatical extension from the relatively paradigmatic-rich realm of material transitivity to its mental counterpart is a fruitful means by which to evolve the grammatical system of English.

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Notes

- [1] Emboldened collocates denote present time references specifically. Unemboldened collocates refer to time references otherwise.
- [2] Note that Hunston (2002: 71-72) has suggested that a collocate which has a t-score greater than 2 and an MI-score in excess of 3 should be considered to have a significant relationship with the search term in question.
- [3] The examples which follow are formatted as follows: the present progressive mental process is underlined; the currency collocate under focus is emboldened; and as and when other currency collocates appear in the examples provided, these are italicised.
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How Right is Winter's Discontent: Vocabulary Three, Four, and Upwards in Corpora Tagged for Logical Relations

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Keywords: conjunction; corpus linguistics; tagging; rhetorical structure theory; vocabulary 3

1. Vocabulary three

It has been understood since Winter (1977, 1978) that conjunctive language is not confined to conjuncts and subordinators. This paper sets out to show how research using twin digital methods of tree diagrams of coherence structure, and analysis of KWIC concordances, can permit observation of exactly which, and how wide a range, of language types and structures are used in conjunction.

Winter (1977) argued that conjunctive language should include not only closed class items like subordinators, e.g. 'because' (which he called vocabulary 1, or V1) and sentence connectors, e.g. 'therefore' (vocabulary 2, or V2), but also a large number of open class items. He called such items vocabulary 3 (or V3). Winter did not dwell on the meanings and functions of V3 as opposed to those of V1 and V2, concentrating instead on V3's formal and semantic characteristics. In formal terms, V3 consists of verbs, such as 'cause', nouns such as 'addition', and adjectives such as 'analogous'.

Semantically, each V3 item is related to a V2 item with the same conjunctive function. V3 items are closed class in being semantically vacant anaphoric or cataphoric substitutes that require lexical realisation, e.g. "The cause often lies in stupidity or muddle" (Winter 1977: 74-5).

The concept of V3 as conjunctive signals depended on the existence of a functional set of conjunctive relations, which were described by his colleague Crombie (1985a,b – see Winter 1978: 85) – but Winter did not enquire into the precise functions of V3 items as logical relations signals. Further explorations of V3, concentrating on substitution nouns (Halliday and Hasan 1976, Tadros 1985, Francis 1986/1994, Ivanic 1991, Flowerdew 2003), similarly did not place emphasis on V3 logical relational functions.

2. Research aims and method

The research reported here aimed to investigate conjunctive language and its functions in two 65,000 word corpora of argumentative writing – an expert corpus (the corpus of research articles, non-empirical, or CRANE) and the advanced learner corpus of argumentative student essays (ALCASE). The corpora were tagged for logical relation functions and were designed to be searchable by KWIC concordancers. The logical relations system used for tagging, equivalent to the Crombie system, is Rhetorical Structure Theory, or RST (Mann and Thompson 1988, Taboada and Mann 2006, 2006a). RST, which is part of Matthiessen's system of English meanings (Matthiessen 1995, Stuart-Smith 2007: 48), is a theory of how each relation between each discourse unit serves the author's purpose in contributing to the meaning in its own way (Mann and Thompson 2000/2001, Taboada and Mann 2006a). In terms of conjunction, RST theorises the pre-realisation rhetorical functions that cohesive markers express.

3. Conjunctive relations: a digital view

The tagged corpora were obtained by conversion from digitally structured tree diagrams representing the coherence of texts. The diagrams were built using the RST Tool (the methodology is fully described in Cresswell, in press). The tree diagrams that the RST Tool constructs are XML files, so building tree diagrams is equivalent to the digitalisation of coherence.

There are several advantages of this method for researchers investigating conjunctive relations. In linear text, the researcher's attention is naturally confined to adjacent clauses, and the identification of longer distance relations (vertical or horizontal) relies on memory. But when building RST diagrams, one is forced by the RST Tool to constantly consider all levels of text organisation from the clause upwards, otherwise the diagram, which is hierarchical in structure, cannot be completed. Furthermore, the program permits scrolling back and forth, which facilitates the identification of relations between (possibly distant) text macro-sections (beyond the clause complex) e.g. problem-solution patterns. Overall, the digitally-organised

graphic view of text organisation in the RST Tool makes judgements about the classification of conjunctive relations depend more on the visual juxtaposition of semantic content in different discourse units and less on the identification of pre-assumed formal signals.

4. V3: Digitalisation for functional classification

To reveal conjunctive language for analysis, the tagged corpora were searched using KWIC Concordancers, using the logical relation name as the search term. This second type of digital viewing presents multi-level information about logical relations. Thus RST-tagged text macro-sections, clause complexes, dependent and independent clauses can be seen together with lexicogrammar and syntax. In other words, the logical relations – the functions - are shown together with their realisations, permitting a functional rather than form-based identification of conjunctive language. This in turn means that all the conjunctive language signalling a given logical relation can be observed. In CRANE, this process revealed high proportions of relation statements to which V3 was key – 58% in antithesis, 23% in concession, 21% in evidence, 27% in reinforcement, and 19% in replacive (for relation definitions see Cresswell 2013).

5. Digital observations: V3 categories and patterns, V3+

Digital viewing in the form of KWIC concordances also permits the combination of syntagmatic and paradigmatic analysis (Tognini-Bonelli, 2004:18). This in turn allows the sorting (using the 'set' column in 'Concord' (Scott 2011)) that facilitates classification into semantico-syntactic V3 categories and patterns. A large number were observed - in antithesis, for example, there were ten major V3 categories, including counter-factive adjectives (in 19% of relation statements) and counter-factive verbs (in 8%).

Many semantico-syntactic patterns observed in CRANE involved similar expressions of the notion of factivity (Thompson and Ye 1991). Insofar as words about factivity communicate information about the writer's view of truth status, they can be argued to have semantic content; a counter-factive verb such as 'ignore' signalling antithesis does not need further lexical (as opposed to syntactic) realisation, unlike the noun 'cause'. So it seems that some V3 is not as semantically vacant as Winter thought. Perhaps, in that case, conjunctive language that is not V1 or V2, and that has semantic content, should be called V4, or, to convey the added semantic element, V3+.

Turning now to patterns, the paradigmatic grouping of regularities observed syntagmatically in the concordance lines permitted the identification of patterns around V3 words – for example, for evidence, there was 'NounPhrase (optional adverb)//Evidential verb (optional adverb)// complementiser', e.g. "arguments presented here suggest that...."

A fair number of V2/V3/V3+ conjunctive language patterns was found in CRANE overall, spread across the relations as follows: antithesis (12), replacive (3), concession (11), evidence (11) and reinforcement (1).

6. Conjunctive language and context

Winter (1977: 45): accounted for variation between vocabulary 1 and 2 by context, by which he meant intended shift of theme or focus of information. But contexts of variation of V3, or of the variation between V1 or V2 on the one hand and V3 or V3+ on the other, remain unanswered questions. The digitalised presentation of conjunction via concordances allows us to attempt answers to these questions, by observing repeated examples of variation between exponents of the same logical linking function (whether these items are V1, V2, V3 or V3+) in the light of variation of context of use.

Analysis of contexts of V1, V2 and V3/V3+ in the five conjunctive relations studied suggested a multidimensional contextual model to account for the role of context in conjunctive language choices, along the lines of Lemke's (1995) metaredundancy theory. It seems that exponents for each relation are chosen along with combinations of meta-orientation (community, intertextual, or both), extra-textual orientation (e.g. authoritative, objectivising) and (more on Winter's lines) intra-text theme and focus (content or organisation oriented). Table 1 contains examples that show how the model can account for variations in choice between different V1, V2 and V3 forms and patterns, thus filling in the account of context that Winter left open.

Conjunctive relation	Meta-orientation	Pragmatic (extra-textual) function	Pragmatic (textual) function (theme/focus)	Language node / pattern
Evidence	community	Integrative (writer backgrounded)	focus on content; claim thematised	for (subordinator) (V1)
		Integrative (writer backgrounded)	focus on content; evidence thematised	then, therefore, thus: medial positioning (V2)
	community and intertextual	authoritative	emphasis on cited support	(in order) to // evidential verb (determinative) (V3) // evidential noun (V3)

Table 1: Multidimensional choice of conjunctive language (examples)

7. Conclusions

The research reported here shows two ways in which a digital view of data can help develop the understanding of the formal variety of conjunctive language that was observed by Winter. First, viewing conjunctive language digitally through the RST Tool permits the viewing of texts top-down to see relational functions in context with each other (not just the adjacent ones). This enables the reader to use the visible juxtaposition of discourse units to identify conjunctive relations, a more objective method than relying on formal clues alone. Secondly, using concordances to view meso-level functions (conjunctive relations) adjacent to the language used to signal them permits identification first of a wide variety of vocabulary 3, and second of language patterns with conjunctive function, as well as a more detailed and complete examination of the context of conjunctive language variation.

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Interpreting Method of Development within a Large Corpus

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Keywords: discourse; corpus; method of development; Theme; Rheme

'Method of development' is a term introduced into Systemic Functional Linguistics by Peter Fries (1981/83, 1992, 1994) to describe the roles played by the Themes and Rhemes of clauses in the logogenetic development of information in discourse. The language of Themes is predicted to be rich in markers of topical continuity, for example, presuming reference items, and also rich in markers of discursual variation, for example, conjunctive Adjuncts. Rhemes are predicted to be rich in lexical variation, serving the development of successive points in the discourse. This theory has had both supporters, particularly in its development by Jim Martin in *English Text* (1992: 434-448) and Christian Matthiessen in *Lexicogrammatical Cartography* (1995: 575-590) - and some detractors. The purpose of this paper is to test the theory by tabulating the distribution of continuity and variation markers within the clauses of various text types in a large corpus: the British Component of the International Corpus of English. Comparison of different proportions of continuity and variation markers in Themes and Rhemes through a whole spectrum of text types will permit the identification of some texts which are really contrastive in their respective methods of development.

In some previous studies (Cummings 2004, 2005, 2006, 2009a, 2009b) I have attempted to quantify the distribution of continuity markers like presuming reference between Theme and Rheme based on an analysis of particular short texts. The method was to identify chains of presuming reference items all having or being connected with the same referent. A quantificational analysis of the language of Theme and Rheme based on a computational analysis of a large corpus could not hope to distinguish reference chains, but could measure simple distributions of different language features between the two clause functions. The work of Douglas Biber (1988; 1995; Biber and Conrad 2009) offers a multidimensional analysis of the distributions of associated language features through a variety of different text types. Information about presuming reference can be interpreted from his results for the relative distributions of deictics and proforms. However his studies permit only comparisons among whole registers, not between contrasting parts of clauses within different register types. A more applicable approach has been taken by a method-of-development sceptic, Peter Crompton, in a study of two related text types, student essays and newspaper editorials, amounting to a corpus of 23,000 words (2008, 2009). His results purport to show that while there is a strong statistical significance in the disproportion of definite nominal groups within Themes, nevertheless there is no complementary association of indefinite nominal groups within Rhemes.

The approach here broadens the analysis to include an entire standard corpus, and tabulates both presuming reference items and discourse markers, the latter including conjunctions, conjunctive Adjuncts, and continuatives. The British Component of the International Corpus of English (or 'ICE') includes 32 different spoken and written text types comprising 500 separate texts containing over 1 million words (Survey of English Usage 2013). It is not coded on systemic-functional terms but tagged with part-of-speech labels and grammatical structure labels, and the sentences or sentence fragments parsed as logical tree structures. One search procedure is to use the ICE-CUP software to edit a generalized tree-diagram template ('fuzzy tree fragment', or 'FTF') matching some desired structure, and inspecting the matches in the output. This search procedure is used here to emulate the terms and approaches of systemic functional linguistics.

One example of such a search is intended to establish the number of thematic discourse markers per clause in all the different text types. This category includes continuatives, conjunctive Adjuncts, and conjunctions. The search is limited to non-interrogative main clauses, and to discourse markers occurring before the Subject element.

A more complicated set of searches seeks to establish the proportions of presuming reference items between Theme and Rheme. Searches were for presuming reference noun- or pronoun-headed nominal group realizations before, as the Subject, or after the Subject. The results show that for the whole corpus, more than 80% of such items occur before or as the Subject element. The same output data can also be used to calculate the density of presuming reference items before or as the Subject element, that is, the number of such items per clause, for each of the text types. For example, the density of thematic presuming reference items for telephone calls is about 83 for every 100 main clauses, whereas the density for press editorials is about 43 for every 100 main clauses.

The numerical results can be organized to show rankings of the different text types in each of the search categories. The highest density of thematic discourse markers belongs to broadcast interviews at almost 54 discourse markers per 100 clauses, whereas the lowest density, for administrative and regulatory prose, is just over 3 per 100 clauses. Every spoken text type outranks every written text type. The highest density of thematic presuming reference belongs to legal cross-examinations, at 83 items per 100 clauses. The lowest belongs to academic writing in the natural sciences, with less than 32 items per 100 clauses. In the middle ranks, some written text types outrank some spoken text types, but most spoken text types outrank most written text types. The text type with the highest proportion of presuming reference items before or as, rather than after, the Subject element is business letters, at about 85%, and the lowest is spontaneous commentaries at about 67%. Written and spoken registers are rather less distinguished than with the other two indices.

These three indices were selected in hopes that they might reveal text types that are consistently very contrastive in thematic features, and thus, perhaps, in types of their methods of development. One good bet would seem to be 'skills and hobbies' which is second from the bottom in each of two indices, although 10th from the bottom the third. At the high ends of each scale, one might pick out at least two or three types with similarly consistent rankings, such as 'telephone calls' and 'broadcast interviews' and the latter was chosen as potentially more interesting.

In each of these two text types, an arbitrary selection of text was made. The text selected from broadcast interviews is a transcription of a BBC 4 broadcast. The other text is from The Complete Book of Video. The interview text hits the jackpot with a higher density of thematic discourse markers and a higher density of thematic presuming reference than the average of any of the text types, including its own. The book text has a discourse marker density just higher than the average for its own text type, but a presuming reference density which is significantly higher than that of its own text type. However the percentage of presuming reference items before or as the Subject element in the interview text is much less than that of its own text type, while that for the book text is just slightly below that of its own type.

The general organization of the interview text is governed by the interventions and reactions respectively of speaker 'A', the interviewer, and speaker 'B', the interviewee. 'A' prompts the discussion in the first discourse unit, refocuses it in later units. 'B' essentially monologues in response to these prompts. The discourse keeps tightly focussed on a narrow range of persons, mainly speaker 'B' herself and her medically-challenged child, less so on other children and the unfeeling medical 'they'. The method of development in the monologue sections is characterized by explicit marking of micro-stages with abundant conjunctions, conjunctive Adjuncts and continuatives introducing short clauses, and by a topical continuity through very long reference chains -- mainly realized with proforms and deictics -- for the speaker herself and her daughter, the former mainly distributed into Themes, and the latter roughly divided between Themes and Rhemes. This kind of development seems to be reflected in the numerical data.

An excerpt typical of the book text is partly organized under headlines and subheadlines. Subtopical transitions are usually not signalled with discourse markers, but are often simply lexical, with new subtopics sometimes introduced in Rheme, sometimes in Theme. Another type of transition signal is an imperative or a modalized directive of the 'you should' or 'you may have to' sort. Presuming reference is relatively sparse, and often of a bridging rather than a direct reference type. The longest presuming reference chain in the excerpt is the 'you' chain with five items in the first 15 discourse units; other chains have only two or three items, and are mostly bridging, with only one being pronominal. The relatively low number of grammatical items serving as discourse markers or as items in reference chains, and the brevity of reference chains lends the discourse a feeling of brisk informational efficiency and density. Again the method of development seems consonant with the numerical data.

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Moving Online to Teach Academic Writing in Science and Engineering: Theory and Practice

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Keywords: online teaching; academic writing; genre pedagogy; design theory; science and engineering

Our approach to teaching academic writing in science and engineering disciplines at undergraduate level has been informed by a Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) theory of language and genre-based literacy pedagogy. We have used this foundation to develop teaching materials and approaches to scaffold student understandings of the genre, discourse and grammar of discipline based writing tasks (Jones 2004). Over a ten year period, these materials and approaches have gradually been 'redesigned' (Kress 2000, 2003) into interactive, multimodal, online learning modules, replacing face-to-face pedagogy with digital pedagogy (Drury 2004; Mort and Drury 2012; Drury and Mort 2012).

SFL and genre pedagogy can inform the 'redesign' of materials and approaches for teaching academic writing online. In addition, research in social semiotics and multimodal meaning making can contribute to the development of a digital pedagogy for academic writing. However, a key question is how students use online resources to create their own learning journey to develop successful discipline based writing, their own 'personalised curricula' (Kress 2007). In monitoring these journeys, designer/teachers can further develop effective online curricula for academic writing (Kress 2010).

Genre-based literacy pedagogy in the SFL tradition provides a rich classroom based model for developing students' writing (Martin and Rose 2008; Rose and Martin 2012). The pedagogy moves through a cycle to build students' knowledge of both the field and the genre. The cycle comprises genre deconstruction, joint construction and independent construction. The teacher uses models of the genre to illustrate structure and language features before supporting students in their own writing process, whether in groups or independently. The nuanced scaffolding of knowledge by the teacher is described by Martin as 'guidance through interaction in the context of shared experience' (Martin 1999: 135). Through this process students themselves gain mastery of the genre and can further their fellow students' understandings as well as critique or 'play' with the genre.

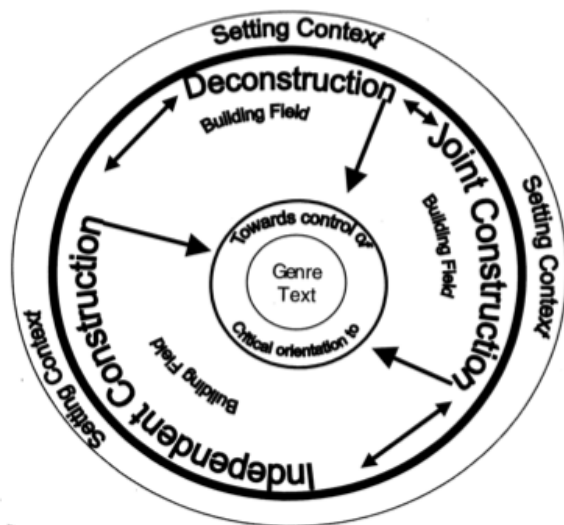


Figure 1: A genre-based teaching and learning model (Martin 1999: 131)

This rich genre pedagogy has been developed in the school situation and has not been fully adapted to the university context, where arguably, an approach more appropriate to discipline practices and curricula is needed. Nevertheless, genre pedagogy has been used to apprentice students into the genres of their disciplines, most frequently through modelling and deconstruction of example discipline genres. Initially, face-to-face teaching approaches and materials for this deconstruction phase of genre pedagogy were developed to meet students' needs, in particular for assessment tasks in science and

engineering disciplines. Subsequently, these resources were redesigned for online learning so that theoretically, more students could access the resources and work through them at their own pace and according to their needs. However, science and engineering disciplines are noted for students who are reluctant to write and motivating such students to engage in learning must be taken into consideration in the design of an online learning environment (Skinner, Mort, Drury, Calvo and Molina 2012).

The move from the classroom to an online medium involves significant redesign of pedagogic resources in terms of the learning materials and tasks and the contributions of participants in the learning situation. In this 'recontextualisation' process, Bezemer and Kress (2008) propose four rhetorical/semiotic principles to provide a theoretical framework for design processes. These are the selection of the meaning making materials or modes, their arrangement, their foregrounding and the social relations they create. As modes are changed, their meanings are translated from one to another either through transformation, when modes remain the same but their arrangements change, or through transduction when modes themselves are changed (Bezemer and Kress 2008). These principles can be used to provide insights into the evolution of our online learning programs for academic writing in terms of their design, development, implementation and student engagement and learning.

As teacher/designers our pedagogical aim has been to develop students' understandings and knowledge of the assessment genres in their field of study. The subject matter of our field, or our curriculum, is genres as the products of discipline practices, their purpose, structures and language. The origin of our screen design has been the written paper-based learning materials we had created to deconstruct the genre or macro genre (Martin 1994) of laboratory reports in specific discipline areas in science and engineering. These materials already had an arrangement, sequence, layout and foregrounding, for example, the use of capitals and bold for the headings of each section of the report and within each section a sequence of explanations, examples and exercises in the areas of content, structure and language (Drury 1997). However, in transforming these materials to a screen environment, new arrangements are necessary as well as a way of translating the spoken interactions and scaffolding of the classroom based on these materials to an online environment.

In the evolution of our online learning environments, critical design decisions have been made in the area of navigation networks, sequencing and arrangement of subject matter and choice of modes and modal resources for representing this subject matter so that the salient features can be highlighted. In addition, design choices have been made about forms of modal interactivity and guidance for this interactivity so that learners will engage with the site. These interactions also build the social relations of the site. Although our overall educational aim has remained the same, as has the medium of the screen, the software technology for creating digital pedagogy has expanded the resources available for meaning making.

Navigation networks consisting of a hierarchy of menu and sub menu items have essentially remained the same in our online sites, namely, the typical headings in a laboratory report and within each report section, sub-menu items that address structure and language. The report section menu items are not only familiar to students but also make meaning in themselves. As reports from different disciplines have been brought together into one site (Write reports in science and engineering (WRiSE <http://learningcentre.usyd.edu.au/wrise/>), students can immediately understand the variation in structure of reports within and across disciplines, genre typology and topology. In our initial online site, these report section menu items more closely resembled the written headings in our paper-based resources. In later modules, colour and image have become more prominent in the written display in order to create a more interpersonal relationship with users. In terms of layout, these menu items are listed in the familiar order of a typical laboratory report and located on the left side of the screen.

Help With Report Writing

Overall Structure

Title

Summary

Introduction

Methods

Results

Discussion

References

Help with Report Writing guides you through the sections of a typical scientific report found in microbiology and immunology journals.

What you will learn from using Help with Report Writing:

- the overall structure and purpose of a scientific report in microbiology and immunology
- what kind of information belongs in different sections of a report
- how to structure the information in each section in a logical way
- how to use scientific language in an appropriate way

Help With Understanding Content

Topic 1 – Thinking Like a Microbiologist

Help with Understanding Content deals with concepts in microbiology and immunology.

What you will learn from using Help with Understanding Content:

- a clearer understanding of what microbiologists and immunologists do.

Your lecturer guide for this module is Kathy Takayama and your student guides are Jacquie and Mathew.



Listen to Kathy explain the objectives of the research paper (1m 17s):



Kathy talks about students' problems with time management (20s):



Matthew gives advice on preparing the report (26s):



Figure 2: Home page of the WRiSE Microbiology module showing menu items and Discussion section showing sub-menu items

Students can make their own choices to interact in a linear 'page by page' way within each report section and move from screen to screen guided by typical icons such as arrows or number sequences or written text such as 'Next'. Alternatively, students can choose their own pathway by going directly to an exercise via the exercise icon or to a language sub menu item such as 'Verbs'.

From the beginning of our online design process, the use of colour, font and framing have played a significant role in highlighting features of the dominant written mode of our subject matter as well as distinguishing between the content itself and instructions on how to interact with the content (Drury 2001). For example, frames and background colour or font colour have been used to distinguish written instructions from example texts, exercise texts from feedback. Colour has also been used to effect in highlighting structural and language features in example discipline texts and linking these to explanation. Later software programs have allowed for pop-up windows where explanations and examples can appear next to the relevant structural stage that is being described. Abstract images of report sections framing these structural stages have also been used in later programs with the choice to animate the image or skip the animation.

Structure

Here is a diagram of the typical stages of the introduction. Click on the stage links in the diagram to see which questions are answered in each stage. Click on the example link to see an example of each stage of a student's introduction on isolation and identification of bacteria (*Lactobacillus* from sourdough). Note the movement from general to specific through the stages.

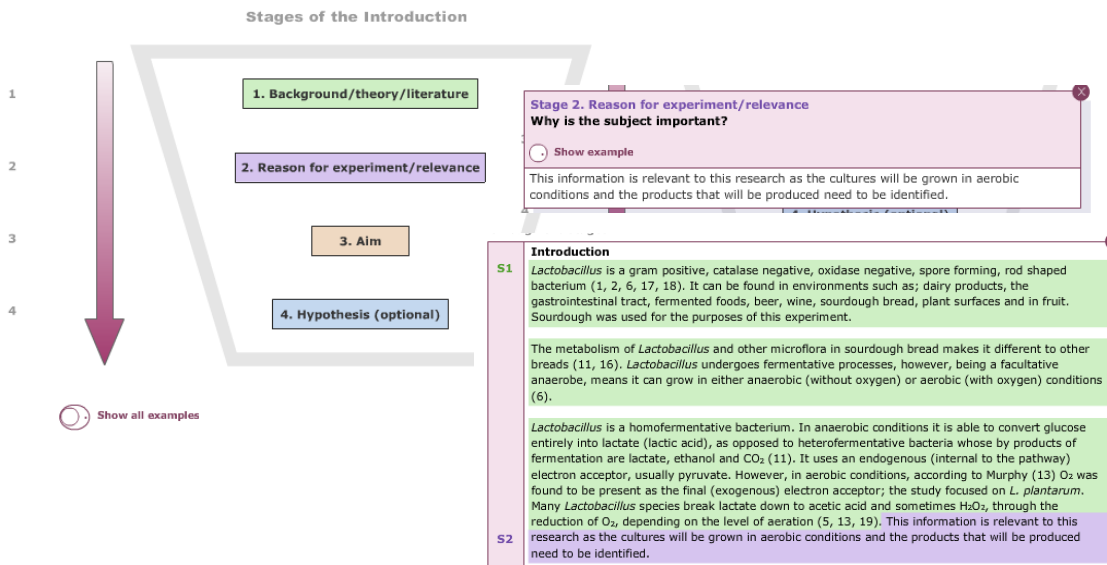


Figure 3: Structure of introduction section in WRiSE microbiology module showing how the function and example for stage 2, Reason for experiment, is progressively revealed using pop up windows

In all our design iterations, student users and our team of discipline and e-learning staff have provided both input and feedback. This cycle is an essential part of digital design as it is an ongoing process unlike a book when design finishes on publication. Overall, our digital pedagogy has benefited users from the beginning in terms of improved performance in academic writing measured through assessment grades (Mort and Drury 2012; Drury and Mort 2012). Feedback has indicated a pattern of writing alongside the online support materials and understandings related to our use of modal affordances such as colour.

"Seeing those different colours is what helped me the most and, yep, I did change it. I wrote mine and then went to this site and looked at it and then went back and changed it" (student feedback comment on WRiSE)

Authentic discipline-based examples of the structure of report sections are most highly valued. However, 'just in time' users' have reported difficulty in finding exactly what they want in the online modules and exercises tend to be most appreciated by English as an additional language (EAL) users. However, use of the site is highly dependent on integration into and alignment with discipline curricula and this in turn is dependent on discipline team members championing the online resources for writing the genres of their discipline with colleagues and with students. A link in a learning management system is not enough. Students need to be actively introduced to the site and discipline staff need to integrate it into their assessment guidelines, criteria and feedback systems.

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Texts in Weblog

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Keywords: weblog; genre; register

This study investigates the language variation of English as a foreign language (EFL) learners in the virtual environment of weblog in an Omani context. To this end, multiple data-resources were used comprising student-writers' weblog-texts with their comments and hyperlinks, and their interviews. The corpus comprises eight posts in Weblog 1. The study responds to two primary questions, 1) To what extent can my students' weblogs be conceptualized as a genre or as an emergent genre? 2) To what extent can my students' weblogs be conceptualized as a register? The genre analysis showed that the posts are generally consistent with Rose and Martin's (2012: 130) genre categories. It also indicated a genre hybridity in some texts, through which weblog-texts signify the stages of various genres. The register analysis was carried out using UMA software, through which the ideational, interpersonal and textual metafunctions of the weblog-texts were examined. The register analysis showed that this weblog is an informative type of weblog with a weak tenor indicating the characteristics of both spoken and written modes of language.

1. Introduction

Substantial research has been carried out on different aspects of language learning and on virtual environments such as weblogs. Over more than a decade, weblog-writing and its impact on the development of language skills within second language acquisition has been much researched in fields such as weblog in education (Downes 2004), academic research (Wrede 2003), and literacy in the classrooms (Huffacker 2005, Arslan and Şahin-Kızıl, 2010). More recently, a new area of research in weblog has developed: weblog and its impact on the social, psychological and cultural aspects of the weblog-writer's life such as examining the sense of academic identity, self and positioning on the web (Ewins 2005; Lam 2000). However, investigating the influence of the context of weblog on student-writers' language use in relation to self-expression, creating stance, positioning audience as well as the social purpose of writing, genre, has received very little attention. In response to this need, this study has examined the language of EFL learners in the virtual environment of weblog in an Omani context.

2. The Methodology

This study has analysed the language used in the discourse of a student-writer's weblog at the level of clause – the lexico-grammatical features – and beyond. Drawing on Systemic Functional Linguistics (Halliday and Matthiensen 2004), the lexico-grammatical features were examined to identify the schematic structures of the genres of the weblog-texts. The corpus comprises 8 posts in one weblog, written by one student during two semesters within the English foundation course. The register analysis, carried out using UAM software, examined the ideational, interpersonal and textual metafunctions of the texts. Genre, in this study, is a "staged, goal-oriented social process realised through register" (Martin 1992: 505) and was analysed based on the view of genre presented by Coffin et al. (2005), Piriyaşilpa (2009) and Rose and Martin (2012: 130). To understand both the purpose and the discourse community of the weblog, a talk-around text interview was carried out and the comments and hyperlinks in the weblog were examined.

3. Results

Regarding the ideational metafunctions of the language in this weblog, the TRANSITIVITY analysis indicated that material and relational processes, with 35.6% of the total processes each, are the most common processes in this weblog, through which the weblog-writer construes a world of happenings or doings and identifies relations among the participants and processes in the texts. Therefore, this weblog tends to be mainly descriptive, describing the participants, people as well as objects, involved in the processes. Other processes are less frequent. Of all the circumstances, the high number of temporal and locational ones, accounting for 33.6% and 27.3% respectively, shows that this weblog makes much use of spatial and temporal type of circumstances illustrating where and when actions occurred or were experienced.

An investigation of the elements of Mood revealed the interpersonal metafunctions of the language in the weblog as shown in Figure 1.

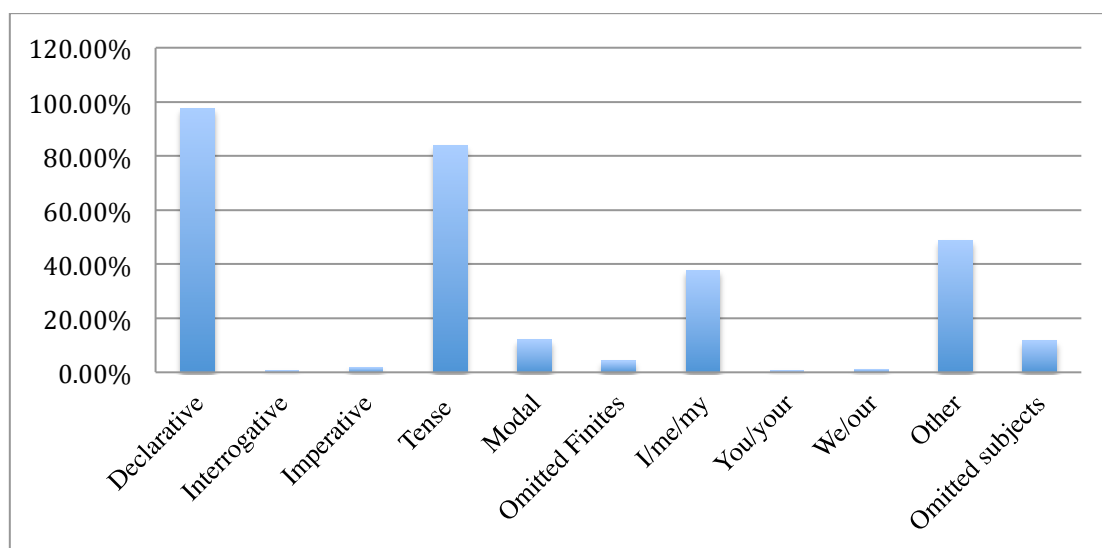


Figure 1: Mood Analysis

The Mood analysis showed that 98.2% of the clauses are non-elliptical declarative. The weblog-writer used one interrogative sentence through which she draws the reader into the text. There are three imperative clauses in the weblog-texts signalling a change from giving information to giving goods and services. This contributes to constructing a relation between the reader and the weblog-writer. The shift from declarative to interrogative or imperative also adds to the chattiness of the texts signalling the speech mode of the language used in this weblog.

Of the subjects used in this weblog, 48.8% refer to subjects other than the first person (plural) or second person pronoun. The first person pronoun, accounting for the 37.8% of the total pronouns, is the second frequent Subject in this weblog. The weblog-writer used the second person pronoun and its derivations four times; and she used the first person plural pronoun inclusive (we) with its derivations three times. This shows the weblog-writer's attempt to draw the reader into the text and seek the support and solidarity of the reader. 83.8% of the Finite operators are tenses and only 12% are modals. Of the total modals in this weblog, the modals of probability and obligation with 45% and 35.6% respectively, have the highest frequency. The weblog-writer's choice in using such modals signifies her position and her personal evaluation. Other types of modals, such as possibility, Inclination and Ability are used less frequently.

Regarding the textual metafunction, the THEME types revealed were as follows. Of the total, topical the most frequent type of THEME was topical THEME, accounting for 62.3%, which is a characteristic of the speech mode of the language (Taboada 2004: 79) leading the reader to seek the unexpected information in the second part of the sentence. Textual THEME, with 36.2% was the second most frequent THEME in the weblog-texts. This indicates the prevalence of "coordinate clauses" that are "typical for spoken communication" (Wattles et al. 2007: 54) and helped the weblog-writer make the texts coherent and easy to be interpreted. The frequency of the interpersonal THEME in this weblog is very low which decreases the level of interactivity and makes the mode of the language more monologic than dialogic (Matthiessen 1995: 42).

The genre analysis of the texts, whereby the stages through which the texts unfold were identified, indicated that Weblog 1 consists of instances of the Self-introduction genre (Piriyasilpa 2009) in Text 1; of the Exposition genre, arguing why Al-Qurum Natural Park is the best place to enjoy, in Text 2; the Recounting genre (Rose and Martin, 2012), reporting her daily activities sequentially, in Text 3; the Narrative genre (Martin, 1992), explaining her fear from taking the speaking test and her solution at the end, in Text 4; the Exemplum genre, judging the behaviour of being violent, in Text 5; the Discussion genre (Coffin et al., 2005), discussing the positive and negative points of weblog writing, in Text 6; the Exposition genre, discussing why she has the best family, in Text 7, and why she is happy with her life, in Text 8.

The interviews revealed the reasons behind the lexico-grammatical features used in the texts and the purpose of the whole weblog. The talk-around-text interview comprised linguistic and non-linguistic elements in this weblog, shown in Figure 2.

Texts	Title	Genre	The linguistic themes	the Non-linguistic themes
Text 5	Stop fighting	Exemplum	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 1st person pronoun and its derivations 1st person plural pronoun (inclusive) 2nd person pronoun Modality Active and passive voice 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Comments Pictures Emoticons
Text 7	The best family I could get!	Exposition		
Text 8	My life	Exposition		

Figure 2: Talk-around-text interviews

The comments and the hyperlinks were examined to find out about the discourse community of the weblog. There are 11 hyperlinks in the weblog but only three of them left comments. An examination of all the comments showed that seven people visited this weblog and left comments; only three of the visitors are among the hyperlinks. As shown in Figure 3, the weblog-writer was selective when reacting to the comments and did not reply to three of the visitors.

	Text 1	Reaction	Text 2	Reaction	Text 3	Reaction	Text 4	Reaction	Text 5	Reaction	Text 6	Reaction	Text 7	Reaction	Text 8	Reaction
Slooha							1	1								
shams											1	1	1	1	1	1
Ali									1	1						
Ahmed/ Brown/ Hāmāḥ	1	1			1	1									1	0
Khamis			1	0												
Lilian	1	0									1	0				
kika									1	1						

Figure 3: Comments

4. Discussion

The TRANSITIVITY, MOOD and THEME analysis showed that this weblog is an informative type of weblog with low level of tenor containing the characteristics of both spoken and written modes of language. This suggests that weblogs can provide an environment where writers can draw on the resources of spoken and written modes in their texts to achieve their communicative purpose. The main genres in the weblog-texts is consistent with Rose and Martin's (2012: 56) definition of genres. However, in some cases, the lexico-grammatical choices in the stages of the genres dominating the texts showed the characteristic of other genres, which serve other purposes. This means some of the stages deviated from the generic stages of particular genres, when the texts unfold. This caused a disruption in the expected flow of discourse in some texts and let hybrid genres emerge. This can have different reasons such as the influence of the situation, the communicative goals, the discourse community and the audience as well as the weblog-writers' prior knowledge of the discourse. Examining the purpose of the texts and the whole weblog, I suggest that this weblog resembles the personal journal/diary (McNeill 2003, Herring et al. 2004, Puchman 2012) as it is used to record the weblog-writer's internal and external personal experiences, reflections and emotions. Due to the wide and variable audience of weblog, it is suggested that the notion of discourse community in this weblog is rather fluid and can hardly be associated with a particular group.

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Exploring choice in digital language production

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Keywords: language production; repairs; choice; keystroke logging; digital

Introduction

With the significant increase in internet-based communication in recent years, researchers have a new opportunity to study language production. In the past 20 years, keystroke logging software has been able to provide "the opportunity to capture details of the activity of writing" (Spelman, Miller and Sullivan 2006: 1). In this paper, we adapt keystroke methodology in order to analyse spontaneous digital language production in synchronous and near-synchronous informal communication. To our knowledge, no work to date has explored the use of keystroke logging to capture conversation-like language and this paper contributes to filling this research gap. This paper reports on one aspect of our keystroke project which concentrates on lexical and grammatical selection. Our claim is that the more spontaneous the language produced, the closer it is to revealing evidence of language processing. In this sense language is viewed here as process (i.e. system) rather than as product (i.e. text). By analysing the occurrences of non-target productions and repairs in spontaneous digital discourse (e.g. online chat) we offer a unique description of digital language production. We specifically consider evidence of lexical selection in order to explore the extent to which these linguistic choices can be accounted for within an SLF framework where the concept of choice plays a critical role.

Overview of the Cardiff Keystroke Project

The Cardiff Key Writing Project was set up in 2009 and aims to study human production of keyboard-based digital language using keystroke logging method. Our data was collected with the use of key logging software called Inputlog (Leijten and van Waes 2006). InputLog is software designed by researchers interested in computer-based writing and it is designed for those who want to study written language (text) production. The software runs in the background recording all keystrokes and mouse movements. Keystrokes include all keys (back space, space, delete, numbers, letters, etc.). It also records time so that it is possible to identify pauses and it is also possible to determine how long it takes the speaker to key individual strokes as well as sequences (words). We used the UAM CorpusTool (O'Donnell 2008) to assist in coding and managing the analyses. The writing context was informal. We logged the production of chat and email messages. These were collected over ten sessions, each lasting between 20 and 45 minutes. All participants were undergraduate university students.

The nature of digital language

Digital modes of production are different. It involves technological mediation but so does writing and so does to some extent speech. The interface in a digital context is more complex. For example, production typically involves both hands simultaneously. Even signed language favours a dominant hand. Consequently digital production forces language activation in both hemispheres. There are also issues of dexterity because it is not only the hand that is involved as is the case with handwriting but individual digits (fingers). This requires a very different level of co-ordination. For these reasons and others, digital language can be disruptive to general language production processes and places a relatively high cognitive demand on an otherwise undemanding task.

Digital language can displace the need for the interactant's co-presence but in the case of chat conversations, the synchronous nature of the technology requires co-presence. As Hasan (1998: 242-45) points out, the value of dialogue in graphic channels is different from that of dialogue in the phonic channel where it is a genuine option". Like the phonic channel, the digital channel must also include dialogue as a 'genuine option'. The digital mode of product could be presented as in Figure 1 below, where we have adopted Berry's (1975 and 2013) notion of "a cline of consciousness", which she explains as ranging from fully subconscious to fully conscious".

Our position is that the more spontaneous and the more informal the language production context, the more likely we are to capture evidence of language production processes with keylogging tools.

-phonic, +graphic, +**digital** (-analogue)

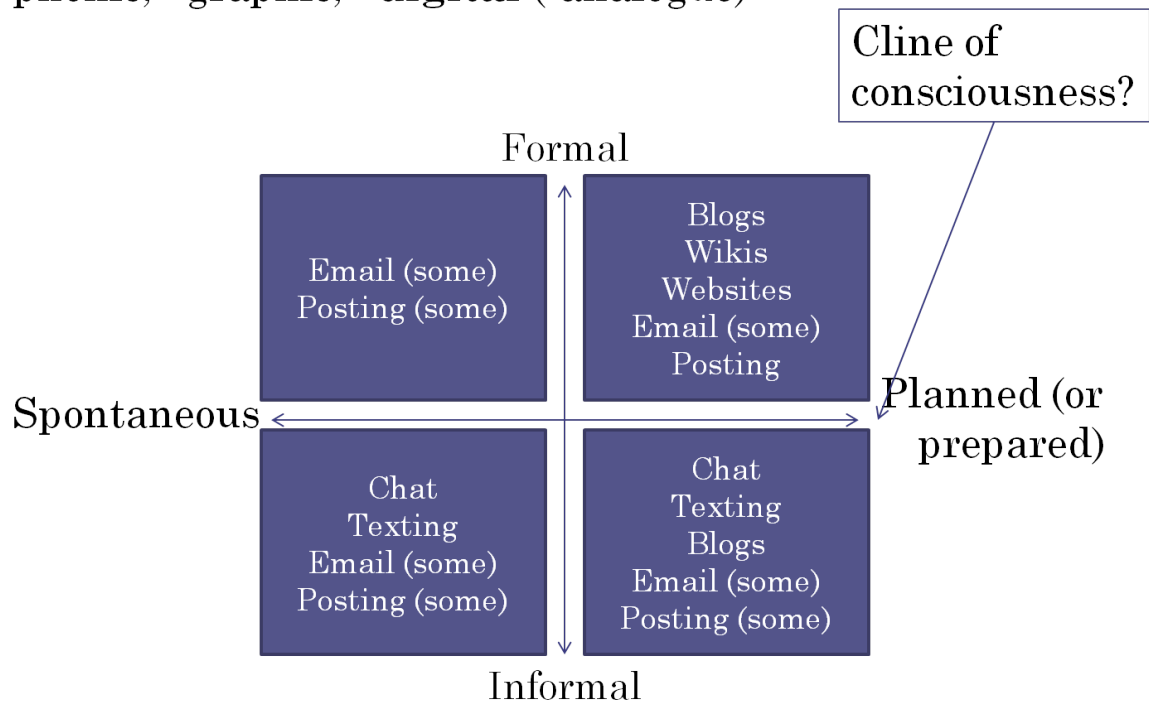


Figure 1: Mode of production for digital text

Non-target productions

We are particularly interested in what we have termed non-target productions. This expression is used to capture an item or expression produced that is deemed to not have been the target, including individual graphemes. We identified these in the logs by the presence of an immediate revision or by its lack of sense or grammaticality. These need to be distinguished from contextual revisions which are the result of re-reading and revising what has already been produced. Table 1 below provides the frequency distribution of non-target productions in terms of whether the production was due to a motor execution error (i.e. pressing the wrong key on the keyboard) or due to some kind of interference in language processing. We needed to include a third category for instances that were ambiguous; it was not possible to clearly identify the source of the production. Examples of each are given in (1) to (3) below.

Micro-context	N=1014	
Motor execution error	46.7%	474
Cognitive processing interference	23.4%	237
Ambiguous non-target production	29.9%	303

Table 1: Frequency distribution of type of non-target production

Examples of each category:

1. I don't rela[BS][BS]ally have that s[BS]issue (motor execution: transposition of [l] and [a])
2. Sun is finally suning on[BS8]hininh on[BS4]g on this (interference: perseveration of 'sun')
3. She could've have a wrap t[BS]with s[BS]us! (ambiguous: we can't know why the [t] was produced)

Clearly 'errors' due to problems with the efficient execution of key presses accounts for the vast majority of instances. We suggest that this is disruptive to the production process and may well cause an increased demand on working memory. This is something we are exploring currently in related research.

The following examples support such a claim. In (4), the first non-target production of interest (in bold) is due to missing the [n] key and hitting the [h] key. This is recognised immediately and it is deleted. However in the process of trying to complete the target word (i.e. 'annoying'), the speaker produces 'annoyone', which clearly would not make sense in this context. The speed at which this is done is impressive. Note that pauses are noted in milliseconds as numbers within brackets. There was no significant pausing around the repair.

4. I wa [BS]s talking to John yesterday about how anh[BS]nyone it[BS7]oying it is when e[BS]p[e[BS2]eople say RE {3609}in {2125}verbal sentences{4235}

In example (5), it is less clear exactly what happened because of the close semantic relationship between 'make' and 'get' and because of the keyboard proximity of the keys involved in producing 'get' and 'her'. However as with (4) the error of having two verbs is immediately repaired with no pausing. If indeed both 'make' and 'get' were produced, this would suggest evidence of lexical competition, which was captured due to the rapid nature of digital language production in this context.

5. we need wings and {3687}don't want to make get [BS4]her walk to mine nor to i wish to traav[BS2]ve l[BS2]l to uni halls so

The role of choice in language

This may lead us to question the nature of choice in a view of language in process. As Halliday (2013) explains, in any one semiotic event, many moments" of choice will be being activated, across many locations within the total architecture of the language". However Halliday has never suggested this was conscious or deliberate choice (see also Hasan, 2013).

Asp (2013) has put forward the following claims concerning the nature of choice:

- speakers do not have direct access to a conscious awareness of the neurophysiological processes underlying choice;
- much of what we say and do is highly automatized making minimal demands on attention or conscious awareness.
- However, even in relatively undemanding tasks, in healthy people there is on-going monitoring of production, so that we can select, inhibit, or repair our discourse as we produce it.

However as O'Donnell (2013) points out:

"As writing may involve deleting, inserting or changing text at any point of the text, the temporal sequences of choices made by a writer do not necessarily correspond to the linear sequence of words, or even sentences, within the final text. And where text is deleted, choices made in the writing of a text may not correspond to any text present in the final product."

If we consider instances of lexical re-selection, as shown in examples (6) to (8), then O'Donnell's point is well illustrated. By capturing the process of language production with keystroke logging, we are able to provide evidence that the speaker does indeed make selections that are not reflected in the final text product.

6. but•the•doors•have•been•locked•an[BS2]so he•starts•banging•on•the•window•until•I•notice•and•let•him•in
7. You•will•no•doubt•hear•Lukey[BS5]various•versions•of•events, •but•you•must•take•mine•for•gospel
8. That•I'd•never•have•another•mo[BS4]r moment•of•peace•and•quiet•to•[BS3]in•the house•e ver•again!•

Concluding remarks

As written language is visible as it is produced, the emerging text could function as a visual external storage, which could be used to decrease the cognitive load of the writer" (Wengelin et al, 2009). We would expect this to reduce demand on working memory. However, the high motor error rate (lack of fluency) may in fact be increasing the cognitive load, despite the fact that what is produced is available visually on the screen as it is produced. Spontaneous digital language (like speech and unlike traditional view of writing), tends not to have a draft version; it's live (online) processing. There is very little evidence of 'conscious' choice. There is some evidence to suggest that keyboard errors interfere with language production in a way that is counter-productive. As more and more students write essays as they are chatting online, this is an important area of concern for researchers.

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Story of an Image

Notes on the Recontextualization of a Digital Research-Article Figure

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Keywords: digital figures; medical research discourse; recontextualization; transduction; transformation

1. Introduction

The aim of this paper is to examine the online recontextualization (Bernstein 1996) of a digital figure (see Figure 1), first published as part of a research article in both the paper and online editions of the New England Journal of Medicine (Bernard et al. 2001). In its original digital environment, the figure, like others in the journal, is not only part of a composite text; it is also a discrete text in its own right, one that can be searched, downloaded, read, and redistributed in various formats (e.g. JPG, PPT).

Since its original publication in 2001, the research article has been frequently cited by other articles (3298 times; Web of Knowledge database, June 14, 2013), and the figure has been reused and adapted for use in a number of different online settings, as part of a variety of text types, including research articles, weblogs, and videos. I present and discuss some of these recontextualizations by examining changes in selection, arrangement, foregrounding, and social positioning (Bezemer and Kress 2008) and by considering variations in the field, tenor, and mode of discourse (e.g. Halliday 1978, Halliday and Hasan 1985). For the purposes of this abstract, I focus on two examples, selected from the 69 recontextualizations identified (Google Images, www.google.com/images, June 14, 2013), namely 1) the figure's use in a presentation posted on a video-sharing website (YouTube.com), and 2) the subsequent embedding of this YouTube video on another webpage.

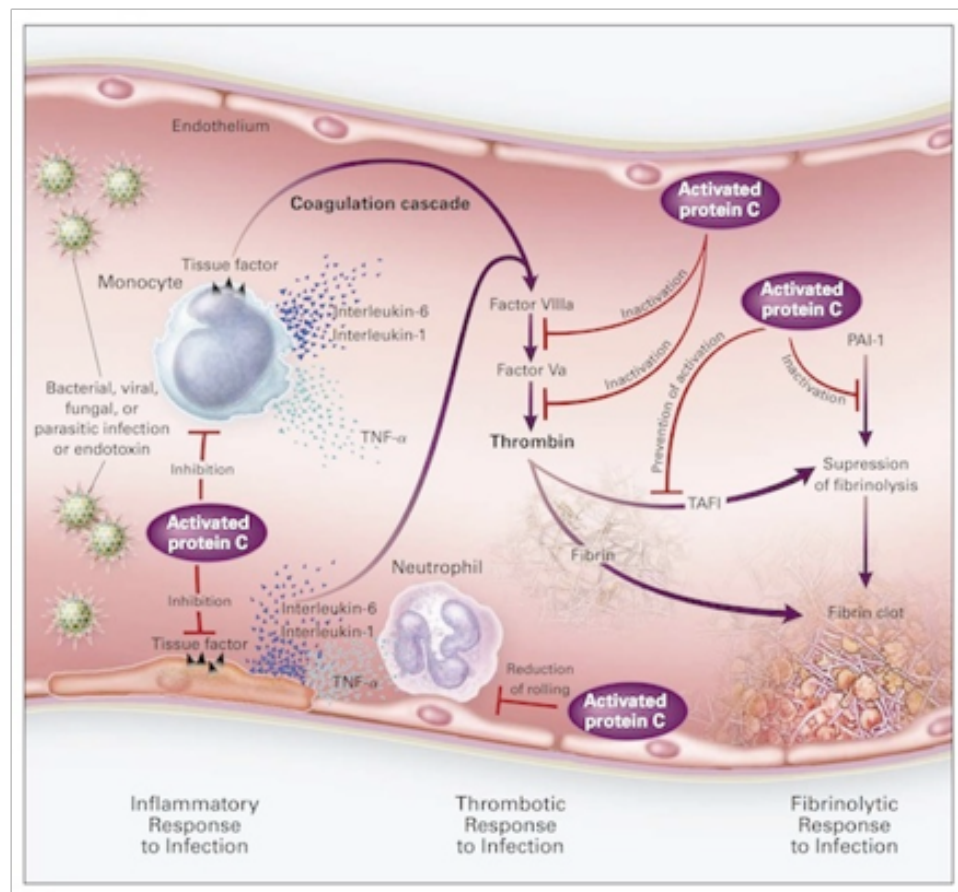


Figure 1

2. Figure 1: Bernard et al. (2001)

The original figure (see Figure 1) represents a cross-section of a blood vessel and depicts the proposed response of a certain protein, activated protein C, in regulating inflammation and coagulation in severe sepsis. The figure includes verbal resources, and is a hybrid of schematic and (semi-)naturalistic elements. In the following sections, I examine some of the recontextualizations or "transformations" (Kress and van Leeuwen 2006, Bezemer and Kress 2008) of this figure. However, it is worth briefly noting first that the original figure is also the product of a complex process of recontextualization or "transduction" (Kress 1997, Bezemer and Kress 2008). Real-life, three-dimensional elements/artifacts from the originating site, such as blood vessels and monocytes, and a series of potential actions or causal pathways, have been reconfigured into a two-dimensional visual representation, with all the changes in selection, arrangement, foregrounding, and social repositioning this entails.

3. Recontextualization 1: YouTube

Figures 2.1-2.4 are screenshots from a video posted on the video-sharing website YouTube.com. The video is of a presentation on the regulation of leukocyte trafficking during sepsis, given by Christine Metz at the Feinstein Institute for Medical Research in New York in 2007. The video was uploaded to the website in 2010 and, according to statistics from YouTube, has been viewed almost 6000 times as of June 30, 2013. The audiovisual recording of the presentation includes the figure from Bernard et al. (2001) as a thumbnail for the video (Figure 2.1) and as part of an approximately two-minute sequence (0:45-2:59) describing the inflammatory response to sepsis, accompanied by comments from the presenter (see Figure 2.2).

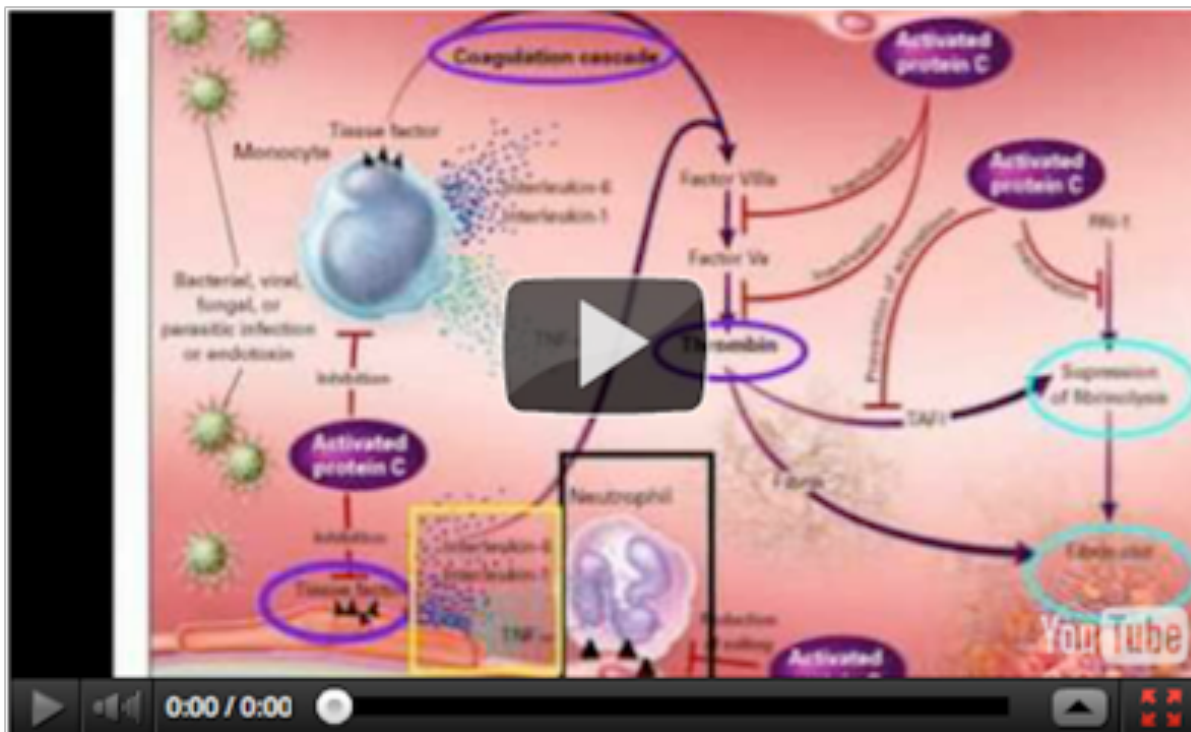


Figure 2.1



Figure 2.2

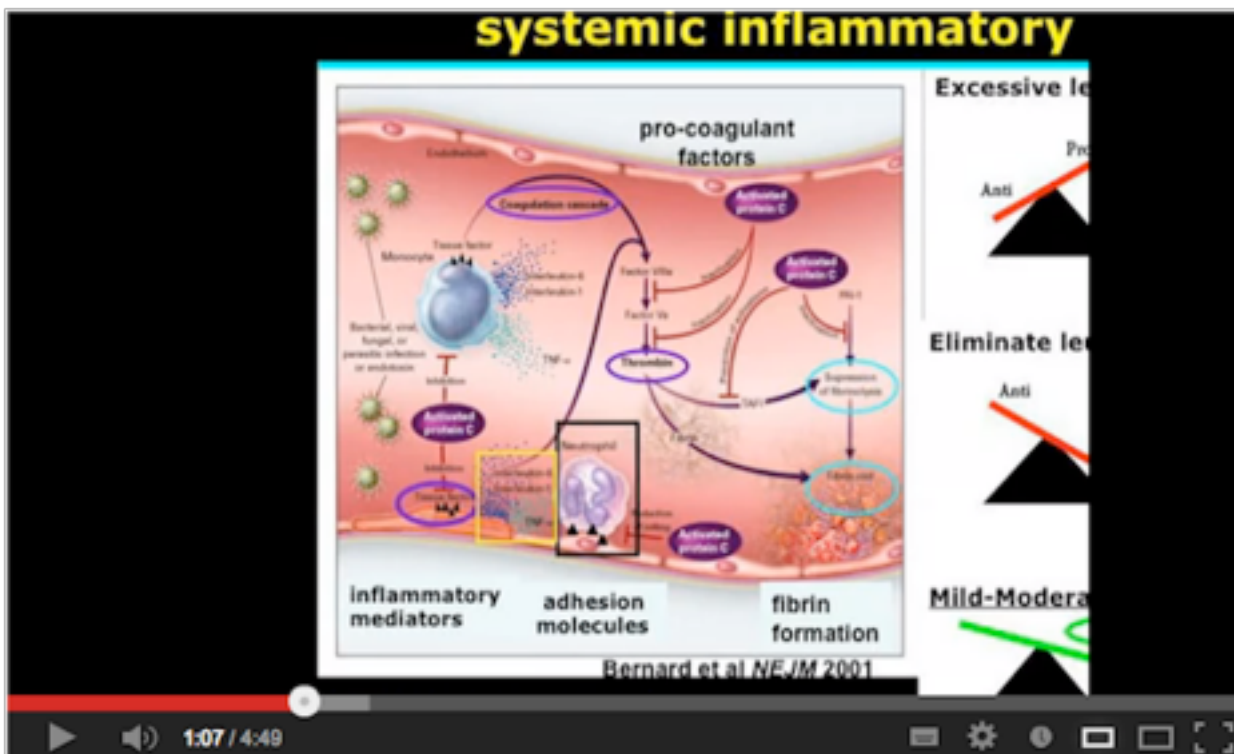


Figure 2.3

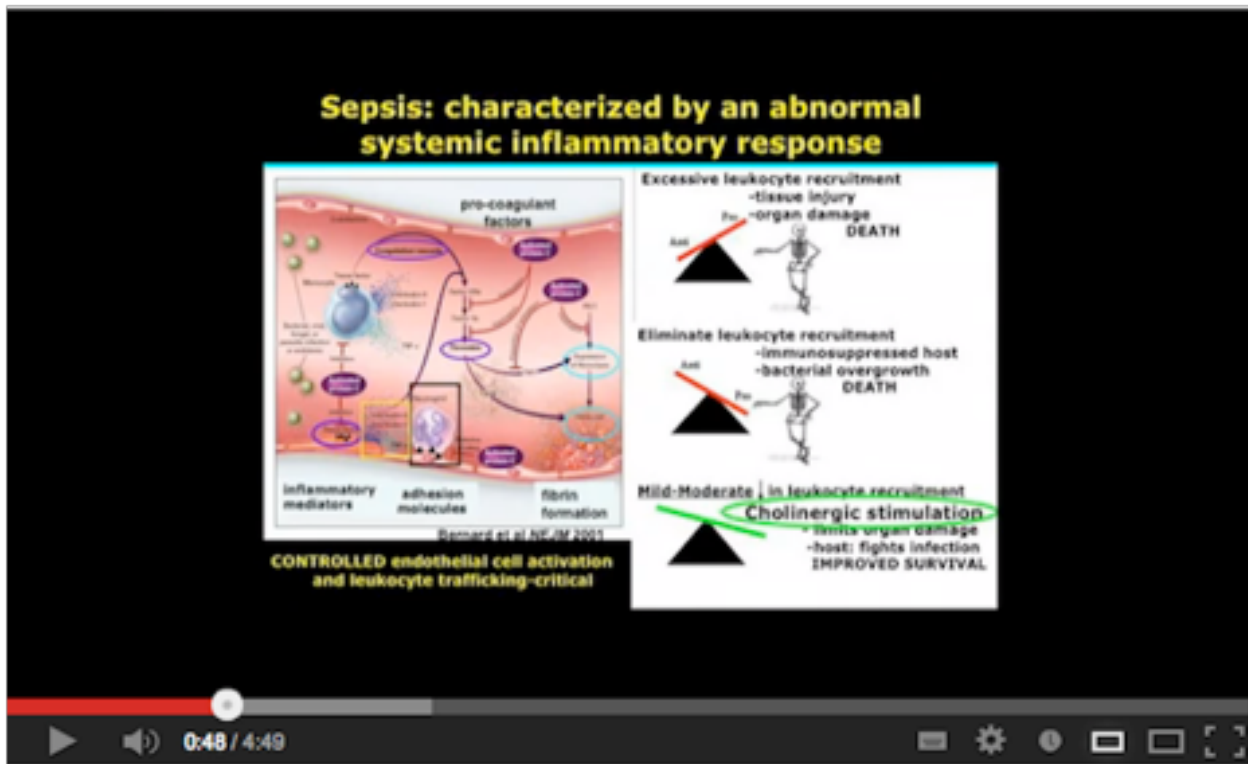


Figure 2.4

The figure's use in the video recording, as viewed on YouTube, is the result of a series of transformations. For example, the figure has been "moved" from the original research article, modified, inserted into a presentation program, projected onto a screen, recorded as video, and posted on a website. As part of this process, we can see that certain verbal elements have been added to and removed from the original figure (see Figure 2.3): labels at the bottom of the figure have been replaced, an additional label has been included at the top of the figure, and a new title and legend have been added. Also, activated protein C, one of the main elements in the original research article, while not removed from the figure, is not otherwise mentioned in the accompanying co-text of the presentation and video recording. Because of the relabeling, the figure depicts a new (albeit relatively similar) left-to-right sequence of events (compare Figure 2.3 with Figure 1). The figure is also juxtaposed with a second image, on the right side of the slide, which invites comparison and describes several potential sepsis-related outcomes (Figure 2.4). Colored boxes and circles have been added in order to foreground certain elements, reducing somewhat the original saliency of activated protein C. The figure itself is also foregrounded in general, since it is used as a thumbnail for the whole video on the main YouTube site (Figure 2.1). Social positioning differs from the original context in that the primary audience and presenter, i.e. those at the actual presentation, while potentially similar to that of the research article (experts and peers interested in sepsis-related research), are physically copresent. The tenor also includes colleagues and researchers from other institutes, as well as a potentially wider lay audience, since the video has been posted on a popular video-sharing website. One comment on the video's webpage reads "I enjoyed listening to this, had to look up a few words to get a better understanding but I wonder if there has been any improvement on this research??"

3. Recontextualization 2: Global Oneness

The figure undergoes further recontextualization when the YouTube video described above is embedded on another website, Global Oneness (see screenshot in Figure 3.1, taken June 14, 2013). Global Oneness is an online resource for "the best articles, videos and news related to spiritual growth, personal development and alternative lifestyle."






[HOME](#)
[PRIVACY POLICY](#)
[ABUSE](#)
[CONTACT](#)
[GLOBAL ONENESS CLASSIC](#)

SEPSIS
REGULATION OF
LEUKOCYTE
TRAFFICKING BY
CHOLINERGIC
STIMULATION

DREAM
INTERPRETATION

Christian Dream Interpretation

Indian & Hindu Dream Dictionary

Islamic Dream Interpretation

Meaning of Dreams

SPIRITUAL BELIEFS

Buddhism

Confucianism

Hinduism

Jainism

Shintoism

Sikhism

Taoism

Zen Stories - Koans

Zoroastrianism

Sepsis: Regulation of Leukocyte Trafficking by Cholinergic Stimulation



For the full video, click here:

Centricity Series website:

Controversial Australian Author Reveals All in an Autobiography About Heroin Trafficking

A synopsis and sample chapter from the terrifyingly authentic autobiography; "Cheating the Hangman: True Confessions of a Heroin Trafficker" ...

Woman Trafficking on Rise in West Bengal

According to the data published by the National Crime Records Bureau (NCRB), New Delhi, West Bengal stands very high in the list of states when it comes...

Sensory Stimulation Kit - Do It Yourself!

Create your own sensory stimulation kit at home...

FEATURED ARTICLES

Hesychasm - Hesychastic practice

Of the nature of hesychasm, colored by the...

Figure 3.1

In addition to the changes described in the previous section, the video thumbnail is cropped compared to the original figure (see Figure 3.1), with a more dominant title than that of the original and that of the YouTube video. On the Global Oneness webpage, the image/video is arranged centrally as part of a triptych, as it is on YouTube. In addition to the foregrounding of the boxed/circled elements in the video, the terms "trafficking" and "stimulation" are cotextually foregrounded by their repetition in the right-hand column of the site (see Figure 3.1). However, these terms are different from those in the sepsis video, with key words in the "New" column (Kress and van Leeuwen 2006) referring to heroin trafficking, people trafficking, and sensory stimulation kits. In terms of tenor/social positioning and field, the webpage seems to be aimed at two main groups (those with an [academic] interest in sepsis and those with an interest in alternative lifestyles), each with characteristic, technical registers that may or may not overlap. Such a juxtaposition of textual elements and putative readers suggests some kind of unintentional placement. And, as Figure 3.2, a plenary given by Michael Halliday in 2010, exemplifies, any YouTube video can in fact be viewed via this website.

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Figure 3.2

4. Comments and concluding remarks

Despite there being only minor transformations of the original figure, some of the recontextualizations (and "recontextualizations") suggest radically different readings from those of the original publication. In the examples discussed, the figure remains largely unchanged in terms of selection, arrangement, and foregrounding, but the co-text/context may be far removed from the original, with major changes in social positioning or tenor, as well as field. Indeed, approximately half (30) of the 69 returns identified by the image search (see section 1) are composite texts that are not "medical" (field) and that do not appear to be by or for medical researchers (tenor).

As noted above, there seems to be an unintentional or automated juxtaposition of images and verbiage on the Global Oneness webpage. What implications might this have for our understanding of such texts? The recontextualizations described above – i.e. transduction of artifact/action to 2D image (PSD, AI files), image rendered as JPG file, JPG modified/transformed, JPG inserted into PPT file, PPT presented in lecture theater, audiovisual recording of lecture, posting of video on YouTube, embedding of YouTube video on third-party website, viewing of website on reader's screen, location of reader, etc. – are likely to challenge how we make sense of texts, particularly automated composite texts of this kind. These issues may apply to all texts to varying degrees, of course, but it seems that the digital environment in particular allows for, and perhaps invites, this kind of recontextualizing, repurposing, and redistribution (cf. the production, manipulation, and spread of Internet memes). "Words very well might not only be written to be read but rather to be shared, moved, and manipulated, sometimes by humans, more often by machines, providing us with an extraordinary opportunity to reconsider what writing is and to define new roles for the writer [and reader]" (Goldsmith 2011: 15).

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Figure 1 from New England Journal of Medicine, Bernard, G. R., Vincent, J. L., Laterre, P., LaRosa, S. P., Dhainaut, J. F., Lopez-Rodriguez, A., Steingrub, J. S., Garber, G. E., Helterbrand, J. D., Ely, E. W., Fisher, C. J. 2001. Efficacy and safety of recombinant human activated protein C for severe sepsis, volume 344, pp. 699-709. Copyright © 2013 Massachusetts Medical Society. Reprinted with permission from Massachusetts Medical Society.

Science Popularizations of The Guardian Newspaper: Transitivity Analysis of Language Reports in an Electronic Corpus

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Keywords: science popularizations; language event reports; attribution; transitivity; participants; newspaper discourse

1. Introduction

Nowadays, newspapers can no longer be considered as a paper-based media, but as digital sources of information for a general readership that surfs the Net. Digital editions of newspapers have achieved a spreading level far beyond printed editions, expanding their specialized sections to include new areas of knowledge, such as the case of science popularization articles, that disseminate scientific findings (Giannoni 2008: 212) and make scientific discourse and newspaper discourse merge in a new type of text that represents linguistic experiences (Halliday and Mathiessen, 2004: 441). These linguistic experiences are shaped through language events' reports (Thompson, 1996: 501), a resource for journalists to include different voices in the story (Martin and Rose, 2003: 23). Science popularizations have notably increased their presence in national daily newspapers across Europe in the last few years (Hyland 2010:118), such as 'The Guardian', 'El País', 'La Repubblica', and 'Der Spiegel'.

These articles report the latest national and international advances and discoveries that could result in relevant changes in our daily life (Calsamiglia and López Ferrero 2003: 174), and are considered in this study as a new specific register, with its own norms, patterns and styles, which combines both journalistic and pedagogic components (Hernando and Hernando 1994: 63). As Calsamiglia and Lopez Ferrero stated, science popularization articles are characterized as "Scientists having regular interaction – mediated-with the general public , [...] apparently seeking to fill the gap between the scientific community and people in general" (2003: 147), thus implying a recontextualization of scientific discourse. In addition to this, science popularization articles transform, to a certain extent, specialized knowledge into 'everyday' knowledge and try to be as informative and interesting as possible for a non-expert audience (Williams 2009: 467, Ciapuscio 1997: 28).

As a consequence, a key aspect for this study is the notion of attribution, considered as the adscription of information or opinion in a text to sources, which might be animate or inanimate (Hunston 1999: 181). As a matter of fact, attribution is an inherent feature of newspaper discourse that gives more verisimilitude to the facts reported, detaches the journalist from the speech reported and adds a prestigious source that legitimizes the words reported. That epistemological positioning in science popularization articles is studied in this research focusing on Participants and Signals of the Transitivity System, which "specifies different types of process that are recognized in the language, and the structures by which they are expressed" (Halliday 1985:101).

Participants are 'voiced' as attributees and presented as saying or thinking and signals are analyzed following the dichotomy epistemic stance adverbial (according to) - reporting verb. On the one hand, reporting verbs provide readers with information about how the original language event was produced (tell/suggest/claim), but also about the format of the original language event (say/write), and can sometimes be key to interpret the speaker's intention in a language report (speculate/confirm). On the other hand, the epistemic stance adverbial 'according to' represents the author's comment on the source of the information provided and marks that another person's words are being reported, encoded as projection, either as direct speech (quote) or indirect speech (report) (Thompson 1996, Halliday and Mathiessen 2004).

2. Study and corpus

Bearing all these elements in mind, the objective of this study is to analyze the occurrences of language events' reports in a corpus of science popularization articles from the British newspaper 'The Guardian', focusing on the two aforementioned parameters of transitivity, Participants and Signal, to obtain more information about how science popularization texts make use of projection structures to attribute language events.

For this purpose, an electronic corpus was compiled with 567 science popularization texts from the online version of the British newspaper and named 'Sci_TG'. The text has 363,636 running words, among which we have analyzed 2,337 attribution cases within language events' reports.

Very special attention was paid to first paragraphs (Hereafter P1) due to their high degree of informativity within texts (Mahlberg and O'Donnell 2008, Ho-Dac 2007). We have thus considered them as initial sections that act as an introduction to the topic/participants and reveal the aboutness of the whole text.

3. Methodology

The corpus was annotated for the analysis with informative tags (<A>, <P>, <RV>, <AC>...) that allowed us to use the computing software 'WordSmith Tools 5.0.' (Scott, 2009) and benefit from the perspective of corpus linguistics, "A way of investigating language by observing large amounts of naturally-occurring, electronically stores discourse, using software which selects, sorts, matches, counts and calculates" (Hunston and Francis 2000: 14-15). As a consequence, we have carried out both a quantitative and a qualitative analysis of the data in the corpus from a more objective perspective and accurate analysis of the occurrences.

4. Results

With regards to the signal in the language events identified, the analysis of the corpus has shown that there are 2,871 reporting verbs in language events' reports in 'Sci_TG Corpus', among which 147 are in P1 (5.31%) and 2,624 in the rest of the text (94.69%).

Those reporting verbs were further analyzed to get information about the position they occupy in reference to the participant (RV+P or P+RV). Reporting verbs are more commonly preceded by the participant (P1: 138 (93.88%) - Rest: 1,940 (73.93%)) rather than followed by it (P1: 9 (6.12%) - Rest: 684 (26.07%)) so that the attribution to the source of information is primed to appear at the beginning, as shown in the example:

(Example 1) "Prof Stringer added that the Ahob project was not the end of the story for the history of humans in Britain" (Sci_TG06125)

Furthermore, 251 cases of language events' reports in which there is an epistemic stance adverbial as the reporting signal (according to) have also been analyzed in the corpus. Results of the analysis have shown that there are 116 cases (46,21%) in P1 while 135 cases (53,79%) concentrate on the rest of the text. This is very relevant, as first paragraphs, being much shorter than the rest of the text, concentrate a very high number of occurrences of the epistemic stance adverbial.

Taking a step further in the analysis, we analyzed the occurrences of participants in the right position of 'according to' (R1, R2, R3...) and found that, in initial paragraphs, the epistemic stance adverbial is followed by a personal reference in the 31.9% of the cases (37), while in the 68.1% of the cases (79) the reference following according to is material rather than personal.

(Example 2) "A vast, dust-covered ocean of ice is the most likely place to discover life on Mars, according to a team of British scientists" (Sci_TG07259)

In subsequent sections of the texts, the attributees of the epistemic stance adverbial tend to be material entities in 82 of the cases (60.74%), a higher percentage than that of personal references, which represent a 39.26% (53 cases) and establish a reversed pattern with respect to initial sections.

(Example 3) "In tests, injections of the nanoparticles formed a gel that triggered fresh growth of damaged nerves and helped restore the eyesight of 75% of animals, according to the study published in the Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences" (Sci_TG06357)

5. Conclusions

In light of the results obtained in this study, we can say that reporting verbs are much more frequent in subsequent sections of 'Sci_TG Corpus' than in initial ones, in which the epistemic stance adverbial 'according to' has a relevant role as reporting signal. The structure 'participant + reporting verb' seems to prime for P1, while non initial sections seem to prefer the anticipation of the reporting verb. Initial sections present the participant to whom the language event is attributed before the verb, so in non-initial sections the participant is already known.

From the occurrences analyzed, 'according to' appears as the typical epistemic stance adverbial of first paragraphs, rather than of subsequent sections of the text, and, what is more, tends to be followed by material entities at the beginning of the text and by references to people in the rest. This pattern of behavior seems to drive the reader through a sort of 'general to specific' pattern (study/publication – author's name) in which more details about the attributee are revealed as the text evolves.

In further phases of this study, we will try to trace the first mention of participants and analyze how the entity or person is addressed in subsequent occurrences, thus tracing the participant's reference progression, and obtaining more information about how the encoding of external voices is carried out in science popularization texts.

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A Systemic Analysis of Non-related Responses and Their Preceding Questions in the Autism Spectrum

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Keywords: autism; speech functions; imageability; relatedness; interaction

1. Introduction

Non-related responses are common for high functioning individuals with autism (Kremer-Sadlik 2004, Oi 2010). This prevalence of non-relatedness can cause frequent breakdowns in communication, hindering social functioning in autistic spectrum disorders (ASD).

Certain question types elicit more non-related answers than others. Research has focused on either the grammatical form or the pragmatic function of the questions without considering the relation between them (Loukusa et al., 2007, Oi 2010). Using SFL's account of speech functions, we study the functions of questions as open or closed, and requests for facts or opinions (Eggins and Slade 1997) in exchanges. Similarly, by examining incongruent realizations of speech functions, we investigate the responses to questions that may not be recognized by speakers with ASD, such as questions realized by declaratives with rising intonation.

A more cognitively based theory, The Dual Coding Theory (Paivio 2007), examines the relative abstractness of questions. Speakers with autism rely more on imageability for the comprehension of language (Ring, Baron-Cohen et al. 1999, Kana, Keller et al. 2006). Therefore, questions containing more abstract words (that do not elicit images) than concrete words (that do elicit images), may trigger more non-related answers. The interaction effects of the speech functions and their realizations with the abstractness are explored to account for both the problems in social interaction and a cognitive substrate that may contribute to the problematic distribution of speech functions.

2. Methods

Answers

To develop a set of linguistic features of non-relatedness, transcribed interviews of twelve children with ASD aged 7-15 were examined by identifying the question and answer pairs and noting what different types of non-relatedness occurred in the answers. A set of twelve types was found. In order to develop a task to rate these types of answers for their degree of relatedness, they were then used to create 12 hypothetical responses to the question, "What's your brother like?" The question was found in the 12 interviews with children who had autism. This question was chosen because it and others like it with the idiomatic structure of "What is X like?" seemed to pose difficulty and was very often followed by a non-related answer. The question paired with twelve hypothetical non-related responses and one related response (13 altogether) were given as a rating task to 22 adult raters who judged the responses for their degree of relatedness to the question on a scale of 1-7 (one being the least related and seven the most). The ratings were averaged and then each kind of response was assigned a rank from 1 (least related) to 13 (most related).

Answer (to “What’s your brother like?”)	Name of feature	Rank
1. He pogret txl grgfn.	unrecognizable lexis	1.5
2. How brother want east how.	word salad	1.5
3. Where did you put my keys?	topic switch instead of answer	3
4. They are nice.	unclear reference	4
5. _____	no response	5
6. My brother is.	partial information	6
7. He works at a store.	functional	7
8. My brother’s nice, there’s a movie at the mall.	topic switch after answer	8
9. He’s tall.	concrete	9
10. My brother’s nice but he’s not nice.	contradiction	10
11. It’s hard to say.	disclaimer	11
12. He’s like any brother.	generic	12
13. He’s nice.	related	13

Figure 1: Examples of features in rating task

The ‘Rank’ column shows the rank of each type of non-relatedness in the answers) based on the average scores of the 22 raters. The lowest ratings were given to unrecognizable lexis and word salad. Slightly higher ratings were given to unclear reference, no response, partial information, a functional description and the highest relatedness rank was given to topic switch after answer, concrete, contradiction and so on all the way to a related answer.

Feature	Judges’ Rating (1-7)	Rank (1-12)
unrecognizable lexis	1.3	1.5
word salad	1.3	1.5
topic switch instead of answer	1.4	3
unclear reference	2.1	4
no response	2.2	5
partial information	2.7	6
functional	2.9	7
topic switch after answer	3.2	8
concrete	4.2	9
contradiction	4.9	10
disclaimer	5.3	11
generic	5.4	12

Figure 2: Features that cause non-relation between an answer and its preceding question

Finally, a set of 34 answers from actual data were coded for these 13 kinds of non-relatedness; 20 answers for which we checked the concreteness of the preceding questions and another set of 14 answers for which we checked the congruence of the lexicogrammatical realization of the preceding questions.

Questions

To determine which types of questions elicit ‘non-relatedness, we coded a set of 20 questions for the number of imageable words to determine their relative level of concreteness.

Question	Imageable Words	Answer	Relatedness Rank
And what instrument do you play ?	3	Um, violin.	13
What do they teach you at ballet class ?	4	Just dancing and not fall.	13
Q. What kind of things do you help your mom out with at home ?	3	Washing dishes.	13
What position do you play ?	2	I don't take 'em. I just play 'em. I just play 'em –have fun with it.	4 (unclear reference)
How does he like that?	1	I like it's great.	4 (unclear reference)
Oh and what's he like?	1	It's hard to say.	11 (disclaimer)
What do you do with your friends ?	2	I don't want anyone, to do about got died.	1.5 (word salad)

Figure 3: Concreteness of questions as a predictor of relatedness of answers

We also coded another set of 14 different questions according to mood (wh-interrogatives, polar interrogatives, etc.) and then according to function (open or closed, demands for facts or opinions) to determine the effect of realizations by incongruent mood.

Question	Congruence	Answer	Relatedness Rank
How about the other schools, do they get that much time off too?	+	They get one week.	13
What are you going to do on your March break?	+	Nothing.	13
How do you get along with the other kids?	+	Ah, I get along fine. I get along fine.	13
Do you play sports at school?	+	Basketball and hockey. That's about it...	13
You don't have any problems?	-	I have friends at home too.	3 (topic switch instead of answer)
Oh, ok, you say you play some other sports?	-	Play some other sports.	6 (partial information)
No? You take turns pretty well?	-	Hardly anybody uses it anymore because they think it's old.	3 (topic switch instead of answer)
So, do you have favorite composers or pop artists?	- (open:fact realized by polar interrogative)	Um hum.	6 (partial information)

Figure 4: Congruence of questions as a predictor of relatedness of answers

3. Results

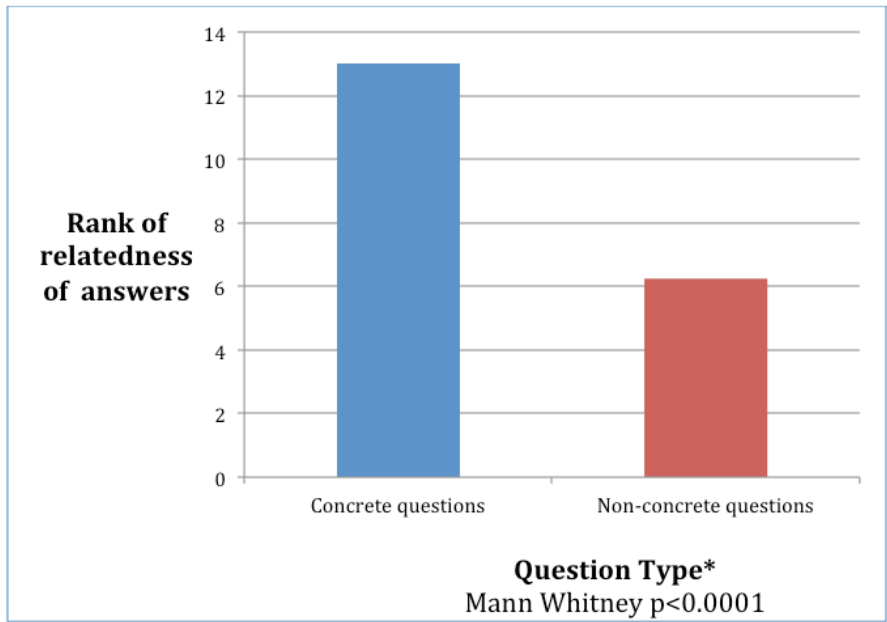


Figure 5: Results - Concreteness

Concreteness

Figure X shows that the average rank of related answers to concrete questions (3-4 imageable words) was considerably greater than average rank of related answers to non-concrete questions (0-2 imageable words) in the 20 question-answer pairs of actual data that were examined. On a Mann Whitney U test, this difference was highly significant.

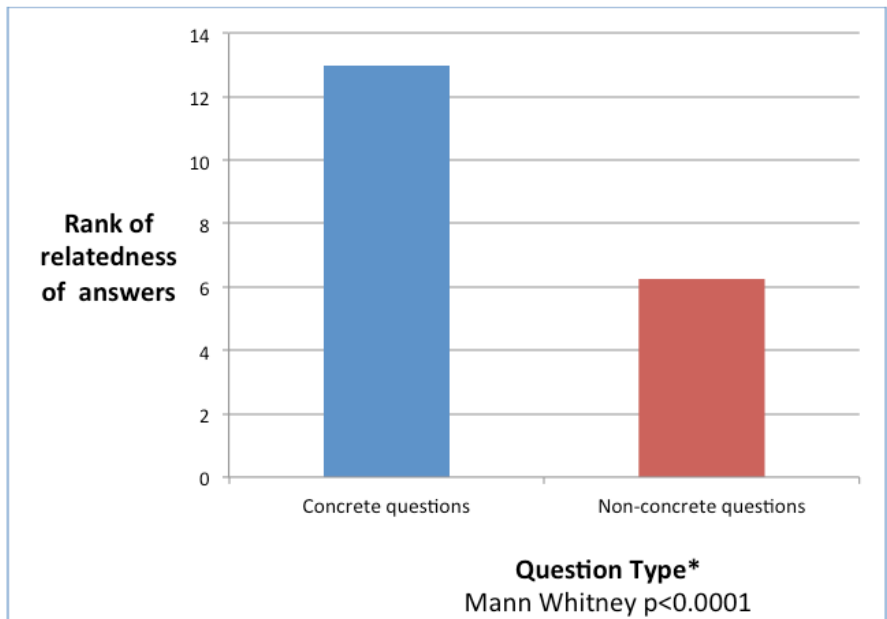


Figure 6: Results Congruence

Congruence

The effect of the congruence of the speech function and the mood that realizes it is presented in Figure X. And these are the average ranks of the relatedness scores for the congruence of the questions. The average rank of the relatedness of answers

to congruent questions is significantly greater (Mann-Whitney U, $p < 0.0001$) than the average relatedness rank of non-congruent questions in the 14 pairs of naturally occurring data that were examined.

4. Discussion and conclusions

The issue of non-relatedness in the answers given by speakers with autism was explored for congruence of speech functions and mood of the preceding question using SFL and for imageability using Dual Coding Theory.

The form and function of the questions was used to explore the possible linguistic trigger for the mismatch between a question and answer in speakers with autism. SFL addresses this issue because it is concerned with how language is used and structured to make meanings in context. The congruence of speech function and mood contributed significantly to the relatedness of the answers: the incongruent form of the question was associated with non-relatedness. Speakers with autism may not have recognized the specific demands of incongruently realized questions and therefore gave non-related answers. In addition, the more a question was concrete as measured by the number of imageable words and exophoric reference, the more the answers were judged as significantly more related.

Firstly, we can conclude that concreteness and congruence are aspects of the questions which may influence comprehension in children with ASD. Secondly, we can conclude that the twelve linguistic kinds of non-relatedness that were used for this research provided a consistent and validated measure of relatedness in autism.

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The Matter and Meanings of Visual Recourses in Language Textbooks:

A Contrastive Study of English Textbooks Used in Hong Kong and Chinese Mainland

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Keywords: pedagogical; semiotic; textbooks; images; multimodal

1. Introduction

Moving from "infirmity" to "interactivity", scholars' interests in multimodal studies have been gradually expanding in the past couple of decades. Within the area of multimodal discourse analysis, there have been several attempts to investigate functions and interpretation of multimodal printed materials (e.g. Kress and van Leeuwen 2006). Given the high popularity and common adoption of ELT textbooks for primary and secondary schooling, as a kind of printed materials, little research is found to explore the matters and meanings of its visual resources, from a both pedagogical and semiotic level. The focus of this study is to explore the to what extent visual resources are used in the textbooks, as the curriculums in both contexts (Hong Kong and Chinese Mainland) have explicitly articulated the significance of students' ability to read kinds of visual resources (e.g. pictures and diagrams).

With the rapid change of textbooks' texture from 'the densely printed page' (Kress 2004) to 'a complex interplay of multimodal elements' (Coffin and Derewianka 2009), a large number of multimodal linguists attempt to apply existing analytical models to analyze the textbooks multimodally across the curriculum. Guo (2004) developed a theoretical framework for the analysis of two types of visual displays common in biology textbooks (i.e. schematic drawings and statistical graphs) by using O'Toole's (1994) and O'Halloran's (1999) model and applying them to explore the metafunctional meanings of different semiotic elements in the biology texts. Based on multimodal conventions of meaning making that visual and linguistic semiotic modalities are codependent, Baldry and Thibault (2006) investigated how the codependence of verbal and visual recourses in science textbooks produce the multimodal meanings. Coffin and Derewianka (2009) analyzed layout in school history textbooks multimodally by using Kress and van Lueewen's (2006) signifying system. Unlike traditional textbooks such as biology textbooks, history textbooks which are designed to lead students to master knowledge specific to academic disciplines, English language teaching (ELT) textbooks did not play the same role (Byrd 2001). It is the language itself learned and practiced in textbooks (Kleckova 2004). The initial purpose of ELT textbooks is to help students master linguistics skills through the use of different themes in daily life (Kleckova 2004). Within the area of researching the materials or assessment for the subject of learning language, Unsworth and his colleagues (2006-2008) have researched the factors affecting the difficulty of students' multimodal reading. Chen (2010) worked on English textbooks used in Chinese Mainland and investigated how the visual and verbal semiotic resources are co-deployed to construe evaluative stance in the textbooks. Different from these previous studies, this paper presents an empirical study on the images employed in the textbooks from both a pedagogical and semiotic perspectives.

2. Context of the study

In both Hong Kong and Chinese Mainland contexts, the significance of learning English in schooling is widely recognized by Education Bureaus, schools, parents and students. For instance, the subject of English, or English Language Education, is one of the eight key learning areas of primary and secondary schooling, proposed by the Education Bureau of the Government of Hong Kong Special Administrative Region (Curriculum Development Council 2012) [note 1]. In the most recent Hong Kong curriculum for English language, exposure with visual elements in learning and teaching is highlighted: pictures and diagrams are mostly associated with pre-reading activities or vocabulary learning, e.g. predicting the content of a text from pictures matching pictures with word cards and learning vocabulary by using picture dictionary (Curriculum Development Council and Hong Kong Examinations and Assessment Authority 2007: 82). The current curriculum standard for English in Chinese Mainland has also explicitly stated that students are required to read diagram, table, signs and symbols (Curriculum Standards for English 2008: 2). Under those curriculums, this paper explores to the semiotic meanings of images and to what extent these images are scaffolded in the textbooks. The data under attention comprises 26 textbooks for primary, junior and senior secondary schooling. Textbooks used in Hong Kong were the latest available editions right after the new 3-3-4 academic structure, edited and published by Pearson Longman Hong Kong Education and Oxford University Press. The ones used in Chinese Mainland are published by People's Education Press (henceforth PEP) and Beijing Normal University Press (henceforth BNUP). Altogether 1135 images are included in those textbooks.

3. The relations of images with learning and teaching activities

Statistical summaries show that 1135 images of two different styles (i.e., photos and drawings) and two different ways of usages (i.e., pedagogical and non-pedagogical) are employed in the textbooks (see Table 1). Those images, which are clearly stated to relate with learning activity in the textbooks, are regarded as for pedagogical usages. For instance, there is one map of Canada in the pre-reading section in one unit of textbooks used in Chinese Mainland. In the task description, it reads "speak to your partner about the map of Canada and talk about how many places of Canada you have been". This picture is involved in the pedagogical learning activities, belonging to the category of pedagogical usage. Some pictures, like pens and faces of students, which no task description make uses of, are for non-pedagogical usage.

	Textbooks in Chinese Mainland (PEP)	Textbooks in Chinese Mainland (BNUP)	Textbooks in Hong Kong (Pearson Longman HK)	Textbooks in Hong Kong (Oxford University press)
Photos: Non-pedagogical	57.9%	35%	16.4%	45.5%
Drawings: Non-pedagogical	3.9%	13.3%	4.1%	9%
Photos: Pedagogical	21.1%	21.7%	46.6%	4.5%
Drawings: Pedagogical	17.1%	30%	32.9%	41%
Total number of images	100% (264)	100% (297)	100% (323)	100% (251)

Table 1: Pedagogical/Non-pedagogical usage of images in the textbooks

Table 1 has shown that most of images (including pictures and drawings) employed in the textbooks published by Pearson Longman Hong Kong are involved with pedagogical activities, whereas most of the images employed in the textbooks published by PEP in Chinese Mainland are for non-pedagogical usages. A further analysis has been conducted to investigate what kind of pedagogical use is included with images in those textbooks. The result has shown that the extent of images used in the textbooks is much varied than what has been described in the curriculum. It indicates a pressing need to grasp the meanings encoded in the multimodal texts. It also identifies the potentiality of those non-pedagogical images being used pedagogically in the classroom by teachers.

4. The relations of images with texts

In addition to pedagogical analysis of images employed in the textbooks, how images are related with texts from a semiotic perspective is presented as follows:

By applying to analyse the rhetorical structure (Bateman 2008) which is content driven and layout structure (Bateman 2008) which is visually motivated of each multimodal page, the relations of images with the texts in the textbooks are systemically identified.

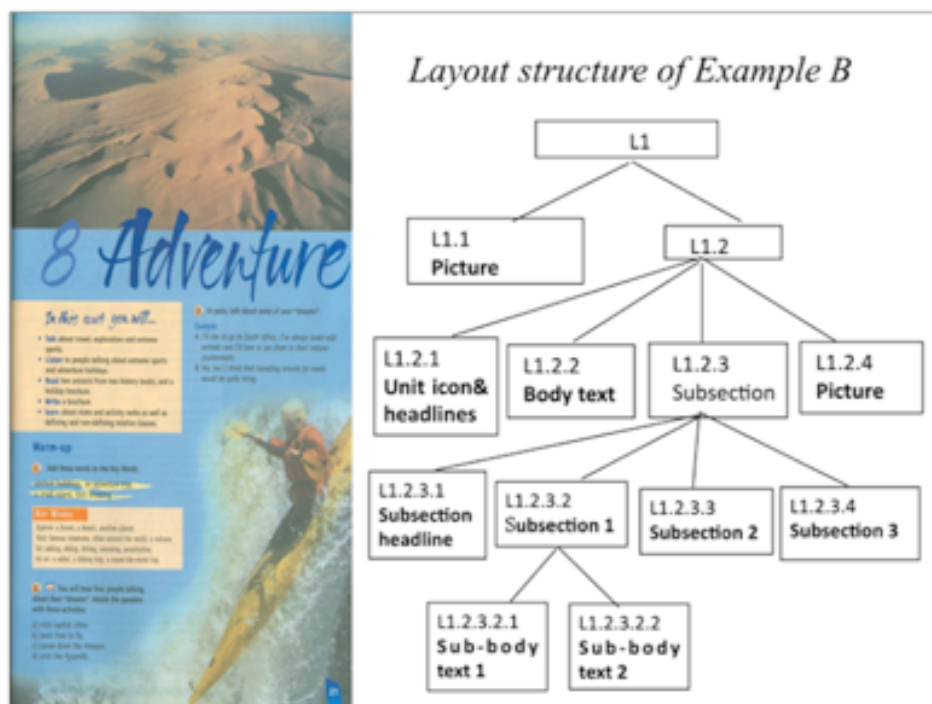


Figure 1: Layout structure of one example page from textbooks published by BNUP

Figure 1 presented the layout structure of one example page from textbooks published by BNUP, which is produced visually. In other words, visually the frame line between the picture of dessert and the whole body text with blue background divides the page into two major parts. The picture of surfing is integrated into the body text part. However, if producing the structure rhetorically (see Figure 2 below), the surfing presents one type of adventure, serving as interpretation of the unit headline together with the picture of dessert.

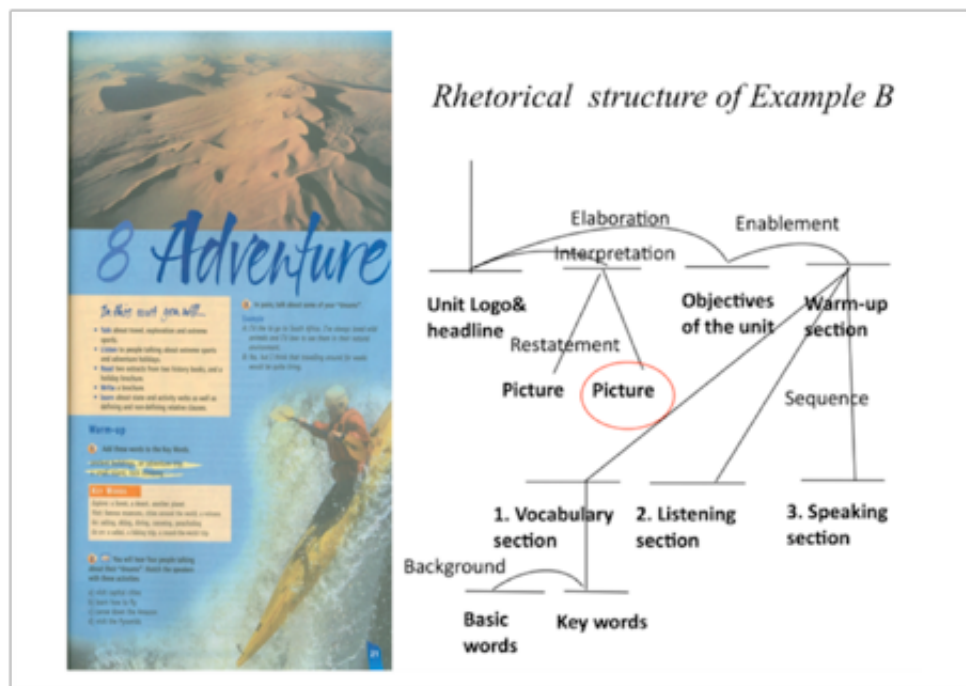


Figure 2: Rhetorical structure of one example page from textbooks published by BNUP

This mismatch of layout structure and rhetorical structure could serve to explore the relations between text and image from different perspectives, which also could identify the need of teachers' pedagogical support in certain points.

5. Conclusion

This empirical study of brings a knowledge of an understanding of images employed in the textbooks from both pedagogical and semiotic levels. It is found that images are involved with various activities in the textbooks, which are not expected in the curriculum. This shows a pressing need of meaning-making in multimodal texts and provided the potential of further exploring image of non-pedagogical use in the actual classroom by teachers. Another potential need for teachers' pedagogical support could be identified by exploring the relations between text and image visually and rhetorically.

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Notes

[1] The other seven key learning areas are: Chinese Language Education, Mathematics Education, Science Education (including Biology, Chemistry, Physics, Integrated Science and Combined Science), Technology Education (Business, Accounting and Financial Studies, Design and Applied Technology, Health Management and Social Care, Information and Communication Technology, Technology and Living), Personal, Social and Humanities Education (including Chinese History, Economics, Ethics and Religious Studies, Geography, History, Tourism and Hospitality Studies), Arts Education (including Music and Visual Arts), and Physical Education (Curriculum Development Council 2012a).

Alignment With Imagined Community, or Imagined Alignment in Anonymity?

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Keywords: identity; imagined community; interpersonal meaning; appraisal; mourning

1. Introduction

In today's digital era, online communities abound. Technology transcends physical distance and allows the like-minded to congregate and communicate. Dedicated sites are designed for community and executed with a format. This paper addresses another type of online belonging in digital space: that of 'imagined community' (Anderson 1991). This paper examines fans' mourning and acts of remembrance after the death of Steve Jobs in 2011 and looks at how community and identity are constructed in short messages in non-dedicated digital spaces, such as YouTube user comments.

Initially, Anderson's conceptualisation encompassed nations as imagined communities; sense of nationality is but a sense of belonging to an imagined community: imagined, by necessity, as the members of a community as large as a nation would never meet. Anderson's conceptualisation has since been used in different fields, for example in consumer studies (Rokka and Moisander 2009) looking at online communities. Anderson (1991:6) points out that all communities are essentially imagined (perhaps excluding some tribal face-to-face communities). Furthermore, the truth or falsity of a community is not as important as the style in which they are imagined (ibid.). From the point of view of belonging, important in all communities is mutual recognisability as members of the group.

Communities everywhere are socially and discursively constructed. Participation in online spaces is enabled by technology and social media, but while these have their unique affordances, they also have constraints: one being the lack of known audience (Boyd and Heer 2006: 1), another the lack of readily detectable social context (ibid.). To account for the lack of the physical and the related social cues, the "artefacts of performance create the context of a digital environment" (Boyd and Heer 2006: 4). At the same time, social practices are moving from the private to the public sphere: mediated, communal bereavement is increasingly common and not restricted to celebrity deaths. Expressions of grief are no longer limited to social media sites of purpose, but can be found in what can be described as 'emergent communality'. In this paper, the digital artefact of performance that creates the social context, laying the foundations for such emergent communality, is a fan-produced, commemorative YouTube video of Steve Jobs, in itself an act of remembrance.

2. Methodology

Within the SFL framework (Halliday and Matthiessen 2004), this study focuses on interpersonal and ideational metafunctions. The ideational meaning is about experience, how it is presented, whereas the interpersonal meaning shows social relationships and how these are enacted, also the stance that is taken toward both content and audience. The aim of this study is to examine which linguistic strategies are used to construct identity and a set of shared beliefs in short, personal messages online. Using the Appraisal Theory (Martin and White 2005; Martin and Rose 2003), the paper looks at how Appraisal resources are employed to create a sense of community by way of inviting the reader(s) to engage in an "attitudinal rapport" (Martin 2004: 323). Additionally, how do community members align with each other, but also with the 'Other', to construct their identities? The ways in which 'attitudinal rapport' serves to strengthen the alignment within the community are also examined. Alignment is understood as a form of interpersonal affiliation.

Under the Appraisal system, part of the interpersonal metafunction, we have Engagement, Attitude and Graduation: this paper focuses on attitudinal resources. Martin (2000) divides Attitude further into Affect (emotional responses), Judgement (moral evaluations of behaviour), and Appreciation (valuing things). Graduation and Engagement are concerned with amplification of attitude and the sourcing of attitude, respectively, with attitude as the basic system (ibid.). There is a coupling of ideational meaning and appraisal: attitude is interpersonal meaning toward ideation (Martin 2004). In the case of humour and sarcasm, we see an incongruent coupling of these two. Humour is an important aspect of rapport.

As data, a fan-produced video commemoration, using Mac sounds as music, titled 'In Dedication – Thank you, Steve' is used together with the user comments it has generated: a total of 630 user comments and as many as 351 455 views. It also has

3622 'likes' and 197 'dislikes'. The video, uploaded October 13th, 2011, can be found on YouTube under the following URL: http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=u8dxnWI_fTM. At the time of writing it has been two years since the death of Jobs: comments are still coming in. One dedicated website is included, a memorial page by Apple at www.apple.com/stevejobs. This website was referred to in order to gain more insight on the fan discourse. However, this site is moderated and does not show group dynamics or interaction of any kind, but it does validate the observation that many of the fans attach a personal significance to Jobs, an in-group ethos also found in the emergent community constituted by user commentary.

3. Results and discussion

The ideational meanings in the user comments relate to Steve Jobs and his death. However, the interpersonal meaning toward the ideation, the attitude, differs between in-group and out-group. These fundamentally different groups conceptualise Jobs differently: for the in-group Jobs is the epitome of inspiration and innovation, whereas for the out-group Jobs represents what in their eyes is wrong with our society: capitalism, modern forms of slavery, sweat shops, lack of humanity, and so on. Thus, the emotional affect that is linguistically bestowed onto the shared attitude object, Jobs, differs greatly: in terms of the Appraisal system, the attitude prevalent among the in-group is positive Appreciation and positive Affect, whereas the out-group tends to express negative attitude across the board, from negative Affect to negative Judgement and Appreciation. The struggle is much about the representation of history, of who Steve Jobs was. In resisting the in-group ethos, the out-group, acting as a 'social critic', intervenes and offers an alternative to what is a jointly constructed interpretation of Jobs. However, this ideological battle only strengthens the in-group identity, as well as helps deepen the attitudinal alignment among the in-group members.

Looking at the communicative dynamics of the two groups an interesting pattern emerges. In terms of Appraisal, we see the ebb and flow of positive and negative attitude already mentioned. Interestingly, there seem to be five distinct stages in the process of alignment and community building: first, establishing the community ethos by digital, multimodal means: visually by video, audibly by music, and also verbally: the digital artefact provides the social context (Boys and Heer 2006), attracting like-minded fans by way of 'invitation to community' (Martin 2004). Also, the putative reader is not only written into the text(s) produced on the site, but is digitally and multimodally included in the performance. Second, community ideology and fan discourse is (re)created by what Martin (2004) calls 'attitudinal rapport'. Neither community nor belonging are static, but dynamic processes: while the digital space allows particularized self-expression, it is these expressions of identity, acts of remembrance, that create the community. As noted by Jarvis (2011), creating a collective memory, the performance of remembrance creates what the community members believe was already there. Belonging is very much based on shared values and affect. Third, the community is subject to ferocious discursive and ideological attack from outside. Typically, the out-group discourse has negative undertones in the context: however, context plays a significant role in rendering some discourses natural while rendering others unacceptable. Regarding ideological contextualisation, van Dijk (2001) mentions that ideology works in indirect ways, too; through a biased representation of a social situation, some attitudes become neutralised, making them seem natural, while making other attitudes seem unnatural. Fourth, the community responds with equal negativity, defending their territory and their representations. Upon the clash, community boundaries are defended and negotiated, as are identities. Sense of the 'Other' is important for the establishment of the self, and this leads us to the final, fifth stage: a reinforced sense of identity, leading to increased unity. As members unite and re-align to defend their space and ideology, in the process they gain a strengthened sense of community, and from the dispute, a common social identity.

Following social identity theory (Reicher 2004; Pyysiäinen 2011), common social identity differentiates us from other social groups; personal identity differentiates us from other individuals. Identification with a common social identity is likely to lead to intergroup behaviour (*ibid.*). The current study supports this: interaction takes place between different groups more than between individuals. The ideological clash is also a battle between a local experience versus a global one: while the in-group focuses on personal, positive experience, the out-group emphasises an experience very much outside the individual.

This paper shows how digital spaces enable identity expression in new, multimodal ways, but also how these performances may facilitate identity expression of others. Additionally, the ways in which alignment techniques make use of attitudinal and evaluative resources was discussed. While online anonymity may increase hostility (Santana 2013), it also encourages participation. Anonymity does not necessarily stand in the way of intimacy, but rather, it may facilitate identity expression. Finally, the growing importance of online spaces for social practices usually deemed private, such as grieving, was also pointed out.

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On Describing Contexts of Situation: A Participant's View

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Keywords: language event; context; situation; data collection; text

This paper is linked to Margaret Berry's paper (pp. 17-19). It relates to a joint project being carried out by Margaret, Geoff Thompson and myself, which is investigating how two particular people (my friend Ruth and I) use language in different ways in different contexts of situation (Berry, Thompson and Hillier, forthcoming). Our procedure is as follows. (1) I have provided the data, this consisting of (a) a wide range of texts and (b) my participant's account of the contexts which gave rise to the texts. (2) Margaret and I are now attempting to characterise the contexts in such a way as to bring out the differences in contextual features between them. I am drawing on insights from Gregory and Carroll (1978), Halliday and Hasan (1989) and Hillier (2004). Margaret is drawing on insights from later SFL discussions, particularly the work of Hasan (e.g. 1999 and 2009). (3) Margaret and Geoff will then analyse the texts to see if the contextual features we have identified seem to have influenced the semantic choices that Ruth and I have made [note 1].

1. Introduction

The paper introduces a collection of 'texts', i.e. the representations of the linguistic elements of 17 different language events featuring one or the other (or both) of two close women friends, R and H. These events took place over a period of 18 years, beginning with R's PhD thesis in 1986, through conversations between R and H, H's PhD thesis in 1990 and various letters either between R and H or written by H to publishers, culminating in H's textbook in 2004. The paper describes the background to the material overall, including information about the key participants and the relevant circumstances in each case.

2. Identifying the significant features of each of the language events

The paper identifies and describes the significant features of each of the situations across the 17 events, taking each one in chronological order. Substantial use is made of Hillier (2004) for this purpose, especially Chapter 1: "Motivating Principles and Procedures", which drew upon the insights of Gregory and Carroll (1978), Halliday and Hasan (1989) and others. The paper attempts to arrive at a synthesis of these approaches, informally adopting 'Mode', 'Field' and 'Tenor' as very broad terminological labels, and analysing each event independently, as follows:

Mode: Each language event is given an approximate placing on a range of independent scales drawn from Hasan (1989: 57-9) and Brazil (1983: 158-9): phonic/graphic channel; two-way/one-way process; +/-visual contact; ancillary/constitutive language role; spontaneous/prepared.

Field: Each event is categorised according to its perceived overall purpose, whether personal/social or professional/academic. 'Field' is thus regarded as subsuming Gregory and Carroll's "functional tenor" (1978: 53-4).

Tenor: Each event is categorised in terms of personal tenor, i.e. role and status relations; whether participants are acting as producer or audience and, if audience, whether as individual or non-individual/specialist audience; whether relationships between participants are peer or non-peer.

3. Categorisation of language events and suggested ordering for perceived formality

The paper groups events into broad categories: conversations, letters, textbook and PhD theses. Each of the twelve letters is then examined for a range of specific features: its manner of production (whether hand- or computer-/typewritten); whether address of producer and/or audience is specified; forms of salutation and valediction used; extent of use of 'spoken' features etc. The findings from both Section 2 and the analysis of the letters are then used to place the 17 language events in an overall order of perceived formality (see Figure 1).

Conversations

- A Telephone conversation 30 October 1986 [2]
- B Face-to-face conversation 22 November 1998 [9]

Letters

- C 'Personal letter' 6 November 1990 from H to R [4]
- D 'Personal letter' 21 April 1996 from R to H [7]
- E '(semi-)Professional letter' 15 April 1996 from H to R [6]
- F '(semi-)Professional letter' 19 April 1999 from H to R [10]
- G '(semi-)Professional letter' c.1990-91 from R to H [5]
- H 'Professional letter' 20 December 2000 from H to Frances A [11]
- I 'Professional letter' 5 March 2001 from H to Frances A [12]
- J 'Professional letter' 21 March 2001 from H to Beverley T [13]
- K 'Professional letter' 1 June 2001 from H to Beverley T [14]
- L 'Professional letter' 6 July 2001 from H to Beverley T [15]
- M 'Professional letter' 31 July 2001 from H to Felicity N [16]
- N 'Professional letter' ('permission letter') 22 April 1996 from R to H [8]

Textbook

- O Textbook (Hillier 2004) [17]

PhD theses

- P PhD thesis (Riley 1986) [1]
- Q PhD thesis (Hillier 1990) [3]

Figure 1: Formality – Language events grouped into categories and placed in overall order of perceived 'Formality', A to Q.

(Added numbers correspond to the order in the original chronology of events)

Figure 1: Formality - Language events grouped into categories and placed in overall order of perceived 'Formality', A to Q
(Added numbers correspond to the order in the original chronology of events)

4. Arriving at 'text'

The paper concludes by examining the status of a 'text'. It identifies the different stages involved in the process of data collection which lead to the production of any 'text', for example the actual audio (or video) recording of a given conversation, the (inevitably imperfect) transcription of that conversation, and then the selection of one or more particular extract/s for close examination. It illustrates (some of) these stages by relating them to the 17 specific language events already described. Each of the resulting 'texts' may be regarded as representing the linguistic element of its particular language event (or part/s thereof), and may thus be made available for subsequent linguistic analysis (see Figure 2).

Conversations

- A.1: language element of telephone conversation between R and H, 30 October 1986 [2]
- A.2: audiotape recording of part/most of that conversation
- A.3 (i): transcript of first extract from that recording, as represented in Hillier 2004: 64-66 (555 words)
- A.3 (ii): transcript of second extract from that recording [H re PhD etc. (1500 words approx)]

- B.1: language element of face-to-face conversation between R and H, 22 November 1998 [9]
- B.2: audiotape recording of part/most of that conversation; subsequent digitised version for use on computer
- B.3 (i): transcript of first extract from that recording, as represented in Hillier 2004:66-67 (591 words)
- B.3 (ii): transcript of second extract from that recording [H re CELE etc] (? words)

Letters

- C.1: Personal letter 6 November 1990 from H to R, hand-written [4]
- C.2: computer-reproduced version (116 words)

- D.1: Personal letter 21 April 1996 from R to H, hand-written [7]
- D.2: computer-reproduced version of that letter (84 words)

- E.1: 'Semi-professional' letter 15 April 1996 from H to R, computer-written [6]
- E.2: reproduced and edited version of that letter (234 words)

- F.1: 'Semi-professional' letter 19 April 1999 from H to R, computer-written [10]
- F.2: reproduced and edited version of that letter (375 words)

- G.1: Semi-professional' letter c. 1990-91, from R to H, hand-written [5]
- G.2: computer-reproduced version of that letter (106 words)

- H.1: 'Professional' letter 20 December 2000 from H to FA, computer-written [11]
- H.2: reproduced and edited file version of that letter (629 words)

- I.1: 'Professional' letter 5 March 2001 from H to FA, computer-written [12]
- I.2: reproduced file version of that letter (310 words)

- J.1: 'Professional' letter 21 March 2001 from H to BT, computer-written [13]
- J.2: reproduced file version of that letter (1,387 words)

- K.1: 'Professional' letter 1 June 2001 from H to BT, computer-written [14]
- K.2: reproduced file version of that letter (253 words)

- L.1: 'Professional' letter 6 July 2001 from H to BT, computer-written [15]
- L.2: reproduced and edited file version of that letter (559 words)

- M.1: 'Professional' letter 31 July 2001 from H to FN, computer-written [16]
- M.2: reproduced file version of that letter (280 words)

- N.1: 'Professional' letter 22 April 1996 from R to H, type-written [8]
- N.2: computer-reproduced version of that letter (81 words)

Textbook

- O1: Chapter 4 from Hillier 2004, 'Women's Talk' (61-92; 233-237) [17]
- O.2: computer-reproduced versions of extracts from that chapter
- O.2 (i): Description of the data, pp. 64 & 66 (396 words)
- O.2 (ii): Overall comparison of findings, pp. 88-91 (1,158 words)

PhD theses

- P.1: PhD thesis Riley 1986 [1]
- P.2: computer-reproduced versions of extracts from that thesis
- P.2 (i) Description of the Data Base etc., pp. 15-18, 32-23 (1,600 words approx)
- P.2 (ii) Participants, power, status etc., pp. 28-32 (1,150 words approx)
- P.2 (iii) Conclusions, pp. 249-253 (1,229 words)

- Q.1: PhD thesis Hillier 1990 [3]
- Q.2 computer-reproduced versions of extracts from that thesis
- Q.2 (i) The data for this study, pp. 57-59, 62-65 (1,600 words approx)
- Q.2 (ii) Participants, relationships etc., 65-70 (1,250 words approx)
- Q.2 (iii) Conclusions, pp. 376-380 (1,184 words)

Figure 2: Texts - Suggested stages in arriving at 'texts' intended for ultimate analysis
(Added numbers correspond to the order in the original chronology of events)

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Notes

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Observing Texts Digitally: At the Interface of Lexis and Grammar

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Keywords: popular science; lexicogrammar; adjectives; appraisal theory; corpus linguistics

Introduction

It is well-known that corpus linguistics and SFL share much common ground. This can be emphasised or minimised; the relationship can be construed as consensual or conflicting. For example, Halliday (2008) stresses the complementarity between his own work, mainly concerned with the grammar end of the lexicogrammatical systems, and that of Sinclair and similar researchers, who work with the lexical end of the same systems. Sinclair (1991) stresses the primacy of what might be called the lexical phrase – the meaning unit that is a semi-fixed phrase – but makes no reference to a system of increasing delicacy. The lexical item shoulders aside grammatical systems. Most strikingly, McEnery and Hardie (2011), in discussing the relationship between corpus linguistics and other view of linguistics, make little mention of SFL.

In this paper I make two assumptions about both corpus linguistics and SFL, both of which are only partially correct. I talk about corpus linguistics as about lexis and SFL as about grammar; and I talk about corpus linguistics as quantitative in character and SFL as qualitative in character. I present three studies, each of which draws on these contrasts to different effects. The first asks the questions: how can models of grammar and of lexis be drawn on to elucidate the construal of ideology, with the particular case study of a popular science text, and how does quantitative information add to the interpretation? The second and third ask the question: how does a corpus-based view of evaluative lexis interact with the Attitude systems proposed by Martin and White (2005)?

Case Study 1: Projection, nominalisation and lexis in popular science

The basis of this case study is the contribution of SFL to the study of the language of science, in particular how the frequency of grammatical choices construes the ideology of science. The case study builds on this by adding a focus on lexis and on relative frequency. It is based on a single text: the popular science book *The Rough Guide to Evolution* (Pallen 2009). The text is examined from the point of view of evaluations of the epistemic status of propositions, as in (proposition underlined, status marker in bold):

(1) *Physicist Stephen Hawking has even **suggested** that computer viruses count as living organisms.*

(2) *These approaches **assume** that the mineral has remained a closed system since its formation, an **assumption** that can easily be tested by using multiple independent isotopic dating methods.*

(3) *However, in the last fifty years, abundant **evidence** from molecular biology has amply **confirmed** Darwin's **suspicions** making it dramatically **clear** that all living organisms on this planet - from humans to hydrangeas, from molluscs to microbes - are descended from a single organism*

In SFL, the central grammatical area associated with examples of this kind is *projection*, i.e. paratactic projection (e.g. *Darwin once wrote: "With a book, as with a fine day;* hypotactic projection (e.g. *Darwin himself noted that it is impossible to distinguish...); or noun postmodification (e.g. *Inherent to social Darwinism was the suggestion that the richest and most socially developed...)*. In other words the grammar of projection clause complexes distinguishes three levels of proposition: free-standing, subsidiary to a verbal or mental process, or embedded as part of a noun phrase. There is a progression of mediation on the part of the writer from the quote (least mediated) through the report to the embedded projection (most mediated). Nominalisation adds a further layer of mediation, as illustrated when nominalised propositions are 'unpacked':*

(4a) ... Cambrian fossils, when scrutinized in detail, often **show** affiliations to some existing animal group

could be expressed more congruently as:

(4b) ...scrutiny of Cambrian fossils often **shows** that they are affiliated to some existing animal group

or as:

(4c) When scientists look at Cambrian fossils, they **conclude** that the fossilised creatures are affiliated to some existing animal group.

Moving from the grammatical to the lexical leads to observations that are more easily made using digitised texts. 'That-clauses' and their associated lexis have been extensively studied from a corpus linguistics perspective. These studies include quantitative information about words that co-occur with that-clauses, and this is both presented in 'raw' terms (which words are most frequent or most significantly frequent) and interpreted in terms of sets of meaning distinctions. One crucial distinction that is identified is the degree of speaker commitment towards the proposition in the that-clause. This is demonstrated by the choice of verb (*suggested* as opposed to *pointed out*), noun (*idea* as opposed to *discovery*) or adjective (*clear* as opposed to *possible*). The second distinction is the representation of the source of knowledge being a person (*Francis Crick suggested that...*) or an entity (*complete fossil skeletons have confirmed that...*) or an activity (*linguistic experiments have established that...*) or an impersonal recasting of the speaker themselves (*it is clear*). In the case of studies of academic prose, this information is interpreted qualitatively in terms of the epistemology of the disciplines involved.

A quantitative study of *RGE* that distinguishes between 'possibility' and 'fact' verbs and between human and non-human subjects demonstrates that human subjects are more associated with 'possibility' verbs and non-human subjects with 'fact' verbs, as in these examples:

(5) Importantly, Hutton was among the first to **suggest** that the Earth is much older than the biblical accounts allow. [human subject, 'possibility' verb]

(6) These findings **show** that the Rift Valley did not represent a barrier to chimpanzee occupation. [non-human subject, 'fact' verb]

This reflects an ideology of science: ideas are proposed by people but knowledge is confirmed by evidence.

A further study of status-marking nouns shows a strong association between the 'possibility' status and nouns, rather than verbs. The following, therefore, are statistically prototypical:

(7) The experimental conditions led to the synthesis of thirteen of the twenty amino acids found in proteins and **proved** that most of the building blocks of life could arise through non-biological processes. ['fact' proposition, status marked by a verb]

(8) ...central to his hypothesis is the **belief** that modern humans and Neanderthals inter-bred and that Neanderthals contributed to the modern European gene pool. ['possibility' proposition, status marked with a noun]

Case study 2: Adjective patterns and categories of Appraisal

Adjectives express Appraisal, and an obvious step is to examine adjectives complementation patterns in an attempt to identify regularities of mapping between patterns and Appraisal categories. These are rarely straightforward, however. For example, adjectives occurring with the **Adjective + to-infinitive** pattern, such as *afraid*, *desperate*, *competent* and *right*, express both Affect and Judgement, or may alternatively be interpreted as either Reporting or Performing Attitude, as illustrated below:

Affect: Reporting

(9) *He was afraid to speak his mind*

(10) *They are desperate to cling to power*

Judgement: Performing

(11) *He was not competent to deal with the issues*

(12) *Perhaps she was right to avoid the press*

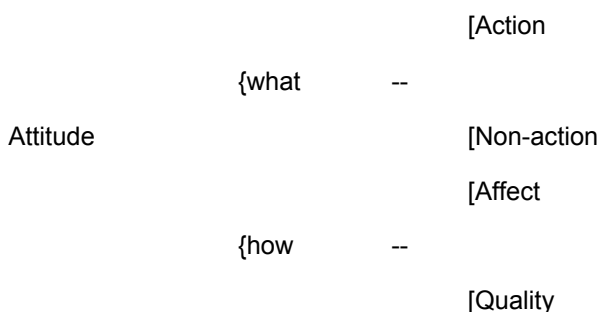
In many cases, it can be argued that two analyses are possible, interpreting the utterance as either Affect or Judgement/Appreciation. For example,

(13) *I was a bit annoyed with the first offer put to me*

can be interpreted either/both as an expression of Affect ('I was annoyed') or/and as an expression of Appreciation (of 'the first offer'). Dual analyses of these and other examples can be offered. Each analysis is 'correct', but each offers an alternative reading. Essentially, the function of the utterance is interpreted as to indicate what someone feels, or to assess the quality of an entity. In the following table, the analysis at the top analyses Affect while the analysis at the bottom analyses Judgement:

Noun	Verb	Adjective	That-clause
EXPERIENCER		EMOTION	STIMULUS
I	feel	a bit angry	that we were left to fend for ourselves
Generations...	have been	grateful	that his bookcase fell on him...
I	am	happy	he had nothing to do with this
The President	was	unhappy	that not a single Republican voted for him.
EVALUATOR		EVALUATION	TARGET

I argue that this in turn suggests a rearrangement of the Attitude system. Instead of Affect, Judgement, Appreciation being sub-systems of Attitude, Attitude might be seen as the entry point to two simultaneously selected systems: 'what is evaluated' (human behaviour or another entity) and 'how it is evaluated' (via an expression of Affect or an assessment of quality). As shown here:



Case study 3: Adjectives in *Rate My Professors*

The third case study reports a project carried out by Neil Millar, based on evaluative adjectives in a corpus of messages posted on the RateMyProfessors.com website (*RMP*). His methodology is comparable to that used by Biber (e.g. 1988) in implementing Multi-Dimensional Analysis, wherein language features are identified as significantly co-occurring in a collection of texts, and groups of co-occurring features are subsequently assigned a meaning. In Millar's study, instead of assigning adjectives to groups based a perceived congruence of meaning (as was done in Francis et al. 1998), or assigning adjectives to categories of Judgement or Appreciation, as identified by Martin and White, an alternative kind of group is established, based on strength of co-occurrence. For example, Millar finds that sets of posts that include the word *brilliant* often also include the word *intelligent* and the word *incredible*, but not, for example, the word *horrible*.

Using Principle Component Analysis, Millar establishes 7 groups of adjectives and interprets each as representing a dimension of evaluation:

1. *Helpful, willing, sweet, caring, understanding, available, approachable*. Millar's dimension: 'HELPFULNESS'
2. *Funny, hilarious, entertaining, fun, quirky, sarcastic*. Millar's dimension: 'HUMOUR'
3. *Rude, condescending, arrogant, unhelpful, mean*. Millar's dimension: 'RUDENESS'
4. *Brilliant, intelligent, knowledgeable, smart, passionate, inspiring, engaging, interesting*. Millar's dimension: 'INTELLIGENCE'
5. *Unclear, terrible, boring, unorganised, confusing, sweet*. Millar's dimension: 'INCOMPETENCE'
6. *Tough, hard, difficult, intimidating, fair, clear*. Millar's dimension: 'DIFFICULTY'
7. *Hot, gorgeous, beautiful, attractive*. Millar's dimension: 'APPEARANCE'

A number of points might be made about these groupings. The first is that the groups are intuitively coherent. On the other hand, they include both polarities, indicating which qualities are complementary (e.g. *tough* and *fair*) rather than opposite.

The 'positive' groups, 1, 2, 4, 6, reflect intellectual ability (how clever?) and interpersonal ability ('how skilled as a teacher' or 'how good as a person?'). In other words, the contents of the groups imply that in this corpus qualities are inflected towards the end-user. For example, group 4 above ('intelligence') includes *passionate, inspiring, engaging, interesting* as well as *brilliant*, and group 2 ('humour') includes *entertaining* and *fun* as well as *hilarious* and *enthusiastic*.

Finally, some adjectives are statistically associated with more than one set. Of these four groups – 'helpfulness', 'humour', 'intelligence', 'difficulty' – the only two that are not linked by shared adjectives are 'humour' and 'difficulty'. These confirm the inflections noted above and suggest that in the corpus there are three intersecting voices: evaluator as novice intellectual (valuing intelligence and difficulty); evaluator as consumer (valuing being entertained, interested and helped); evaluator as subordinate (valuing fairness and approachability). (Compare Coffin's (2002) account of evaluative voice in History texts.)

Given these observations, what are the implications for Appraisal theory? That is, do they suggest that Appraisal theory could assist the interpretation? Or do they suggest a re-working of the theory, or a confirmation of its categories?

We can investigate more closely how the Millar dimensions intersect with Attitude categories.

1. *Helpful, willing, sweet, caring, understanding, available, approachable*. (Positive polarity; Judgement; Social sanction; Propriety). Judging from Martin and White (2005: 53) this group belongs to 'moral goodness' or 'propriety'. On the other hand, the qualities all seem to be very personal – integral to someone's personality rather than capable of being 'taught'. There are specific qualities, all of the same kind (*helpful, caring, patient*) and more general adjectives (*sweet, nice, kind*), and some very general ones (*great, awesome, amazing*). This might be compared to the criticism of the RmP website, that writers judge personality rather than skill. This

important cluster of adjectives makes a moral judgement but make that judgement about someone's qualities rather than their actions. It also includes a number of general adjectives, which suggests that overall quality is based more on these moral and personal goodness categories than anything else.

2. *Funny, hilarious, entertaining, fun, quirky*. (Positive polarity; Judgement; Social esteem; Normality). This is assigned to 'Normality' because of the presence of *quirky*, but might belong to Capacity. It includes general adjectives (*great, awesome, amazing*) and a Reaction one: *entertaining* (= I feel entertained). As one of the positive categories, it suggests a high value being placed on this aspect of behaviour.
3. *Rude, condescending, arrogant, unhelpful, mean*. (Negative polarity; Judgement; Social sanction; Propriety). This is the obverse of group 1 and is 'moral badness'. The specific qualities relate to intellectual superiority and interpersonal ineptitude, and there are general adjectives too.
4. *Brilliant, intelligent, knowledgeable, smart*. (Positive polarity; Judgement; Social esteem; Capacity). This is a clear example of the Capacity value. It includes general adjectives (*incredible, amazing*) and some Reaction ones (*interesting, engaging*) (=I feel interested, engaged).
5. *Horrible, unclear, terrible, boring, unorganised, confusing*. (Negative polarity; Judgement; Social esteem; Capacity). This belongs fairly clearly to Capacity and is the obverse of group 4. Quite a lot of general adjectives (*horrible, terrible, awful*) and Reactions (*boring, confusing*).
6. *Tough, hard, difficult, intimidating*. (Positive/Negative polarity?; Judgement; Social esteem; Capacity?). This is both positive and negative and probably fits within Capacity, though this is not very certain. It includes Reaction adjectives e.g. *intimidating*.
7. *Hot, gorgeous, beautiful, attractive*. (Positive polarity; Appreciation). Not really worth further comment.

A number of points are raised by this study. Most but not all of the adjective groups fit into the Martin and White categories. However, the ones that are least easy to account for – 'humour' and 'difficulty' – are important to this register. The listing suggests that some distinctions about 'how' evaluation is done, as well as what is evaluated, might be useful; particular instances are: the distinctions between specific and general adjectives; and the distinction between assigning a quality and noting a reaction. The second of these corresponds to the suggestion above that Affect be seen as a 'how' question rather than a 'what' question. In summary, as a means of indicating what evaluative categories are appropriate for a very large amount of data in a restricted register, the methodology works well.

Conclusions

Halliday's observations about complementarity are supported by the first study. The study shows that investigations into language and ideology are enhanced by paying attention to both lexis and grammar. Quantitative information – identifying statistical trends – and qualitative information – interpreting individual instances – complement each other.

The study here belongs to a growing tradition of papers that combine a focus on lexis – what words are frequent or of thematic significance – and on grammar in the sense of process types. For the most part the studies either start with SFL, and use corpora as an additional methodology. Many, however, start with corpus linguistics, and bring in the SFL as explanatory where necessary. This study belongs to the second tradition.

In the adjective studies the focus is on form and on quantity. Approaches are used that take form and quantity first and meaning second, and this is contrasted with an approach based first on contextualized meaning and only secondly on form. It is tempting to suggest that the apparently objective corpus linguistics might offer a test of predictions based on SFL – essentially viewing SFL as a theory for which evidence might be found. But, arguably, SFL is not a theory in that 'test-able' sense; rather it offers a reading of textual evidence. The second study suggests an alternative reading based on an alternative way into the data. The third study raises the question of what happens when register-specific categories are suggested by co-occurrence and to what extent this calls into question models of lexis and grammar that are based on meaning first and form second.

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Hypertext's Return to Linearity

The Case of Hotel Websites

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Keywords: hotel websites; hypertext; linearity; reading path

1. The Given

Perhaps the most outstanding quality of online texts is their network character, which is established through the linking of text or other modalities within a website and outside this website to other webs. It is this particular feature – this linking "in some way other than by the default sequential convention of ordinary reading" (Lemke 2002: 300) – that has shaped such texts as non-linear constructs and has created the metaphor of the internet as a three-dimensional web. While typical internet texts may still have a fairly clear beginning in the top left corner of the homepage of a website, they can neither be read along a pre-composed reading path, nor do they have a distinct end. Quite on the contrary, they are not even designed to be read as a whole and in a particular order but are composed as databases and networks containing much more information than necessary. This allows individual users to search for and retrieve information according to their personal needs. It also implies that users can access individual items of information in more than one way: words, phrases, sentences, images, etc. are frequently interlinked in a number of ways in what Baldry and Thibault (2006: 26) call a "semiotic cascade", enabling users to come back to the same information time and again. The more important a piece of information is considered by the designers of a website, the higher the number of links that navigate the user to this item. Hence, the importance of information is not signposted by means of the traditional discursive tools for creating information redundancy, like repetition, paraphrase, substitution, etc., but through multiplying the thematic links to one and the same unvaried piece of information.

2. The New

Recent trends discernible in hotel websites, however, seem to reflect a turning point in this design strategy which results in a return in text composition to a traditional, more linear structure. This claim shall here be substantiated with the analyses of two different versions of two hotel websites: of Hotel Sacher in Vienna and The Sheraton in Salt Lake City, and of their corresponding representations on the hotel reservation platform booking.com.

2.1. Hotel Sacher, Vienna

Hotel Sacher [note 1] in Vienna, Austria, is a famous 5-star hotel with a history dating back to the 19th century. The hotel website is organized in a simple and surprisingly linear form. In fact, most of it can be read like a printed hotel brochure in landscape format. Each page in the website is identical in size and layout and fits easily into the browser's screen, which releases the reader from the necessity of having to scroll vertically or horizontally across the page. All pages are headed by the logo and the 'menu bar' in the 'top banner' (cf. Baldry and Thibault 2006: 115). The different menus organize the website into eight sections (chapters). These eight sections are thematically arranged according to their significance, listing the most important categories first. The eight menus are Rooms, Dining, Conferences & Celebrations, Sacher Spa, Concierge, Petit Sacher, Impressions, News. Some of these sections contain subsections (sub-chapters), which range in number from one to nine. If existent, the subsections are visualized in a 2x3 or 3x3 table, with each box showing a thumbnail of the sub-page it indexes.

The most salient item on each page is a large picture filling up the entire screen. This picture functions as an individual eye-catcher to each page. It is foregrounded in the upper two thirds of the 'centre-left panel' – in terms of Baldry and Thibault's (2006: 115) 'web page genre schema' – and keeps unfolding in the background of all other 'items' and 'clusters' (Kok 2004: 134ff) on the page. All pictures are high-quality photos either of hotel rooms or of other parts of the hotel interior.

The space in the right panel, 'the New' in Kress and van Leeuwen's (2006: 179) model of multimodal information structure, contains the interactive "Make a booking" cluster so typical of hotel websites. Underneath the booking interface comes a cluster with two items reporting the current weather conditions and recommending current services offered at the hotel at this time of day, like afternoon tea or spa treatments.

The 'bottom banner' (Baldry and Thibault 2006: 115) stretches across the whole page and contains the verbal information elaborating on the topic and the picture of each page. This is always accompanied by a testimonial, usually by a member of staff rather than a visitor, appraising the high quality of the service being offered. All verbal text is solidly 'anchored' in the pictures in terms of Barthes (1977: 39ff.). Hence, there is a unique and new picture with every new text on every page of the website.

The layout on more than 90% of all pages exhibits the canonical arrangement of information in terms of 'Given' versus 'New' and 'Ideal' versus 'Real', as theorized by Kress and van Leeuwen (2006: 179ff.). The Ideal is always represented in the form of the beautiful photo loaded with emotional appeal, followed underneath by the detailed verbal elaboration on how this ideal experience can be made real to be enjoyed by the prospective guest. As each page is pre-selected by the reader with a click on the menu bar or on a labeled thumbnail, all this information (the photo and the verbal description) is presented as the Given, while the booking interface, the cluster with current information, and the testimonials are always presented as the New.

At the very bottom of each page, there are two more banners containing links to internal organizational sections, such as Press Information, Career, Imprint, the Sacher Family, Online Shop or to the website of the sister hotel Hotel Sacher in Salzburg. There are no links whatsoever to external websites outside the Sacher company.

By far the most striking phenomenon in the website is that the verbal elements in the text are not interlinked, i.e., there are no digressional nodes within the verbal descriptions that would allow the reader to navigate through the website and jump from one section quickly to another by activating a thematic link. This lack of hyperlinking is untypical for websites. In combination with the full-screen landscape format, this is what creates the impression of reading a traditional linear text, where you can only go to a different section by browsing through the table of content (the menu bar) and by selecting the area of content you are interested in from there. A similar strategy, though perhaps not to such extreme ends, is pursued by two other hotel related websites.

2.2. The Sheraton Hotel, Salt Lake City

Hotel Sheraton [note 2] in Salt Lake City, USA, is owned and run by the international hotel chain Starwood Hotels and Resorts Worldwide Incorporation. While the Salt Lake City hotel aims to establish itself as a resort offering individual service and exclusiveness to the prospective guest, the corporate layout enforced by the mother company, nevertheless, imposes fairly rigid generic and textual restrictions onto the hotel website.

The basic generic structure of the website is similar to the one employed by Hotel Sacher. The top banner lists the hotel name and address and contains the menu bar consisting of nine categories (Rooms, Location & Map, Dining, Hotel Features, etc.), which may contain up to five sub-menus. Contrary to the Sacher, the booking interface and some general hotel information are presented in the left panel, while the eye-catching visual is in the centre-right panel followed by the verbal text underneath. The individual pages are generally too large to fit onto one screen; consequently, the reader has to scroll down to be able to read an entire page. Yet, what is similar to the Sacher website is that the Sheraton website also exhibits a fairly linear reading path. This is again reflected in the low amount of lexical hyperlinks in the verbal text in the website. While the texts do contain some links, these remain few in number and usually occur at the beginning or towards the end of paragraphs or pages, where they often function as links to Read More-sections, expanding on what has just been offered as basic information.

In conclusion, one can say about the Sheraton website that it, too, abstains from building a complex web of interlinked pages, sections and sub-sections but tries to pre-construct a simple reading path that is both predictable as well as easily navigable for the reader.

2.3. Booking.com

Booking.com is an internet platform specialized in hotel bookings. It enforces strict structure and genre conventions onto the hotels advertising on the platform. Therefore, the booking.com entries for Hotel Sacher [3] and Hotel Sheraton [4] reflect very strict style and content constraints imposed on the writers by the operators of the booking platform.

The most outstanding feature here is again that the texts on the individual hotels do not contain any hyperlinks that would take the reader outside the individual hotel booking.com entry. What all hotel pages on booking.com do contain, however,

are three bookmark links on the top of each page. The bookmark links are labeled Available rooms, Facilities and Policies. They enable the reader to jump down the relatively long verbal text that follows underneath. As an alternative to using the bookmarks, the reader can scroll down the text, which can be up to four times as long as the browser window. Between the three bookmarks and the verbal text comes a large eye-catching photo of the hotel. This photo embraces a rating score in the New that serves as a link to the score page, which lists all customer scores and testimonials submitted. Apart from an interactive Available rooms-cluster, there are no further items that would serve as digressional nodes or hyperlinks within or outside the text. Therefore, each individual hotel description consists of one self-contained text and is meant to be read along a pre-arranged, linear reading path.

Of course each booking.com page contains a range of additional links, e.g., to other hotels in the same city, to other branches of the company, like a car rental business, to other types of accommodation, and to other travel destinations near and far. Yet, all these links are visually set apart from the entry on an individual hotel by means of frames, space, colour, typeface, font size, etc. While these external hyperlinks do reflect the typical web-character of the internet, they are constructed as not being part of the hotel webpage. The reader does not conceive of them as belonging to the individual hotel description but to booking.com as the host of all these individual texts.

3. Conclusion

As has been shown in the description of two individual hotel websites and their respective entries on booking.com, recent trends in the design of hotel websites reveal a high degree of linearity in composition. It is almost as if web-designers have at last woken up to Lemke's (2002: 299) assertion that "they [the designers] know very well that simplicity gives us welcome respite from the demanding complexity of everyday life ..." The possibilities that digital document design offers in terms of constructing a deeply interwoven system of complex net-structures are exploited to a much lesser extent than one would expect. Nevertheless, the new hotel websites still contain some crucial elements of digital hypertextuality, in particular, the possibility for the reader to interact with the hotel through the booking interface. It is this added "functionality" in terms of "a user's interaction with the web document" (Shepherd and Watters 1998, discussed in Bateman 2006: 210) that – in addition to hyperlinks – contributes much to the unique status of digital hypertexts.

Overall, it can be stated that the revival of linearity reflects a turning point in web-design. Until recently, hotel websites, like so many other websites, were constructed as three-dimensional mazes of interlinked texts, items, clusters, pages, and other webs. It was up to the readers to establish their individual but unpredictable reading paths, while hotel managements missed out on the possibility to exert a strong steering influence over their customers. As far as hotel websites are concerned, this kind of digressional web-design with all its imponderable consequences seems to have come to an end.

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Notes

- [1] <http://www.sacher.com/de-hotel-sacher-wien.htm>
- [2] <http://www.sheratonsaltlakecityhotel.com/>
- [3] http://www.booking.com/hotel/at/sacher-wien.en-us.html?aid=301584;label=de-*aHu5711G9ictZAzhlnHgS6678548821%3Apl%3Aata%3Aap1%3Aap2230.000%3Aac%3Aap1t1%3Aneg;sid=aaa6e39d731551938252c9eae638f26d;dcid=1

[4] http://www.booking.com/hotel/us/sheraton-salt-lake-city.en-us.html?aid=301584;label=de-*aHu5711G9ictZAzhlnHgS6678548821%3Apl%3Aata%3Ap1%3Ap2230.000%3Aac%3Aap1t1%3Aneg;sid=aaa6e39d731551938252c9eae638f26d;dcid=1

A Multimodal Analysis of an Online University Lecture in EAP/ESP

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Keywords: multimodality; lecture; EAP; ESP; multiliteracies

1. Introduction

Modern economic texts in a dynamic (electronic) form, unlike their static printed counterparts, unfold in time. This means that they involve a greater majority of semiotic resources (visual, linguistic, actional, etc.) in making meaning in specific social contexts than static texts. They are also more complex in structure as they consist of different phases (textual sequencing units consistent in the co-patterning of different resources) along with points of transition (i.e. realignments in the grouping of diverse resources) between the phases (Gregory in Baldry and Thibault 2006: 47). Such complex multimodal texts can be best analysed within a social semiotic metafunctional framework that combines Halliday's (1994) metafunctional theory and Bakhtin's (1986) views on genre with Gregory's notion of textual phase and transition (in Baldry and Thibault 2006: 47). The same framework is employed for the analysis of a few excerpts from an online university lecture on economic theories in EAP/ESP (English for Academic Purposes/English for Specific Purposes) in this paper. The analysis is in the form of questions that can help students relate general theory to specific data. The aim of the paper is to foster students' multimodal literacy ("Multiliteracies" in the New London Group terminology 2000) and help them realize that it is the synergy among diverse semiotic modalities that contributes to the overall text meaning. The analysis also enhances understanding of the typical ways resources combine in a particular genre in the specialist field of their studies. To this end, short uncut sequences or selected still frames of the excerpts, accompanied by a transcription of the linguistic text, are described employing the combined analytical approach. Halliday's theory of metafunctions (ideational, interpersonal and textual), extended to other semiotic resources (Halliday 1994, Kress and van Leeuwen 2006), specifies the ways in which various semiotic resources intertwine to make meaning in its totality. Bakhtin's distinction between primary (mini-genres) and secondary genres, also applied to multimodal genres (Bakhtin 1986, Baldry 2000, Baldry and Thibault 2006), shows how primary genres (prefabricated verbal, visual units) combine to form the more complex secondary genre, in our case a lecture. The relationship between phases and metafunctions is described through a frame and phase analysis, as proposed by Baldry and Thibault (2006: 47) who, following Gregory, have extended phasal analysis to multimodal dynamic texts. In addition, tasks that relate to the four parameters (Situated practice, Overt instruction, Critical framing, Transformed practice) of the Multiliteracies pedagogy and can increase students' critical reflexive and transformative learning skills (Kress 2010, McBride 2009, New London Group 2000) are proposed. The next section provides a brief analysis of the selected materials.

2. A brief analysis of selected uncut sequences and still frames from the online economics lecture

Baldry and Thibault's (2006: 48) frame and phase analysis provides a micro- and macro- analytical examination of dynamic texts. This type of approach can be particularly useful in an EAP/ESP context (Baldry 2000: 67). The text as a whole is segmented into a number of phases and the points of transition between them. This is done by using a post production software program such as Adobe Premiere or Sony Vegas Pro. Short uncut sequences of film allow a macroanalytical study of the general characteristics of the text. On the other hand, microanalytical examination of individual frames or sequences of individual frames can depict the integration of resources and how the resources relate to the metafunctions in specific phases. The same framework is used for the analysis of the excerpts from the economics video text. The analysis is not exhaustive and focuses on a few aspects of the semiotic resources used in the production of meaning.

The lecture on "The Marginalist Revolution" was delivered in the one-week instructional program of the Mises Institute, in Auburn, Alabama, USA. The Institute is dedicated to the promotion of Austrian Economics. The lecture focuses on Menger's theory of value and of price. According to Menger, "marginal utility" describes the value of a unit of a good rather than the value of all units of a good. This means that the fewer units of a good you have, the higher the value. The audience is students from all over the world with an interest in Austrian economics and the lecturer is being introduced to the audience by a fellow Professor.

The students are first asked to watch the introduction excerpt and decide if the lecturer acts in accordance with the conventions of the genre. The transcription of discourse is not given to the students.

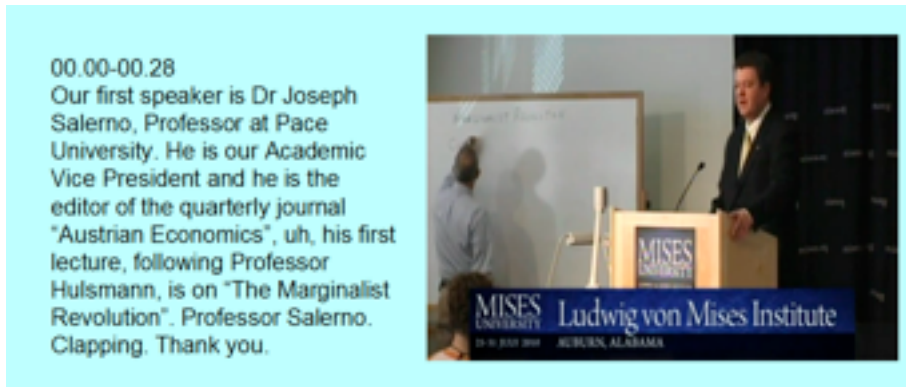


Figure 1: Introduction excerpt

The lecturer is seen writing on the board throughout the introduction with his back turned to the audience. We realize later, as the lecture progresses, that the OHP is not working. The lecturer probably did not want to waste time. But maybe his behaviour is indicative of the different status of the participants and the associated social relations that hold between them (the teacher-learner relationship). He might behave differently if introduced to a conference audience.

The next sequence of one-second frames comes immediately after the speaker's introduction to the audience. The students have to identify the frame that indicates the transition to a new phase and explain how this is effected.

TIME	SPECIAL FRAME	LANGUAGE
1		
2		
3		
4		OK. So we're going to talk about "The Marginalist Revolution".
5		
6		

Figure 2: Transition point

The second frame indicates the transition to a new phase (i.e. use of distant shot, the lecturer is barely seen). It is actually the third frame that marks the beginning of the new phase. The transition is signified through realignment in the co-patterning of semiotic resources (i.e. body movement and use of language as speech with the lecturer introducing the topic of his lecture).

The next two one-second frames are from the subphase of a phase that explains why classical economists failed to solve the diamond-water paradox. That is, why diamonds cost more than water although water is vital to our existence. Students are asked to explain how specific semiotic resources (that is, camera distance, gaze and gesture) are co-deployed to express the interpersonal relation between the knowledgeable lecturer and the novice learner, i.e. the relation that holds between the represented participants.



Figure 3: Interpersonal meanings through resource co-deployment

In a visual structure social relations are represented through the simultaneous systems of contact/gaze (demand/offer), social distance/frame (close/middle/long shot) and attitude/perspective (frontal/oblique/high/eye level/low angle) (Kress and van Leeuwen 2006: 149). The camera zooms in on the lecturer through the use of a medium shot and a median frontal angle. We see the lecturer on the podium addressing the audience. Although the lecturer is brought up closer to the viewer through the zoom in, the viewer remains a dispassionate onlooker because the podium physically separates the lecturer from the student audience he is addressing. It is worth mentioning here, that not all the meanings made in the visual of a scientific text are clearly identified with the scientist involved. The film director or the film editor of the video text can also add their own meaning through camera distance and angle (Baldry 2000: 75).

The different status relation between the participants is also represented by gaze and gesture. The lecturer's gaze is directed downwards towards the audience. In both frames the lecturer's head is turned to the right with his hands moving up to the left in the first frame and then down to the side in the second frame. The hand movement coincides with the utterance of the phrase "they pushed it to the side" to further emphasise what is being said.

I will finish the analysis with the diagram the lecturer has drawn on the board to explain Menger's law of imputation (i.e. a subphase in a phase that describes imputation theory).

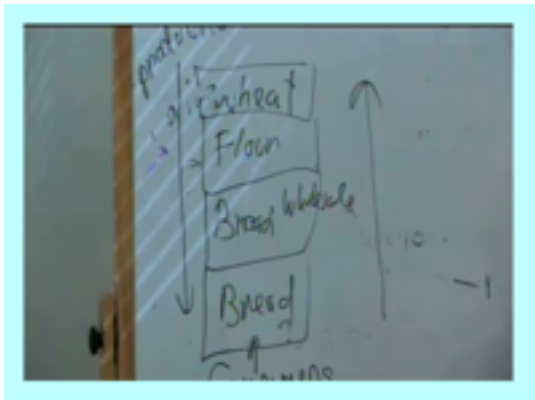


Figure 4: The mini-genre of diagram

The lecturer uses "transduction", "the change from one mode to another" to describe graphically what Menger described only verbally in his book (Bezemer and Kress 2008: 175). The lecturer selects visual communication as the most effective way of conveying information at the particular point. A series of questions are used to draw students' attention to the typical features of the mini-genre. That is, the abstract way in which representational meanings are realized (i.e. boxes as participants and arrows as processes). Scientific coding orientation is used to indicate the usefulness of the diagram as a blueprint (van Leeuwen 2005: 168). The top-bottom organization is employed to denote a movement from the general to the specific.

This brief analysis of the excerpts can help students realize that the meaning of what is spoken or written is not made exclusively by language but by the complex integration of linguistic, visual and actional resources. When he speaks the lecturer almost always simultaneously employs other semiotic resources for meaning making (i.e. gestures, gaze, diagrams).

3. Multimodal literacy tasks

The section very briefly proposes tasks that can foster students' multimodal literacy.

As part of Overt Instruction students' attention could be drawn to the use of intertextuality (Bakhtin 1986) in a specific segment, that is how the lecturer incorporates the discourse of others into his monologue and how he evaluates others' point of view.

In Critical Framing we can ask students to form hypotheses about the interpersonal relations, the features of language, the genres, etc. in video or audio interviews with professors of economics. At this point we can introduce students to economics podcasts which can help them further develop listening comprehension skills and intercultural understanding (McBride 2009).

4. Conclusion

This paper has briefly analysed excerpts from an online economics lecture within a social semiotic metafunctional framework to help EAP/ESP students understand that it is the synergy of different resources with specialized functions that contributes to the overall text meaning. Tasks that relate to Multiliteracies Pedagogy and can enhance students' critical reflexive and transformative skills in an EAP/ESP course have also been proposed.

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Writing, Texts and the New Media in a Social Semiotic Multimodal Frame

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Keywords: social semiotic; multimodal; new media; writing

‘The social is prior; in their (inter-) actions the socially shaped interests of the participants produce semiotic entities. As ‘the social’ changes – or is changed - interests change, and semiotic entities are changed in line with these changes’.

In debates around *writing* and the ‘new media’ it is essential to sketch the theoretical framework in which thinking and researching is done. The conference in which this paper was given had its major focus on *writing* (in the theoretical frame of Systemic Functional Grammar) rather than, say, on social conditions for communications, or on the contemporary technologies for production and communication. There seem to me to be three major factors to consider: first, the characteristics of social environments; second, the world of meaning multimodally conceived; and third, the technologies for producing and disseminating / distributing ‘texts’.

The three are entirely connected and intertwined, yet can (and in my view need to) be discussed separately as well as in their conjunction. In the presentation, I dealt with each, keeping a focus on *writing* and on effects of thinking about language. Given my assumption that meanings are made in social (inter-) action, there is, first, the fact of social change, and the resultant and still on-going changes in social environments. The second factor is inter-connected with the first: namely the move from a semiotic world – the world of meaning - seen as predominantly resting on the social and epistemological primacy of ‘language’, to a world seen as involving the use of different resources for ‘giving meaning material instantiation’; that is, a shift to the world of meaning conceived multimodally. Third, there is a need to deal with the means, the technologies for producing semiotic entities – ‘texts’, in this case - and disseminating / distributing these ‘texts’-as-meaning as messages.

The three are entirely intertwined, and they are separately variable in relation to the *design* for ‘texts-as-messages’. Social conditions affect and shape, through the ‘interested actions’ of those who in their social locations make meanings, the forms and purposes of texts. The choice of modes, that is, choice of means for *making meanings material*, to be used in the design of multimodal ensembles, depends on the availability of semiotic resources; and, within that, it depends on the choices which, to the rhetor/designer/maker of the text, are best able to meet her or his purposes given the characteristics of their imagined audience. More directly than before, social change has begun to affect the meaning-maker’s assumptions about their (degrees of) *agency*. Additionally, the potentials and constraints of the ‘platforms’ to be used in and for production and dissemination of texts, now need to be considered. The capacities and limitations of the various ‘platforms’ of the new media have significant social, political, and epistemological effects.

These factors taken together make it impossible, now, to discuss *writing* in the way it had been hitherto: as though it could - in all essentials – be thought about, practiced, used, in much the same way as before. We need, now, absolutely to consider the effects of social change, of multimodal communication, and of the potentials of technologies on what we call ‘language’, or on *writing*.

One symptom of the problems caused by the changes mentioned, is an increasing confusion in naming. While this may seem to be relatively trivial, it does point to a profound lack of clarity about categories such as *text*, *writing*, *image*, *discourses*, *mode*, and so on. In one part this is an effect of the convergence of formerly distinct disciplinary traditions onto what is a shared domain of interest, namely the ‘new media’ (the so-called ‘social media’). In discussions of the ‘social media’ scholars from quite different disciplines “come together”, “meet”, each bringing their ‘home-discipline’ with them, in each of which every one of these terms is used in specific and distinct ways. Into the enormously important field of on-line communication come researchers from many different places: each coming with her or his ways of framing and naming. In another part the problem of naming is an effect of the changes I have mentioned, and their combined effects. What had been discrete fields, relatively well understood, with settled sets of questions and sets of terms as a tool-kit, have merged or disappeared entirely: what has emerged is a re-shaped, larger domain, with quite different textual ensembles, based on as yet not fully understood principles of composition: a field yet to be framed and explored.

One part of the agenda for a social semiotic multimodal approach to on-line communication will be to provide a clearer sense of what is to be in the frame of enquiry, what its major entities and relations are and what therefore has to be named: and to establish the categories we might use to describe what is going on. That of course poses a challenge to practitioners who have worked with the term 'multimodality' using the theoretical/descriptive/analytical tools from their respective discipline, without reflecting much or at all on their appropriateness and / or adequacy. In my case, that discipline has, to a significant extent, been Linguistics. I rely on it still, though no longer directly. In some present work on *writing* in the 'new media' (and, nominally at least, in the frame of 'multimodality') categories drawn from linguistics are used as the toolkit for doing this work.

For myself, this has been, over the last 25 – 30 years or so, an increasing problem. I now see myself as being in a situation where I examine any tool I intend to use to see whether - and if so how - it might fit into the theoretical framework of a Social Semiotic theory.

The approach I take in this is broadly this: in Linguistics the category 'sentence' has been significant – whatever the problems of 'solid' definitions. The first question for me is: in a quite general, somewhat more abstract, maybe higher-level manner, what was the use and the meaning of 'the sentence'? If the use seems a socially and semiotically general one – for instance, delimiting/framing an event or percept in the world - then the question for me would be: if this is a basic meaning-unit in this community, one that has a real function, need, purpose, it is likely to be needed and therefore to exist in all modes produced in this community. So the question becomes: 'what, in our contemporary social situation, might be an analogue category, in another other mode?' On the one hand I can see that (alphabetic) writing is changing, in many instances, locations and uses, away from the use of 'the' sentence in its traditional form; and on the other hand I assume that whatever the category 'sentence' had been designed to capture in terms of real semiotic significance, that need and use might still exist for the modes of image, of gesture, or speech, etc. In other words: in looking at writing - as much as in looking at 'texts' in the new media - I would want to be sure that I can capture - at a specific level of abstraction - the 'essence' of what 'sentence' had done, to name it, see how it might appear in a particular mode, and how it should be named when it is materialized in the mode of image, of gesture, of soundtrack, etc.

The same question needs to be answered in relation to 'text'. If in the period when *writing* was dominant and central, and seemed to fully provide the means for expressing and representing what a community felt needed to be represented, then what are the social needs now? Is there, still, a need for the category of 'text'? And if there is still such a need, is there a need for devices such as there had been for the written (or spoken) text, a need to provide features that bring about cohesion and produce coherence. And what would these be?

In the presentation I discussed these issues, through examples, both on-line and other: one fundamental question, after all, has to be: do we now have two or more entirely distinct sets of social and semiotic / compositional principles? Or do the same principles apply to all of representation and communication, though with specific variations depending on environments?

So in the frame of a social semiotic theory, I discussed some central categories - e.g. genre, coherence, principles of composition, etc. - which have been used in thinking about *writing* in our still recent past, to see to what extent and with what modifications they could continue to serve as apt means of description and analysis, and where they might need to be extended, changed, or jettisoned.

Given the emergence of the category of 'platforms', I focused on some of these categories in relation to the notion of 'social media' (blogs on food and family) and described what semiotic consequences seem to follow both from the social changes which characterize the present and are likely to characterize the near future, as well as from the potentials and constraints of the newly prominent category of the 'platform'. The latter raises the question, for instance, of where, semiotically, the category 'platform' fits – is it closer to 'genre' or closer to 'medium'; and what in any case does it mean for our interest in composition and 'text'.

Given the focus of the conference – its location in the tradition of Hallidayan Linguistics, and its focus on the place of *writing* in the new media – one, or perhaps the - over-arching question is the likely shapes and functions of *writing* in an ever more taken-for-granted landscape of multimodal communication and therefore of multimodally constituted text. Do we need to re-think *writing* in the larger framework of a social semiotic approach to multimodal representation? And what consequences would that have for present thinking and theorizing in linguistics? If *writing* is an element – one element among others – in a multimodal ensemble, what are its likely future uses, functions, shapes?

What, in that context, can we imagine as the future of writing? Can we ask the same questions of the linguistic elements of the larger textual entities which appear on contemporary media platforms as we could of 'traditional' linguistic entities? If not, which questions can not be asked, which can, and which new questions can be added?

The larger question is and will increasingly become more pressing: how do we, can we, should we now think about writing?

Notes

The paper presented had drawn on research conducted in the framework of an ESRC funded 'collaborative project': "Development of multimodal and narrative methodologies for researching online communication: the case of food blogs", conducted across two nodes (based at the Institute of Education, University of London) of the ESRC (Economic and Social Research Council's) National Centre for Research Methods (NCRM): MODE (Multimodal Methodologies for Studying Digital and Data Environments) and NOVELLA (Narratives of Varied Everyday Lives and Linked Approaches).

The project focussed on two blogs in particular (with the consent of the bloggers): *Diary of a frugal family – surviving the credit crunch*, <http://www.frugalfamily.co.uk/> and *Thinly Spread but not Snapped*, <http://thinlyspread.co.uk/> (now renamed *Thinly spread – life, simply led*).

MODE is a node of the National Centre for Research Methods (<http://www.ncrm.ac.uk/>), funded by the Economic and Social Research Council. It develops multimodal methodologies for social scientists, providing systematic ways to investigate all modes of communication used in digital environments, whether they are sites of learning, work, or 'social' sites (e.g. Facebook).

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Mode Matters: Recontextualising Academic Essays or Talk

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Keywords: online discussion; online discourse

As written but dialogic texts, asynchronous online discussions in higher education contexts may be regarded as occupying a pedagogic space previously the domain not only of face to face tutorials (which they often replace) but also of written essays, particularly where contributions are assessed. I focus on the latter, namely adaptations of written academic genres represented in essays in response to the affordances and constraints of mode in this specific digital and instructional context.

Asynchronous online discussions may be glossed as the collaborative construction of knowledge through text-based interaction within an online community (e.g. Jonassen, Davidson, Collins, Campbell and Haag 1995). This pedagogy stresses positive interpersonal relationships in support of learning and implies greater equality between teacher and taught than in face-to-face contexts. The role definition of the online tutor or moderator is contested and ranges from being central to the discussion to being a 'guide on the side' (Mazzolini and Maddison 2003). However, in spite of the pedagogical potential of this instructional strategy, participants commonly fail to reach the predicated higher levels of knowledge construction (e.g. Hopkins, Gibson, Sole, Savvides and Starkey 2008) and also express dissatisfaction with their online experience (e.g. Hara and Kling 2002, Sweeney, O'Donoghue and Whitehead 2004). The analysis reported in this paper seeks to account for this, largely using ENGAGEMENT within the APPRAISAL system (Martin and White 2005). It examines discussion data from postgraduate coursework in health professional education.

In terms of mode, asynchronous online discussions are written, with a response expected, constitute rather than accompany social action and allow for reflection and delayed responses. However, they exhibit other mode characteristics which may constrain interaction, particularly their public, visible and persistent nature, with participants identified. The relative proportions of written and spoken language features in online texts received early research attention (e.g. Yates 1996). An exchange structure analysis undertaken as part of this study showed secondary knower (K2) move complexes embodying academic genres or genre fragments set within a conversational matrix (cf. Eggins and Slade 1997). However, the APPRAISAL analysis undertaken showed that elements of spoken academic language, such as tutorial participation, permeate these written-like texts.

Secondary knower move complexes in online student responses recontextualise written essays in the sense that they are written assessable texts responding to a specific question, but are dissimilar in that they are public rather than private. The discussion activity needs to be designed – and the initiating questions asked – in such a way as to maximise opportunities for all participants to make meaningful responses. Beyond this, expected features of an essay are transformed in an online discussion, particularly as regards genre, ENGAGEMENT, argumentation, level of impersonality, the linear development of meaning and individual (cognitive) knowledge construction. Addressing these in turn, genres may shift, for example from a discussion to an exposition, and some stages may be missing, having been provided by the moderator or omitted by discussants in order to open the discussion up to other viewpoints. Genres are often not aligned with those implied by the question. Alternatively the question may not unequivocally imply any specific genre, for example where interpersonal concerns apparently lead moderators to frame questions using interpersonal grammatical metaphor, AFFECT, reduced FOCUS and/or reduced commitment.

Although standard forms of ENGAGEMENT are present in these discussions, they are less prevalent than in written essays. Students tend to avoid foregrounding researchers, instead preferring to foreground the process of researching or the artefacts of research; where researchers are mentioned they tend to be generalised. In some cases, narrative approaches, personal recounts and low vigour evaluative choices are preferred, possibly influenced by spoken modes such as tutorial participation. In contrast to the relative impersonality of assignments and research articles, in these discussions the writer's mental processes and personal dispositions (including APPRECIATION) are fore-grounded, for example 'I have to say the highlight of my reading was ...' 'I want to share this interesting article..' 'An interesting thing i found out is ...'. In this way, student writers, in their own and their peers' eyes, may be placed on the same level as published research, blurring lines of expertise (Coffin and Hewings 2005).

Generally speaking, students show a tendency to expand rather than contract space for other voices and opinions. It is not clear whether this helps to construct meaningful knowledge, but seems to indicate that participants favour solidarity and community maintenance over a commitment to specific ideational meaning. Relatedly, there is a tendency to avoid argumentation or critical engagement with the ideas of others, confirming other research, e.g. Coffin, Hewings and North (2012). Statements of agreement and 'additive' comments, such as 'Just to add a point to the ideas above..' are common, although there are examples of APPRECIATION (It is an interesting point you raise..) and ENDORSE (as Kathryn highlighted ...'). Moderator feedback similarly privileges the maintenance of relationships over commitment to ideas.

Individual linear argumentation and individual knowledge construction are present to an extent albeit restricted by the shortness of texts and incompleteness of genres. However, the pedagogy is predicated on the collaborative construction of knowledge, thus the individual is replaced by the social. The branching, progressively and socially constructed online text viewed as a whole, and indeed a notional individual trajectory through it, are far from linear and the targets of reply posts ambiguous and diffuse. In any case, it is not clear exactly what is meant by the social construction of knowledge (Nichols 2009). Information brought to the discussion can be shared, academic genres may be dispersed across posts and the discussion as a whole can be regarded representing a jointly constructed discussion genre. Beyond this, the application of some kind of communal consciousness to the task of collectively reaching higher levels of cognitive processing, which synthesises and builds on available knowledge, seems more difficult to operationalise, particularly given the mode features mentioned above.

Do we need to be afraid? Textual practices evolve in tandem with societal changes, and the impact of digital media in this respect has been profound in all aspects of life, including education. Nonetheless, written academic genres have evolved to structure and communicate academic knowledge linear written texts embodying accepted genres, nuanced ENGAGEMENT and critical appraisal are still required in academic contexts. To what extent are writing skills learnt online transferable to offline academic contexts? If they are not readily transferred, is there an opportunity cost, particularly for students who struggle with academic writing, if they are engaged in online discussions where genres are blurred and argumentation and critique backgrounded? If language construes experience (Halliday and Matthiessen 2006), what kind of knowledge is being construed in these texts: non-linear, a 'bricolage' of ideas, of indeterminate genre, where knowledge is personalised, lines of expertise blurred and the social valorised over engagement with meaning, consensus over debate (cf. Coffin and O'Halloran 2009)? Do these findings suggest that building communities and constructing knowledge, cornerstones of the pedagogical rationale for online discussion, may be in conflict? Or do these new textual practices represent new ways of learning and knowing, in which educators are happy to embrace ideational and textual compromises to leverage the social in learning?

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Appraisal Analysis of Secondary School History Texts in Two Modes

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Introduction

In the first part of this paper, we present results of a longitudinal corpus study of secondary school students' use of evaluative language in a Bilingual Education Programme in Spain. This is part of a larger project which uses Systemic Functional Linguistics to examine students' language production in this educational context (UAM CLIL Project). In this phase of the project, we used Appraisal Theory (Martin and White 2005) with UAM CorpusTool (O'Donnell 2013), to analyse the realization of evaluative language in the spoken and written texts of students studying History through English, as they moved through the four years of compulsory secondary education. In the second part of the paper, we shift the focus to methodological aspects of the study, by asking what is gained and lost as students' texts become decontextualised or rather "entextualised" (Bauman and Briggs 1990) through a process of digitalization. We chart the journey of one student's spoken and written texts as they have "digitality thrust upon them" by being pulled out of their original contexts, to become, among other things, sets of numbers. We argue that the concept of 'entextualisation' is an effective tool for allowing researchers to adopt a more reflexive stance towards their own activity.

Part 1: The Study

In order to focus on both development and comparison of spoken and written performance, we analysed four students' interviews and written texts, collected over the four years of obligatory secondary education, in response to prompts related to a curricular topic. The 16 texts were analysed using the existing network scheme 'appraisal_max' available in CorpusTool. The quantitative results show similarities across modes (around 120 instances of appraisal per 1000 words in the spoken mode, and 110 instances per 1000 words in the written), as well as interesting differences. For example, students used more expressions of affect in speaking (for instance, they expressed far more what historical characters 'wanted'), and more judgement of people and appreciation of things in writing. Also they used more instances of proclaiming their point of view when speaking. As far as development is concerned, the four students gained over the four years in frequency of use of features of engagement, such as attribute and entertain, and they moved from using mainly adjuncts or projecting clauses to express engagement ("in my personal opinion", "I think") to other more sophisticated expressions, such as "it's considered".

Furthermore, in their writing, their later work drew less on linguistic resources usually connected to a more informal and less academic mode of writing, and approximated a more sophisticated academic register. For instance, in Year 1, a student wrote: "One person was so rich and governed and lived so good, and the majority of the population were so poor working hard and also some person (slaves) had no rights. This was very unjust". We can note the reliance on attributes for evaluation ("good"), the concrete targets of appraisal ("person"), and the over-use of graduation resources ("so", "very"). On this last point, Derewianka (2007: 161) suggests that, when these types of intensifying premodifiers are used to encode maximal values of Graduation in adolescent academic writing in History, "[t]he volume is turned up so loud that the writer's credibility is called into question". An example from Year 4, on the other hand, shows a more academic register: "They have improvements as the weapons or the treaties that help to be protected". In this example, appraisal is expressed nominally and at the same time as an abstraction ("improvements"); it is also expressed through the verbal group "help", which serves at the same time to express a logical relationship, and there is no graduation, suggesting that by Year 4 there is less of a tendency to shout, as it were, and more of a tendency to use subtler strategies in aligning the reader with the writer's reasoning.

Other indications of development include a move away from mainly judging historical characters via social esteem ("the king at that time was very very powerful") in the first two years, towards more expressions of social sanction ("he was arrogant", "they were a little bit unfair"), which shows a more interpretive stance, moving towards historical argument (Christie and Derewianka 2008, Derewianka 2007, Coffin 2006). Also, in the final year, rather than inscribed instances, there was a greater use of tokens of social valuation, which constructs a more dispassionate recorder voice when writing historical accounts (Coffin 2006, Martin 2002)

Part 2: Corpus research as entextualisation

According to Bauman and Briggs (1990: 73), entextualisation is "the process of rendering discourse extractable, of making a stretch of linguistic production into a unit - a text - that can be lifted out of its interactional setting." Similarly, Urban (1996: 21) sees it as "the process of rendering a given instance of discourse a text, detachable from its local context." In the study described above, the students' texts were indeed stretches of linguistic production or instances of discourse which were ripped out of their local contexts (classroom interaction, an interview, or a written exercise) to become objects to be analysed and scrutinised as part of a research process. These texts were digitalised early in this process by becoming word processed documents (transcriptions or electronic copies of hand-written texts), and were later uploaded to CorpusTool where they were analysed using a further text (the 'appraisal_max' scheme). Eventually, these texts became numbers as we charted the students' use of appraisal resources over the four years. In taking these students' texts through this process, we make some gains, as seen in the study's results presented above. However, there are also losses: the texts become disconnected from each other; they lose their role as a response to a previous text; the authors have lost whatever agency they may have had; and, it is very possible that original meanings and intentions have been lost. Of course, there are also gains from this entextualisation process: the texts may have accrued more cultural capital as research data, and they may even eventually have some influence on educational policy, taking them well beyond the smaller sphere of influence of their original local setting. In the paper, we show this process at work by taking one student's original texts (video clips of her participation in a classroom discussion and a one-to-one interview, and a short essay she wrote in response to a prompt) and showing how they become entextualised in different ways during the research process. Carrying out this exercise allows us to gain a reflexive vantage point from which to view the research process. As Bauman and Briggs point out, "A further significant payoff offered by the investigation of the de-contextualization and re-contextualization of texts is a critical and reflexive perspective from which to examine our own scholarly practice" (1990: 78). One result of this examination is to identify implications for combining corpus and more qualitative research methods if we are not to lose sight of the phenomena under study.

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Cohesive Ellipsis - A Categorical or a Gradual Notion? Clarification of a Concept as a Basis for a Corpus Linguistic Study

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1. Introduction

The purpose of this paper is the conceptualisation and cross-linguistic comparison of ellipsis when it is used as a cohesive device. This study is part of a larger DFG-funded research project on German-English contrasts in cohesion (GECCo) [note 1]. The bilingual GECCo corpus is a useful source of data to observe ellipsis patterns across written and spoken registers in order to generate and test various linguistic hypotheses. Bearing in mind the need for careful definition of ellipsis, it is argued here that a combination of a qualitative and quantitative approach will lead to insights that would otherwise be missed. Ellipsis can often be used in an unexpected way for various reasons (language economy, stylistic experimentation, ambiguity of meaning, e.g. in speeches, advertisements or fictional texts). Corpus methods allow us to study ellipses as they occur in real language use.

2. Cohesive ellipsis

Paradoxically, one way to hold text together is by missing bits out, and in those cases, ellipsis is used as a cohesive device. In those cases, it involves the omission of an element that can be recovered from the surrounding co-text, usually anaphorically.

Several linguists have coined or described ellipsis subcategories, but usually not with a main focus on cohesion, therefore we can only partly use their terminology of ellipsis subcategories for the GECCo-project. Quirk et al. (1985: 861), for instance, categorise ellipsis in English into three different types: textual, situational and structural. Klein (1985: 3-5) defines the following subcategories of ellipsis in German: text-type-specific ellipses, ellipses as orders to perform actions, expressive exclamations, elliptical formulaic expressions, lexical ellipses, coordinate ellipses, adjacency ellipses, ellipses due to processing difficulties or incomplete linguistic development and other types of ellipses. Other terms that are used by linguists when referring to ellipsis with regard to English (and also with regard to German or other languages if the respective structure exists in those languages) can be found in Merchant, 2001 or Van Craenenbroeck, 2010, for example.

Halliday/Hasan (1976) identify five categories of cohesive devices (reference, conjunction, lexical cohesion, substitution and ellipsis). In analogy with nominal, verbal and clausal substitution, they categorise ellipsis into nominal, verbal and clausal where nominal ellipsis is an omission within the nominal group (usually omission of the head noun), verbal ellipsis is ellipsis within the verbal group (e.g. omission of modal/auxiliary or lexical verb) and clausal ellipsis is defined as the omission of a clause or an element of a clause. Halliday/Hasan focus on ellipsis with an accessible syntactic antecedent (cf. also McShane 1995, on the distinction between syntactic and semantic ellipsis and on the notion of ellipsis with coreference). An advantage of utilizing a relatively broad definition of ellipsis with three main subcategories as a basis for a corpus linguistic study is the avoidance of the consequences of an overspecified model when describing too many small samples. Cohesive ellipsis in general is not as frequent as other cohesive devices.

Ellipsis tends to be used as a stylistic/rhetorical device depending on the text type. For instance, it seems plausible to expect that nominal ellipsis occurs more frequently in texts with many adjectives, nominal style and limited space for printing whereas clausal ellipsis is typical for face-to-face dialogues where individuals share a lot of common ground. We will concentrate on nominal, verbal and clausal ellipsis with accessible syntactic antecedents and not specifically include further categories such as the ellipsis of prepositions, relative pronouns, conjunctions or various particles as for example McShane (1995: 6) does.

Examples (1)-(3) from the GECCo corpus illustrate the three ellipsis subcategories described by Halliday/Hasan. In these particular cases, ellipsis works very similar in English and German.

(1) Our economy is one of the most productive []. / Unsere Wirtschaft gehört zu den produktivsten [].

(2) Better go on up while you still can []. / Gehen Sie lieber hinauf, solange Sie noch [] können.

(3) Why in the world should an American go halfway around the world to South Korea and get wounded or killed? I said, I'll tell you why []. / Warum sollte ein Amerikaner um die halbe Welt nach Südkorea reisen, um verwundet oder getötet zu werden? Ich sagte zu ihr: ich werde Ihnen sagen, warum [].

Example 4 and 5 from the GECCo corpus show some differences between the two languages. English verbal ellipsis, especially the omission of a lexical verb after an auxiliary or modal, is more typical for English than for German. The translator either has to repeat the lexical verb, insert an expletive 'es' or a demonstrative ('dies'/'das') in connection with the modal verb or use clausal ellipsis in the German version of (4). In (5), German nominal ellipsis corresponds to the English nominal substitute 'one'.

(4) We will find out which children can read and which cannot [] (-> ellipsis within the verbal group) / Wir werden herausfinden, welche Kinder lesen können und welche nicht [] (-> omission of a part of a clause)

(5) the proponents of enlargement, of which I am an enthusiastic one / die Verfechter der Erweiterung - und ich zähle mich zu den enthusiastischen []

Halliday/Hasan do not particularly mention the possibility of omitting predicate expressions (e.g. predicate adjectives or nouns). Such cases sometimes appear in the corpus, e.g. (6) and (7), and can be treated as cases of clausal ellipsis. Again, the German translator uses expletive pronouns. Otherwise a different sentence structure, e.g. inversion in (6) or clausal ellipsis without verb in (7) would be necessary in those two cases as German cannot have the same pattern as in English:

(6) That is not to say that the disputes that do arise are not important. They are []. / Das heißt nicht, daß die auftretenden Differenzen nicht von Bedeutung sind. Sie sind es.

(7) Its institutions are not the natural embodiment of human nature but its aspirations certainly are []. / Ihre Institutionen sind nicht die natürliche Verkörperung der menschlichen Natur, das Trachten nach Demokratie ist es aber mit Sicherheit.

When analysing ellipsis subcategories with a special focus on cohesion one has to keep in mind that even Halliday/Hasan's category boundaries are not always clear-cut with regard to very similar other phenomena, such as their notion of substitution (cf. also Steiner and Kunz 2013). For instance, the distinction of 'one' as substitute from other functions of 'one' is sometimes not entirely clear due to its multiple word-class membership. 'One' is sometimes used with nominal ellipsis, sometimes with nominal substitution ('the green one' = nominal substitution, 'we saw one [lion]' = nominal ellipsis). Halliday/Hasan (1976: 101) explain that the difference is in the plural ('ones' versus 'some'). Furthermore, it can be argued that verbal ellipsis overlaps with the category of verbal substitution (cf. Halliday/Hasan 1976: 112 et seq.). Apart from the fact that there is some linguistic variation with regard to the use of 'do' as a substitute and that the status of 'do' as a non-lexical verb is not always perfectly clear, some studies would clearly count the following structures in (8) and (9) from GECCo as verbal/clausal ellipsis and not as substitution (e.g. Shahabi and Baptista 2012). In (8), a form of 'do' is obligatory in a negative declarative and in (9), it would equally be possible to add a lexical verb expressing emphasis with the form of 'do'.

(8) You hear that? - No, I don't [].

(9) This agreement [...] applies in full to the civil aviation industry. The EU itself has explicitly agreed that it does []. (= that it does apply / that it applies)

Therefore, we tend to include such cases in our analysis of ellipsis and exclude mainly clear cases of verbal substitution with non-finite forms of 'do' where it is not possible to complete the VP by adding a lexical verb:

(10) She looks no different than she used to do.

(11) He left earlier than he might have done had this injury not occurred.

(12) I can't hurry more than I am doing.

Some ellipsis patterns have become lexicalised like idioms (cf. Ágel 1991) and some of Halliday/Hasan's subcategories of ellipsis might overlap with each other (verbal/clausal: What have you been doing? – [] Swimming. -> classified as verbal ellipsis in Halliday and Hasan 1976: 167, or nominal/clausal: 'Four other Oysters followed them, and yet another four [].' -> classified as nominal ellipsis in Halliday and Hasan 1976: 148). Additionally, exophoric/situational ellipsis refers to the extralinguistic context and has to be distinguished from ellipsis with a textual antecedent. Several corpus examples of clausal ellipses in particular in GECCo are not used as cohesive devices if they do not have a clearly identifiable antecedent. It is mainly clausal ellipses in adjacency pairs that are cohesive in GECCo such as in (13).

(13) Who says that? My parents []. / Wer sagt das? Meine Eltern [].

At first sight, Halliday/Hasan's categories might seem to be gradual notions with prototypical and less prototypical or marginal cases and very similar other phenomena. Therefore, quantitative studies in the past mainly dealt only with a subset of clear cases, e.g. nominal ellipsis after adjectives (e.g. Günther 2012). There are some challenges of Halliday/Hasan's definition one has to keep in mind when using their concepts for a corpus linguistic analysis. However, for the purpose of a cross-linguistic comparison of English and German, we assume that Halliday/Hasan's categories can generally be used to describe general ellipsis patterns in both languages within a Systemic Functional framework, although there might be some language-specific differences in individual cases that nevertheless fall under the main categories of nominal, verbal and clausal ellipsis.

3. Conclusion and outlook

In general, ellipsis triggers can be queried with CQP in our corpus and it should be possible to develop semi-automatic annotation procedures for ellipsis in the future. However, some manual disambiguation is always necessary due to the complexity of the concept of cohesive ellipsis as explained above. In many cases, whether there is a textual antecedent has to be checked. Several CQP queries were designed and carried out so far to spot potential ellipsis remnants (cf. Menzel, 2013 for frequencies and interpretation of typical cases of ellipsis subtypes in four registers of GECCo).

To sum up, as a first step of a corpus linguistic study of cohesive ellipsis, the concept had to be distinguished from other types of ellipsis and fragments and a clear dividing line between cohesive ellipsis, non-ellipsis and incohesive ellipsis had to be drawn.

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Notes

[1] GECCo project website: <http://www.gecco.uni-saarland.de/GECCo/en.Home.html/> - The written part of GECCo is a translation corpus and consists of several text-types of English and German original texts aligned with their translations (cf. <http://134.96.85.104/gecco/GECCo/Korpus.html> for corpus structure). The spoken part is a comparable corpus of English and German texts. The corpus is annotated with various levels of linguistic information. It is possible to formulate CQP-based queries to find potential candidates of ellipsis in the corpus. Additionally manual annotation of ellipses and their antecedents is currently done with MMAX2.

‘Ticklish trawling’^[note 1]: The Limits of Corpus Assisted Meaning Analysis

– A Colloquium in Four Parts

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Prefacing the Colloquium

Although our corpus research has premised that "A corpus [...] is a treasury of acts of meaning which can be explored and interrogated from all illuminating angles, including in quantitative terms." (Halliday 2002[1996]: 406), we would stop and take stock of just what we have done and what we have failed to do and reflect on what may be the limits of such interrogation.

PART I: On negotiating the hurdles of corpus-assisted meaning analysis – while doing appraisal analysis

Donna R. Miller

1. The colloquium issues outlined

1.1 Obstacles to valuable quantitative meaning analysis

We are convinced that our corpus-assisted research has been profitable, but not invariably and/or consistently and/or unequivocally. In short, it depends. Let’s have a brief look at what valuable quantitative meaning analysis may just depend on.

1.1.1 Firstly, it depends on whether one aims at ‘volume’ or ‘richness’. For Halliday and Matthiessen (2004: 48-49), "[...] automatic analysis gets harder the higher up we move along the hierarchy of stratification", i.e., it can handle orthographic word patterns and low-ranking lexicogrammatical patterns (classes of words, groups, phrases), but it cannot handle full SF clause or semantic analysis. Comprehensive analysis of function structures and systemic features is still much harder to automate (O’Donnell 1994, also cited in Matthiessen 2006: 104).

So, they sum up:

[...] we have a trade-off between volume of analysis and richness of analysis: low-level analysis can be automated to handle large volumes of text, but high-level analysis has to be carried out by hand for small samples of text.

Whether the ‘trade-off’ between volume and richness is ever a judicious and/or advantageous one will depend on research questions and chosen level(s) of inquiry. If these are ‘limited’, ‘lower’ (literally, concerning stratification/rank hierarchy),

automated analyses won't be overly constrained. But if these aim 'higher' – e.g., involving levels of semantics and context – automated analyses won't enable desired/required findings. Only labour-intensive manual analysis, or 'ticklish trawling', will.

1.1.2 Much has been done to reconcile corpus data and methods with how texts mean within specific cultural contexts (e.g., Partington, Morley and Haarman (eds) 2003, Bayley (ed) 2004, Morley and Bayley (eds) 2009, Thompson and Hunston 2006). But perhaps SFL corpus analysts have given too-short-shift to how they mean in extended co-text, i.e, valuable quantitative meaning analysis also depends on logogenesis, that

[...] unfolding of the act of meaning itself: the instantial construction of meaning in the form of a text [...] in which the potential for creating meaning is continually modified in the light of what has gone before [...]. (Halliday and Matthiessen 1999: 18)

Perhaps we need to engage with the argument that

It is texts that mean, through their sentences and the complex of logogenetic contingencies among them – they do not mean as a selection from, or a sum of, or worse, an average of, the meanings within the clause. (Martin 2003: 177)

or worse, within the conventional concordance line's 9-word window.

1.2 The SFL-CL connection

The Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) and Corpus Linguistics (CL) relationship is often put in terms of divergence/convergence. For Thompson and Hunston (2006: 3-5), the two are strange, and mutually suspicious, bedfellows, which have, however, common concerns.

For Tucker (2006: 76) systemic grammar and 'phraseological grammar' offer complementary viewpoints. Halliday (2006: 293) actually suppresses the conflict, speaking of "[...] a natural affinity [...] a 'symbiotic and synergistic relationship' " and seeing the large-scale corpus as vital to "[...] understanding and modelling the true complexity of a human language [...]" (2006: 299). Thus he blesses the 'marriage'. Still, he reiterates that – for investigating the 'higher' scales of stratum and rank – manual analysis is indeed what's needed.

Now to a taste of my experience of trying to do just that.

2. The case of corpus-assisted appraisal studies

If valuable quantitative meaning analysis depends on research questions, large corpus appraisal studies are paradigmatic [note 2]. Evaluation analysis is "[...] by no means open to automation" (Hunston 2004: 169), because essentially qualitative in nature and aimed at a 'high' systemic/functional analysis. Identifying motivated patterns of evaluative propagation/ramification (Lemke 1998: 49-50) is a tricky, time-consuming and backroom task.

A major snare of appraisal analysis is that in-built interpretation fuzziness abounds. To minimise indeterminacy, one needs to probe specific situational and cultural contexts and extensive cotext (logogenesis) – what SFL means by 'semantic prosody', i.e., the 'cumulative groove' (Coffin and O'Halloran 2005) of meaning patterning dynamically construed across texts. Such patterns are chosen by human appraisers and variations in individual/socio-cultural subjectivity – in repertoires/reservoirs (Martin 2010: 23) invariably spell significant voice and value orientation distinctions. And analysts too are biased – something that "[...] we can only be aware, and beware, of – and, of course, declare" (Miller 2007: 178).

2.1 Materials/methods

Observations are based on long-ongoing studies of register-idiosyncratic features of evaluation/stance in parliamentary debate (cf. Miller 2007, Miller and Johnson 2009, 2013, 2014). The 'Iraq [war] subcorpus' interrogated in these last three studies was created from the complete 2003 sessions of the US House of Representatives (HoR – 17 million words of raw data), as transcribed in the Congressional Record. It comprises nearly 1.5 million tokens, is encoded according to TEI standards, POS tagged and XAIRA-readable. The main comparative corpus was created from the UK House of Commons (HoC) Hansard of 2003, almost 1 million tokens.

Focus is on attitudinal function bundles (Halliday 1985: 262) whose patterns prove statistically salient. Method involves purposefully ‘shunting’ (Halliday 2002[1961]: 45, Miller 2006), between different dimensions, using the corpus “[...] as a kind of ‘echo chamber’[...].” (Thompson and Hunston 2006: 13). Expanded concordances are analysed for APPRAISAL SYSTEMS (Martin and White 2005), but also for ideational meanings ‘coupling’ with these (Bednarek and Martin 2010: 19).

2.2 A hint at findings – and more hurdles

One study focuses on that especially Female Democrat phrase: it is * time to/ for/ that... (Miller and Johnson 2014). From the analysis of what it is time for who to do/ think/ be/ say etc., 66% of all Processes in HoR emerge as material (construing the US ‘just do it!’ paradigm), and the putative Doer almost invariably the House itself and/or the nation and/or its administration. Oversimplifying, Democrats urge spending funds on US needs; Republicans on the war on terror. Democrats demand accountability/the truth from President Bush; Republicans from Saddam.

Nearly all instances enact invoked, or less often inscribed, - or + judgement: social sanction: propriety and/or veracity: a textbook illustration of ‘institutionalized’ affect: (dis)satisfaction, with the way things are. Re Engagement, the typical choice is for monogloss –except when there is explicit subjectivization (15%). ‘I think/ believe’ prefacing is more of a HoR than a HoC thing, more of a Democrat than a Republican thing, and mostly a Female Democrat thing: evidence of ‘tentative’ languaging or of assertive contraction of meanings (cf. Bevitori 2010)?

2.2.1 Interpretation snares include The ‘Russian Doll’ and ‘Piecemeal Puzzle’ syndromes. The former dilemma arises when one category of attitude functions as the indirect expression of a different category, which itself functions as a token of yet another category, etc., raising the question of how many of these layers, one inside the other, should be included in an analysis – and how to code them (Thompson 2014).

Corpus analysis complicates things further, as more than one concordance can belong to the same intervention: what I’m calling the Piecemeal Puzzle quandary. We need all the pieces of the puzzle for the full evaluative picture.

One tri-colon pieced together (Democrat male: Filner 2003-10-16) follows:

And I say to my friends, to my families in San Diego, it is time to turn this matter over to the United Nations. It is time that we internationalize this force. It is time that we bring our troops home; and we can spend that \$87 billion on education, on health, on our veterans here at home.

Each ‘it is time’ instance invokes +judgement: propriety of what it is time to do. The explicit addressees of the Proclamation – my friends and my families – intensify the judgement through invoked +appreciation: valuation.

Expanding further, we find what heads the tricolon:

We are going to have the accountability that this body deserves only if we vote "no" on this matter.

invoking +appreciation: valuation of the accountability the House deserves, and +judgement: veracity re accountability, and inscribing +judgement: propriety of voting ‘no’ to have that accountability.

We also find the command closing the tricolon:

Vote "no" on the supplemental

which intensifies the already inscribed +judgement on voting ‘no’ and upgrades the +judgement: propriety on what it is time to do to ‘provoked’ appraisal.

And another concordance could throw up something else that makes analysis re-thinking necessary. The ticklish process of appraisal tagging/re-tagging in a large corpus is ideally – if vexingly – never-ending!

PART II. In search for meaning: what corpora can/cannot tell

A diachronic case study of the State of the Union Addresses (1790-2013)

Paul Bayley, Cinzia Bevitori

1. Aims

This paper, based on the analysis of 226 speeches by American Presidents over a period of 224 years, aims at exploring what can and cannot be achieved by combining CL methods and procedures with the analysis of texts and discourse within the theoretical framework of SFL, focussing particularly on some aspects of the interpersonal metafunction (Halliday and Matthiesen 2004, Martin and White 2005). Moving beyond textual ‘aboutness’ (Bayley and Bevitori 2011), it is argued that certain kinds of lexicogrammatical patterns can be detected through the analysis of a non-annotated corpus. Moreover, with particular reference to our case-study, it is also claimed that shifts in these patterns indicate diachronic change in the rhetorical thrust of State of the Union addresses, from an ‘informative’ style, i.e. presenting a report, to a more ‘persuasive’ one, i.e. soliciting action.

2. The State of the Union Address (SoU)

2.1. SoU: Practice and Purpose and Contextual Configuration

State of the Union Addresses (henceforth SoUs) are one of the canonical forms through which presidential power takes shape. Presidents have few formal powers but they have acquired ‘the power to persuade’ (Neustadt 1960, 1990). Persuasion and negotiation are the means through which U.S. Presidents exercise their authority and influence decisions. Congress, on the other hand, having more formal powers than the President, is often in conflict with the administration; consequently, SoUs constitute one strategic site of this conflict.

The practice of these messages, which are formally aimed at a very specific addressee (Congress) but which has over time expanded to include the American people at large (Tulis 1987), is officially mandated by Article II, Section 3 of the United States Constitution, which states:

He shall from time to time give to the Congress Information of the State of the Union, and recommend to their Consideration such Measures as he shall judge necessary [...].

Thus the nature of what is being exchanged in the discourse, i.e. the speaker gives information and requests services, is inscribed in law. As far as field is concerned, SoUs are political speeches delivered on a formal, ritualized occasion. The purpose of the messages, which are traditionally given by the President on a yearly basis [note 1], is to inform Congress on the actions taken by the administration and to provide a general presentation of the President’s agenda for the coming year. A clear overlap can thus be observed between field and tenor features. The tenor involves an institutional speaker and an institutional addressee, both holders of power and often in conflict with one another; hence, the message typically, and increasingly over time, enacts a struggle for power. Finally, the mode of the text is a ritualized one-to-many monologue, delivered either orally, written-to-be-spoken, or, as a written text, as will be detailed in section 3.1.2.

2.2. The Corpus

The complete SoU corpus includes all 226 presidential messages, from President Washington’s first address, in January 1790, to President Obama’s latest, in January 2013. Of these, 133 were written texts and 93 oral, although only 5 written texts have been delivered since 1934. The corpus is composed of over 1,770,000 running words. For the purpose of this study, in order to search for diachronic change, it has been chronologically subdivided into five sub-corpora:

- 1) 1790-1864 - up to the last Civil War address;
- 2) 1865-1916 - before entering WWI;
- 3) 1917-1945 - up to the end of WWII;
- 4) 1946-1989 - The Cold War;

5) 1990-2013 - end of Cold War to the present day.

3. Approaching the corpus: What you can/cannot see

A first step in the analysis of diachronic change was to make keyword searches among the subcorpora. As expected, keywords are typically – albeit not always – nouns, relating to ‘subject matter’ or ‘aboutness’. However, and importantly, several functional lexical items which are frequent in any corpus figure as key in one or more subcorpora and it is on these that we will focus our attention.

3.1. What you CANNOT see (without reading the texts)

3.1.1 Rhetorical structure

Predictably, identifying recurrent rhetorical patterns in the texts that make up the corpus requires close reading. For example, the early Presidents tended to get straight down to business, dealing typically with, after a very brief greeting, relationships with other nations and then moving on to domestic affairs and finance. Between 1810 and 1880, addresses began with a formal greeting followed by a lengthy ‘thanks to the Lord’ for the good harvest, the clement weather, the abundant fruits of the earth, the lack of natural disasters (or the opposite). Such patterns are not easy to detect through concordancing procedures, not even by searching for names of the Lord, as 18th century American English had so many variations on it.

3.1.2 Variation

There are many forms of variation in the corpus, including variation on the basis of mode, e.g. spoken and written texts; variation on the basis of mode and tenor, particularly due to technological changes. In addition, perusal of the texts shows a sporadic use of sub-headings or numbered sections between 1872 and 1981, as well as the use of crude tables and balance sheets, which were typically used in the 19th century. Furthermore, variation can be noted on the basis of individual style; for example, both Theodore Roosevelt and Wilson introduced styles that were more openly persuasive than their predecessors. Since 1960, the persuasive style has become the standard, and the practice of using professional speechwriters has consolidated. Finally, variation over time on the basis of the spokenness and/or writtenness of texts is also observable; for example, a comparison of the conclusive paragraph of Washington’s first SoU in 1790 and Obama’s most recent in 2013, both delivered orally, reveals differences regarding lexical density and taxis, with a shift from ‘crystalline’ to ‘choreographic’ complexity (Halliday 2002[1987]). However, as will be discussed in the following section, keyword searches among the subcorpora show that these variations have been systematic over time.

3.2. What you CAN see

3.2.1 Keywords

A cursory examination of diachronic keywords, derived by comparing the different time periods, provides clues as to how the lexicogrammar has changed. For example, from an analysis of the keywords generated by comparing the lists of items of period 1 with the remainder of the corpus, it emerges that the top three keywords are *the*, *which* and *of*, and this finding, as well as being unexpected (keywords are typically nouns, and typically specific to the subject matter), points to the densely packed nominal style of early SoUs, as suggested above. Conversely, comparing period 5 with the remainder of the corpus, the three most ‘key’ items are *we*, *you* and *America*, once again a finding that is surprising but which points to an increasing personalisation of the language and a stronger construction of national identity. In fact, in period 1, America is construed as a geographical reality – the continent – but in period 5 as a political reality – the nation as a living and sentient being, as part of a collective narrative. Moreover, a chart of relative frequency of these three lexical items reveals that it has increased constantly over time.

3.2.2 Interpersonal meanings: identity, modalization and modulation, engagement

This brief summary now closes with some findings regarding the modals *may* and *must* and the personal pronoun *you*. Analysis of the two modals as resources of ‘Engagement’ (Martin and White 2005) shows that there has been a steady decrease in the use of discourse that ‘expands’ and an increase in the discourse that ‘contracts’. The frequency of *may* gradually decreases over time, while the frequency of *must* gradually increases, with a sharp rise in the fourth and fifth

period. A comparative analysis of all the instances of *may* occurring in the first and fifth period highlights a shift in use. In period 5 *may* is typically found in two distinctive patterns: the formulaic *may God bless America*, and the expanding/contracting pair *may [...] but*, which may be regarded as an instance of persuasive discourse, particularly in institutional/political domains (Bayley 2007). On the other hand, in period 1, from a dialogic perspective, Presidents tended to entertain alternative points of view. The modal operator *must* co-occurs with the pronoun *we* in 66% of all instances of its use in period 5, compared with 11% in period 1, one of many indices of an increasingly authoritative presidential stance.

Regarding the personal pronoun *you*, after a slight decrease from period 1 to period 2, its frequency gradually increases, and increases rapidly in period 5. While *you* in the early period largely refers to Congress, and tends to have an informative function (*I'm happy to inform you*), in period 5, half of its instances are not references to the addressee but to the common man (*the idea that if you work hard and meet your responsibilities [...]*). When it does refer to Congress, its function is persuasive (*I urge you*).

PART III. The potential and drawbacks of annotation: what taggers can/cannot do

Sabrina Fusari

1. The role of corpus annotation in the SFL-CL 'marriage'

Although raw text corpora have been felt to be "inadequate for many of the questions Systemic Functional Linguistics asks" (Honnibal 2004: 7), annotation also creates problems, not only for its costs in terms of time and money (Wu 2009: 142), but also due to technical and philosophical issues.

1.1. Automatic versus manual annotation

Any serious discussion of SFL annotation should start from a recognition that, in the current practice of corpus-based SFL, automatic annotation should not be seen as a replacement of manual annotation, but as an aid that "will do some of the work" (O'Donnell, personal communication), and perhaps more and more of it as the autocoding applications embedded within SFL aware corpus software become increasingly sophisticated. In a nutshell, automatic annotation is worth pursuing, not to replace the qualitative power of manual analysis, but because, without it, SFL tagging of corpora the size of those mentioned above by Miller, Bayley and Bevitori (millions of words) would likely be impossible.

The main characteristic of SFL that makes it more difficult to annotate, and also typically slower to process with a computer, is the higher complexity of its formalism in comparison with post-Chomskian grammars, a direct consequence of: (1) the priority assigned by SFL to meaning over form, and (2) the three-tiered layers of meaning. This has led to the conclusion that some kind of 'simplification' of grammatical formalism is needed for the development of SFL computational tools (O'Donnell and Bateman 2005, O'Donnell 2005).

Another problem that does not pertain directly either to the meaning-centered nature of SFL or to the technicalities of the parsing systems is a cultural problem, which is not less important than the ones mentioned above – perhaps more so. The problem is that SFL is a qualitative approach to the study of language, and many scholars (not necessarily 'old school' ones) frown at the idea that a machine will be truly able to enhance it. And this is not just old-hat rhetoric based on a conservative mistrust of technology: indeed,

This sense of discomfort, compounded by the 'mechanical' nature of the initial analysis by computer, the 'messiness' of corpus data, and the sense of loss of control in the face of numbers of words running into the hundreds of millions, is probably one of the most important factors which is still holding some functional linguists back from using corpus analysis [...] (Butler 2004: 168)

1.2. Is SFL corpus annotation worthwhile?

If providing a reliable large scale automatic annotation system for SFL is so problematic, and some degree of 'ticklish trawling' is still required, why do we need automatic annotation anyway? The short answer is that we do because, without it, we would: (1) reduce the scope of corpus-based SFL studies and, as a direct consequence, and (2) leave a number of assertions in the literature untested. In addition to these two fundamental reasons, we need automatic annotation because (3) it is a natural development of an effort (parsing Systemic Functional Grammar) that has been ongoing for over 50 years,

and which has yielded such important results that it simply cannot be abandoned (O'Donnell and Bateman 2005); finally, (4) parsing the grammar has practical applications beyond the scope of language theorizing, as shown, among others, by the interest in computational SFL by the military intelligence services of the Australian Government (Kappagoda 2009).

2. A test on two taggers

Below is a summary of what two widely available taggers (UAM Corpus Tool and Halliday Center Tagger) can do for an average user – not for an expert in parsing, or annotation, which I do not consider myself to be. The test was performed on two texts taken from two small corpora on the European sovereign debt crisis (Fusari, to appear), and it concentrated on the annotation of Process types. The texts are the speech in which Mario Draghi coined the term 'fiscal compact' (2,141 words), and a Financial Times editorial evaluating its pros and cons (1,070 words).

2.1. The taggers

The UAM Corpus Tool, perhaps the best known computational tool for SFL, is not only a tagger, but a fully fledged corpus program, including applications for concordances, keywords lists, phrases and statistical analysis. The Halliday Center Tagger, instead, is a genuine tagger, which currently supports only manual tagging, although its developers are working on its intelligence to provide automatic annotation in the near future (Yan, personal communication).

2.1.1. The Halliday Center Tagger is a new project whose earliest prototype was put online for internal test in May 2011. Being still in its infancy, it has relatively few users, but I selected it for my test due to its user friendliness, which makes it a suitable instrument to introduce beginner students to computational SFL.

Its advantages can be summed up as follows: (1) it works online without installation, on any computer, preferably with Mozilla or Chrome as browsers; (2) it offers the whole range of pre-loaded SFL tagging schemes based on the three metafunctions (allowing for customization); (3) it exports tagged texts very easily by simply copying/pasting on a word processor, proving a valuable resource for students writing essays about SFL.

Its disadvantages, as highlighted by my test, are: (1) the lack of an automatic annotation tool; (2) file exportation is currently only possible in Excel or SQLite and (3) the tagged texts cannot be saved in a format directly readable by a corpus concordancer. So, at present, the Halliday Center Tagger cannot be used to feed annotated texts directly into a corpus concordancer.

2.1.2. My test was performed on the current version of the UAM Corpus Tool (2.8.14). The new version (3.0), promising to include many improvements specifically related to the automatic annotation tool, or Autocoder, is in its third beta test release at the time of writing.

After cross-checking, the margin of error for manual and automatic annotation was, respectively, 8.4% and 18.8%. While all the mistakes made in manual analysis resulted from distraction or issues related to the hybrid nature of certain Processes (Banks, to appear), most errors in automatic annotation arose from Verbal Group Complexes being counted by the Autocoder as two Processes. Other errors occurred in the Autocoder's recognition of relational processes instantiated by verbs other than 'to be' and 'to have' (e.g. "the ECB stands ready" and "banks have come under pressure" were recognized as material; "this means" was recognized as mental), and with modal Adjuncts including a verb (e.g. "as far as I'm concerned" was recognized as a mental process). The margin of error for autocoding is at its lowest when projection is involved, perhaps due to the formally more straightforward association between verbal/mental processes and projecting verbs; however, there were some exceptions, like the expression 'to claim lives', which the Autocoder considered verbal. While a near-20% error margin might seem rather high, it proved much less time consuming to edit the Autocoder's output than to annotate the texts manually from scratch.

To round up, the advantages of the UAM Corpus Tool are: (1) the general statistics offered even without any annotation for text, corpus and subcorpus; (2) concordancing, including various forms of the same lemma, and other corpus facilities, which are numerous and very effective; (3) the Autocoder, which promises to improve its performance with version 3.0, currently in its beta.

The disadvantages, as highlighted by my test, can be summarized as: (1) the Autocoder needs manual double-checking, unless the analyst is prepared to accept a near-20% error margin; (2) the Autocoder needs a fully operational version of Java to run; (3) whole texts and individual segments must be carefully annotated to be fully searchable; (4) despite its user

friendliness, the program requires more computer skills and expertise than the Halliday Center Tagger, so it is less suitable for students.

Whether fully automated SFL corpus annotation will ever be possible is probably more a philosophical than a technical question. The ultimate aim, in fact, is not to produce the 'perfect' computational tool that will allow us to tag 'everything' in SFL terms, but to reach an agreement on which 'simplifications' SFL scholars are prepared to accept as a reasonable compromise to reconcile their deep, meaning-centered qualitative approach with the advantages offered by corpus methodologies, bearing in mind that

Corpus linguistic investigation is not a panacea for all the problems of linguistic theorising and description. It is unquestionably a valid point of departure and a sound basis, upon which to develop it, and against which to test theoretical and descriptive statements [...] (Tucker 2001: 212)

Therefore, any possible solution to the annotation problems raised above needs to stem from a view of automatic SFL annotation as an aid to qualitative analysis, and a means to an end (speeding up the analysis of large amounts of text), not as a replacement for our 'ticklish trawling'.

PART IV. Pros and Cons in Applying Corpus Methodologies to the Study of GM

To what extent does the corpus assist the researcher?

Antonella Luporini

1. Preliminary considerations: Types of metaphor, and their relation to the corpus

1.1 Lexical and grammatical metaphor

Without going into the details of an age-old debate, metaphor can be defined in the simplest terms by referring to the Greek etymology of the word itself, as already explained by Aristotle: a phenomenon by which meaning is transferred from the linguistic element that would 'most naturally' realize it to a different one.

For most scholars, 'metaphor' has always meant 'lexical metaphor', i.e. the use of a lexical item (word, or group/phrase) within a context that is not the one with which this is prototypically associated. In recent years – and especially after the inception of the cognitive view of metaphor (Lakoff and Johnson 1980) – substantial research has been carried out on lexical metaphors, considered as linguistic instantiations of deeper metaphorical mappings that take place in our conceptual system. Researchers working in this field frequently make use of corpus methodologies (Deignan 2005); indeed, systematic metaphor identification protocols have been specifically designed to improve accuracy/consistency when scanning large amounts of data for linguistic metaphors (MIP: Pragglejaz group 2007, MIPVU: Steen et al. 2010).

However, from a Systemic Functional perspective, metaphor in language is not limited to single lexemes: it may involve entire grammatical structures (Halliday and Matthiessen 2004: 586-658). In the same way as words have 'literal' or more basic senses, so grammatical structures have 'congruent' or primary functions within the system of a language: they are most naturally associated with the expression of certain Interpersonal, Ideational, or Textual meanings. When a grammatical structure is used to realize a different meaning, thus performing a 'non-congruent' or 'non-standard' function, this creates a tension between wording and underlying semantics that is comparable to that produced, on a different plane, by lexical metaphor. Thus, lexical and grammatical metaphor (henceforth GM) may be regarded as two complementary perspectives on semantic variation (Taverniers 2006); indeed, both phenomena imply a 'remeaning' rather than a simple 'rewording' (Simon-Vanderbergen 2003: 224). Corpus techniques are also frequently applied to the study of GM, often from a cross-linguistic perspective (Mikolic Juznic 2012, Yang 2013).

1.2 Metaphor and (versus?) corpus

Despite its influence, corpus-assisted research on metaphor – at both ends of the lexico-grammatical continuum – testifies once more to the validity of the claim that 'high-level' meaning studies largely (we may even say naturally) resist automation (cf. Miller, Part I above). Firstly, metaphor analysis necessarily 'aims high' and tends towards 'richness', since it involves working at the level of semantics while always 'keeping an eye on' the situational and the cultural context, as is the case with

other inherently qualitative areas of study such as APPRAISAL SYSTEMS (cf. Part I and II above). Secondly, and equally importantly, metaphor is by its very nature a second-order phenomenon, one which implies a transfer of meaning of some kind, and a resulting semantic and functional contrast with the corresponding non-metaphorical alternative (Taverniers 2006). This 'tension' is indeed what makes metaphor such a powerful tool to expand our meaning potential as speakers (Halliday and Matthiessen 2004: 641), but it is also one of the main sources of difficulties in using corpus techniques. Investigating metaphor requires engaging with multiple directions of analysis, moving between wording and underlying semantics on the one hand, and between metaphorical and contrasting congruent/literal realizations on the other; such a complex analytical procedure simply cannot be automated.

Thus, if corpus techniques smooth the way for the researcher (enabling him/her to collect and process quantities of data that were inconceivable until a few decades ago, and providing tools that make it much easier to retrieve patterns and compute statistics), metaphor identification remains a complex task, for which the researcher's contribution is essential. Despite recent attempts to achieve automatic extraction of metaphors from corpora (almost invariably in the field of conceptual metaphor: cf. Steen et al. 2010, Berber Sardinha 2010), manual analysis and a close reading of at least part of the data are always required.

Finally, a further obstacle to qualitative and quantitative corpus-assisted research on GM is the current absence of large, specifically annotated, would-be reference corpora [note 1]. But creating similar resources is in itself a demanding task, requiring the substantial investment of time and effort from (ideally multiple) researchers in the absence of fully automated annotation procedures (cf. Fusari, Part III above).

In my paper, I investigate what corpora can/cannot tell us about GM, briefly recounting my experience of looking for metaphorical representations of the financial/economic crisis in two specialised comparable corpora.

2. The Case Study: GMs for the global crisis in The Financial Times and Il Sole 24 Ore 2008

2.1 Materials/methods

The findings discussed here are part of a larger PhD research project involving a cross-linguistic/cross-cultural analysis of the conceptual and grammatical metaphors used to construe the global crisis in the specialised press during the 'annus horribilis' 2008.

Two comparable corpora were specially built for the purposes of this study, collecting front page and leading articles from all the 2008 issues of the two most authoritative and widely circulated financial newspapers in English and Italian: The Financial Times and Il Sole 24 Ore (307.000 and 557.000 words respectively).

The two corpora were lemmatised, tree-tagged, and analysed using the tools available on the online Corpus Query System The Sketch Engine (Kilgarrieff et al. 2004).

2.3 Negotiating volume/richness

The corpora compiled are relatively small if compared with a general corpus; however, they are still too large to be manually scanned for all instances of GM. An initial strategy of analysis was devised; this necessarily implied narrowing down the area of research, despite there always being "[...] a risk that patterns of potential interest may be missed [...] which is difficult to avoid completely" (Deignan and Potter 2004: 1234). Thus, the lexeme 'crisis' and its direct Italian equivalent 'crisi' were chosen as keywords and concordances for each were retrieved in sentence format to optimize the search for relevant instantiations [note 2]. In fact, as GM is a complex phenomenon that works at various levels of the rank scale and is inextricably connected with logogenetic patterns (Halliday and Matthiessen 1999:235), it cannot be adequately accounted for within the limits of the classic concordance window (cf. Miller, Part I above).

Initially analysis exploited the fact that several linguistic elements – automatically retrievable using corpus tools – function as pointers to textual instantiation of GM (e.g. suffixes -tion and -zione usually indicate nominalizations). After compiling a preliminary list of potential metaphor candidates on the basis of the keywords' collocate lists and Word Sketches (Kilgarrieff and Kosem 2012), a first group of relevant concordance lines was extracted from the initial set and analysed. To decrease the high risk of overlooking meaningful data by relying on computational tools only, the remaining concordances were subsequently manually probed. The final results highlighted the inaccuracy of automated quantitative analysis: less than 50% of the total occurrences of GM had been identified during the pilot survey.

Qualitative analysis, on the other hand, is necessarily manual. The following concordance (from the Financial Times corpus/front page) contains an interesting example of a metaphor of modality involving subjective: explicit orientation (in capitals):

José Manuel Barroso, European Commission President, said THE CRISIS MADE IT IMPERATIVE TO STRENGTHEN BANKING SUPERVISION

In this ‘experientialised’ modal clause (metaphorically realized by an attributive relational clause), the source of the modulated judgment is explicitly indicated in the Attributor, yet the metaphor has a clear ‘objectifying’ effect: readers are not told who will actually be in charge of strengthening banking supervision; a fundamental piece of information is missing. Similar effects can only be unveiled through qualitative meaning analysis. At the same time, the synergy between carefully examined quantitative and qualitative data is essential to explore ‘register-idiosyncratic’ patterns in discourse (Miller and Johnson 2009, 2013, 2014); this, too, was a fundamental aim of the study. A ‘hybrid’ approach, integrating computational tools and the researcher’s ‘ticklish’ contribution, seems the only viable solution to exploit the full potential of both.

Closing the Colloquium

Recalling Fillmore’s famous anecdote on the armchair linguist and the corpus linguist, which ends:

These two don’t speak to each other very often, but when they do the corpus linguist says to the armchair linguist, "Why should I think that what you tell me is true?", and the armchair linguist says to the corpus linguist, "Why should I think that what you tell me is interesting?" (Fillmore 1992: 35)

we conclude that what we need is for empirical scrutiny and reflection, the eye and the mind, to usefully interact. Though there are limits to corpus-assisted meaning analysis, it does force these two processes to continuously co-operate, or rather, forces the analyst to pool resources and use both eye and mind – in the main profitably, if ticklishly.

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Notes

MILLER (PART I – including colloquium Title)

[1] After Miller (2000).

[2] Martin's 2003 insistence on meaning made through a 'complex of logogenetic contingencies' appeared in the introduction to an appraisal publication, not fortuitously.

BAYLEY and BEVITORI (PART II)

[1] Every year since 1790, with the exception of 1841, 1881, 1933; twice in 1790 and 1981.

LUPORINI (PART IV)

[1] Cf. the VU Amsterdam Metaphor Corpus, a subset of the BNC Baby which was manually annotated for conceptual metaphors. Data available at: <http://www2.let.vu.nl/oz/metaphorlab/metcor/search/>.

[2] Total number of concordances for analysis: English corpus 357; Italian corpus 999.

A Genre-Based Analysis of Written User Guides and Digital Installation CDs

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1. Introduction

Written user guides and digital installation CDs are two text types commonly used to install software programs. Although sharing a general "communicative purpose" (Swales 2004), these two texts are different in the channel of communication, with one presented as a written document and the other as a digital one. The issue worth raising is whether to consider the two texts as variations within the same genre or as two distinct genres.

Although genres are identified thanks to their communicative purposes, "to define it simply in these terms is not sufficient" (Flowerdew 2013: 139). In SFL, genre is defined as "a recurrent configuration of meanings" (Martin 2009: 13) that can be recovered in the lexico-grammatical choices of the text. Flowerdew claims that genres can be defined with reference to "conventionalised lexico-grammatical features" in addition to the stages followed, and "the community of practice" (2013: 139-140).

This definition of genre accounts for written texts. In digital texts, visual signs and language are interwoven to present coherent bodies. Askehave and Nielsen (2005) challenged the 'traditional' view to genre theory, which explains the characteristics of 'printed' texts, and proposed a revised version where channel is taken into consideration. In this context, Kress (2003) stresses the need to formulate a multimodal theory of genre which encompasses the social and multi-modal features of discourse. Wysocki (2004) focuses on the primacy of the social factors arguing that visual use is shaped by generic requirements such as audience and purpose. Kress (2010) has focused on the interactive relationship between mode affordance and communicative purpose suggesting that different modes have different potentials in meaning construction, which are exploited by meaning-makers to advance communicative functions.

The present study proposes to explore the nature of the interplay between the social factors and channel affordance in the shaping of both texts. To do so, it compares the realization of specific genre features such as schema, move distribution, communicative purpose, target audience and discourse structure across both channels.

2. Methods

This study has focused on ten installation CDs and their respective user guides. The choice of these programs has been based on availability and the difference of their nature. The installation CDs are performed and screen captures are taken for each step, and then ordered in a word document. The first step of the analysis consists of determining the different moves of the typed and digital texts. Then a comparison is made between the frequencies of the moves of the texts. The linguistic features of both texts are analyzed from a functional grammatical perspective (Halliday 1985; Halliday and Matthiessen 2004) while the non-verbal ones are analyzed from a semiotic perspective (Kress and van Leeuwen 1996). The aim of this analysis is to unveil the interface between the social factors and channel affordance on the generic features.

3. Generic schema

The results have revealed that the installation procedure in each text is divided into three main stages: pre-installation, installation and post-installation, and that each one of these is divided into moves (see Table 1).

Installation stage	Moves
Pre-installation	PRM1: hardware-related measures
	PRM2: software-related measure
	PRM3: remark/note
	PRM4: access to other links
Installation	IM1: launching the installation
	IM2: access to the installation file
	IM3: specific information about the user
	IM4: set-up procedure
	IM5: connecting the hardware
	IM6: closing the installation
	IM7: access to other links/parts
	IM8: remarks/notes
	IM9: social move
	IM10: cancelling installation
Post-installation	POM1: a data base update or time registration/feedback
	POM2: checking the functionality of the software
	POM3: installing optional software programs
	POM4: closing the installation
	POM5: access to other links
	POM6: remarks/notes
	POM7: social moves

Table 1: A Generic Schema

4. Move distribution

The distribution of moves shows that the digital texts contain more moves than written texts. While CDs have more installation moves, user guides have more pre-installation and post-installation moves (see Figure 1). This reveals that the ultimate 'communicative purpose' (Swales 2004) of CDs is to install the software. User guides, on the other hand, introduce the installation (pre-installation), help install the software (installation) and give hints about post-installation procedures.

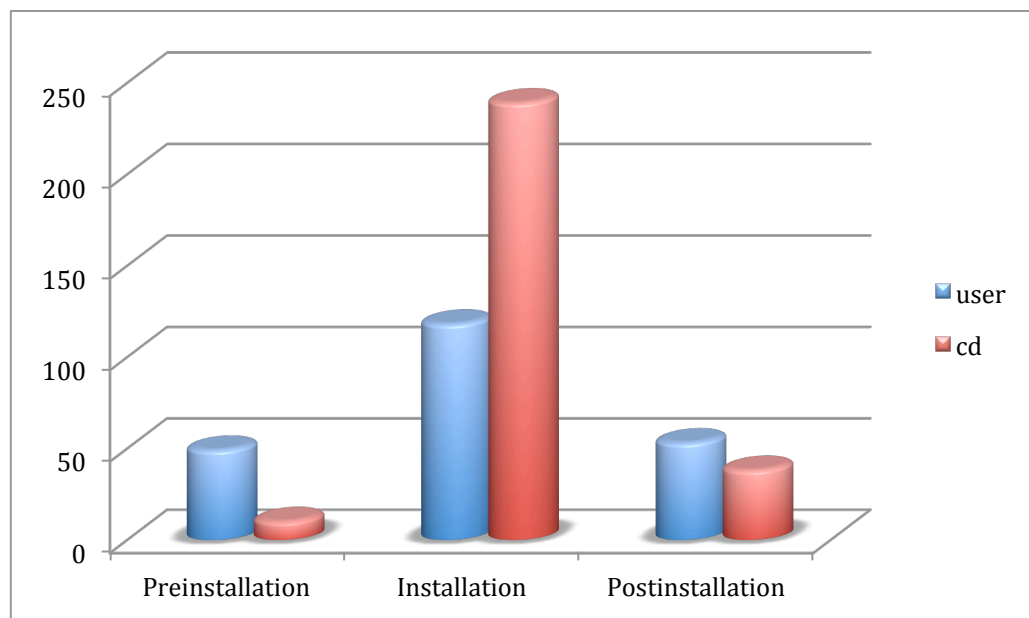


Figure 2: Move Distribution

5. Move sequence

An examination of move sequencing shows that channel potential is exploited to realize particular communicative functions or move sequences. In the user guide, the different moves are sequenced linearly to fulfill the installation function. In the installation CDs, the multi-layered organization of the screens allows for a linear sequencing of moves to fulfill the installation function. It can also allow for cancelling this function or following other paths such as reference to user guides or other documents.

6. Communicative purpose

The realization of the installation function is the underlying communicative purpose in both channels. Mood choices and process types are used as mediators for the realization of this function. The imperative mood along with mood metaphor constitutes 77% of mood choices in user guides and equals 57% in installation CDs. The predominance of material process types demonstrates the focus on the realization of the installation function.

The installation function takes different dimensions in both channels. The user guide functions exclusively as a facilitator of the installation function. This explains the predominance of the imperative mood. In installation CDs, the actual installation takes place where the moves are introduced in more elaborate ways. This explains the greater variety in discourse structures. Figure 2 representing a sample of the realization of licenses agreement move (IM9) in one program illustrates this. The screen is divided horizontally into sections to fulfill six sub-functions realized by several structures, mood choices and semiotic resources. In the parallel move in user guide, only a post-reading instruction is included in the imperative mood 'click yes if you accept the license agreement'.

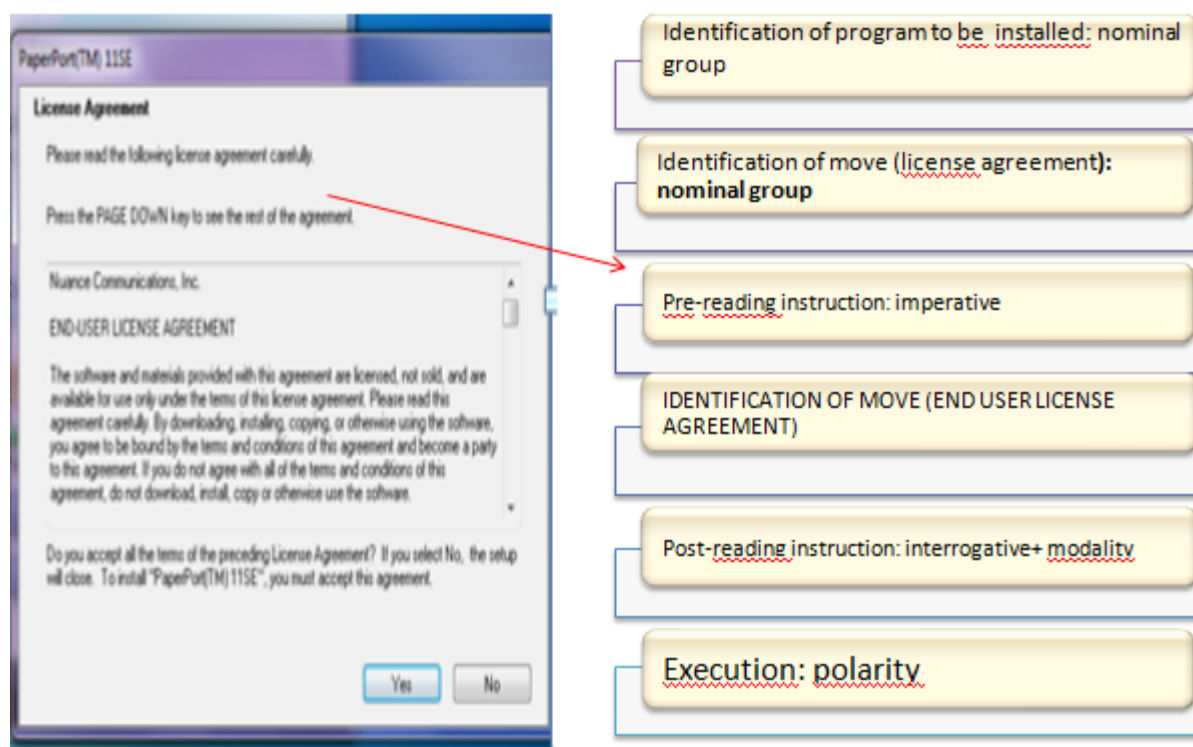


Figure 1: Realization of the License Agreement Move in Installation CDs

In addition to the installation function, the installation CD contains advertisements for the product as a recurrent minor function throughout the different phases of the installation. This function is realized thanks to the affordance of the channel. The multimodal nature of the CD and the potential of the screen format to include several functions simultaneously facilitates its incorporation. This signals a significant paradigm shift where the potential of the channel reshapes the communicative purpose.

7. Target audience

Both user guides and installation CDs are targeted from program designers to users. The imperative mood is exploited to realize this communicative relationship. The personal pronoun 'you' unconstrained by time and space is used to highlight this direct relationship. Both genres witness the concentration of 40 and 53 uses of this pronoun respectively in user guides and installation CDs. The fulfillment of the installation function is at the heart of the relationship between the program designers and target audience as the high concentration of the imperative mood, material processes and personal pronouns demonstrates.

In many instances, there are clear hints that users are perceived from two perspectives across the two genres. In user guides, the user is a receptive reader who is required to carry out instructions. There is an important collocation between the personal pronoun 'you' and conditional sentences, a collocation that indicates that user guides exploit problem-solving strategies. In installation CDs, the user is perceived as a more active user involved in the actual function of installation. The personal pronoun 'you' frequently collocates with the mental processes 'want' and 'prefer' to indicate that the user is a decision-maker. The active involvement of the user is also highlighted in the use of the personal pronoun 'I'.

8. Discourse structure

An examination of discourse structure across the genres has demonstrated the dynamic interface between the social factors and channel potential in the shaping of discourse structure. Installation CDs exhibit more variety in discourse structure. They rely on clauses as well as elements below the clause (nominal groups, adverbial groups, verb groups, etc.) which constitute approximately 60% of all the structures used. User guides display more complexity in discourse structure relying exclusively on clauses. The discrepancy is tied to social factors such as communicative purpose, reader expectations coupled with channel affordance. The variety of discourse structures in CDs is in congruity with the variety in sub-functions in CDs. For instance, the nominal groups are associated with identification function. Reader expectations play an important role in discourse structure. In user guides, the user seeks guidance to fulfill the installation functions. This explains the high occurrence of paratactic structures, time indicators and pointers to CDs. In installation CDs, the reader interacts with the digital screen to execute the installation function and is not supposed to read long and complex sentences. Therefore she/he expects smaller structures, interactive buttons and space indicators.

The difference in discourse complexity is also attributed to channel affordance. In user guides, language is the only semiotic resource bearer of meaning, which explains the complexity of structures. In installation CDs, a variety of semiotic resources are combined in complementary and compensatory ways to carry out meaning. For instance, in user guides IM2 move is mostly realized by clause complexes, containing more than one taxis in addition to the material process "to click" in the imperative mood. In installation CDs, the parallel move located in the root folder is realized through the combination of several semiotic resources. A picture of a CD is employed as an icon for the move. The material process 'click' and the goal (the program to be installed) in the user guide are paralleled by the sound of the click achieved thanks to the cursor which serves as vector between the user and the installation button. The imperative mood in the user guide is equivalent to the highlighted button and the verbal group in the bare infinitive above it which trigger the action of clicking.

9. Conclusion

The present study has demonstrated that social factors and channel affordance interact in a constant flux in order to dictate the generic choice at the linguistic and semiotic levels for both genres. The communicative purpose of the installation function dictates mood choices, the distribution of process types and discourse structure. Target audience shapes the use of personal pronouns and discourse features. This study has tried to demonstrate that meaning potential in both channels is used by program designers to foster the communicative functions. This study has shown that channel affordance has helped reshape the communicative purpose to include minor purposes such as publicity. This study has also proved that concepts like communicative purpose and target audience are composite constructs that presume diversity. In both genres, the installation purpose is perceived in different ways and these intricate differences exert significant effects on the generic choices.

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A Systemic Functional Linguistic Investigation into Children's Meaning Making at 4-5 Years in Classroom Role-Play

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Keywords: SFL; classroom role-play; language learning; children's meaning making; spontaneous collaborative dialogue

Introduction

Research into spontaneous language interaction between children in classroom role-play falls both within research on early childhood education and that of classroom dialogue. Yet it appears that neither research tradition has focussed in depth on the actual structures, functions and language used in role-play. As Gardner and Yaacob (2008: 301) note 'most studies on the benefits of role-play in early childhood education pay little attention to dialogue, or the actual language, and how this is used in context'. In my work I address Gardner and Yaacob's observation directly through empirical research and SFL investigation into children's meaning-making in spontaneous classroom role-play and the opportunities this offers for learning language and learning through language. Although SFL has been used as an analytical framework in research into children's oral language (e.g. Halliday 1975, Painter, 1991) and into classroom discourse (e.g. Torr 2000, Torr and Simpson 2003, Christie 2002) I believe that this is the first time an SFL approach has been used to investigate language in classroom role-play. The following research questions were the focus of the data analysis:

- How is language used by children of 4-5 years in classroom role-play?
- How do children construe the social situation of the role-play?
- How can role-play be said to encourage learning language and learning through language?

The classroom context and methods

The data collection was carried out in a mainstream co-educational state first school in an ethnically mixed area in the South East of England. The Early Years Foundation Stage had two classes of 30 children of between 4 and 5 years. The role-play area shared between the two classes was themed as different scenarios (e.g. Vet's, Baby Clinic, Shoe Shop) every two weeks through the provision of dressing up clothes and play equipment. While primed by the teachers through short introductions to each new scenario, the role-plays were the products of the children's spontaneous collaborative language interaction.

Video and audio recording equipment was used to capture 14 role-plays which equated to around 3 hours of video-recorded role-play data and two audio recorded teacher introductions. Each role-play was transcribed and Systemic Functional analysis was carried out using the UAM Corpus Tool (<http://www.wagsoft.com>). The children participating in the research all had written consent from their parents, and in addition I spoke to each of the children about the study in terms that I felt they could understand. In addition to their verbal consent, I looked for signs that might signal that they might be unhappy at any point with consenting to participate.

Findings

For the purposes of this paper I focus on one of the role-plays, themed as a 'baby clinic', in order to highlight some key points in response to the research questions. Data from other role-play scenarios within the data set showed similar patterns of language use. After detailed study of the transcribed role-play language it was clear that the children did more than simply role-play; different streams of language were being used within this single play interaction. Firstly, there were utterances (made up of one or more clauses) that were spoken as a character, such as Doctor or Mummy. Secondly there were utterances where the children spoke as themselves but the language functioned to organise the narrative of the role-play or to explore the equipment in the area. Finally there were utterances that seemed disconnected from the role-play referring to the wider classroom routine. Each utterance within the data was coded to reflect these three streams of language described as: (i) 'in role' "Yes, doctor speaking"; (ii) 'in play' "you be the Mummy and I'll be the Daddy"; and (iii) 'in class' "Come on, it's time to go now, snack time".

In the 'baby clinic' role-play I found that 68% of the language (or 148 utterances) was 'in role', that is, talking as a character. This compares with the 'in play' language which was at 28% (or 62 utterances) and 'in class' at 4% (or 8 utterances). My particular interest with the role-play language was how children construed the social situation of the 'baby clinic' through their choice of processes and participants. In terms of the choice of processes, it was material processes which were dominant (64%), followed by the use of relational processes (33%) with a small number of examples of behavioural and verbal, but no mental or existential, processes. The material processes appeared to have a dual function: they articulated what had to be done within the 'baby clinic' thereby construing the Field, and at the same time developed the narrative and the action within the role-play, for example: "I have to check the baby's heart". The second aspect was the use of participants in this role-play. Participants were predominantly personal pronouns which might be expected in a spontaneous spoken dialogue. However in order to build the Field, the children also chose context specific participants around doctor and baby equipment and body parts, for example: 'Her heart is pumping very slow'.

In order to understand whether the 'in role' language differed from the other language streams, the choice of processes 'in play' was also analysed (i.e. utterances where the children spoke as themselves but the language functioned to organise the narrative of the role-play or to explore the equipment in the area). The predominance of material processes in the 'in role' language was not the case in the 'in play' language; rather it was relational processes which were used most at 33% with only 18% material processes. This finding I suggest means that that the different language choices were linked to different meaning making objectives. What I mean by this is that the use of relational processes had different functions in the two types of language. The relational processes 'in role' allowed the children to discuss the status of the baby, for example: "they are not very clean her ears". In contrast, 'in play', they permitted the children to discuss the play equipment, for example "this is a thermometer", and to organise the roles that the children would play, as in: "you be the mummy".

The final part of the investigation into this particular role-play was to consider how classroom role-play might provide opportunities for learning. Painter in her work on children's language development and learning suggests that '...it is within dialogic interaction that the child learns to shape experience into ideational meaning.' (2004: 148). It was the use of interrogatives in particular which seemed to produce a pause in the role-playing and create a space for learning where the children could extend their own and others' understanding of language and of the world. As noted by Halliday 'in asking a question, a speaker is taking on the role of seeker of information and requiring the listener to take on the role of supplier of the information demanded' (Halliday and Matthiessen 2004: 106). In the example below, the children explore together the referent (a thermometer) created by a pause in the role-play through an interrogative by Ishaan in line 90. Nadine provides an exploration of the function of the thermometer and the process that accompanies its use in line 93. Ishaan extends this information further and uses it then within the language of the role-play in line 94 as he refers directly to the use of the thermometer with the baby, the outcome and the consequence.

(90) Ishaan: What's in this bag?

(91) Nadine: Um, just some things

(92) Ishaan: Hey this is a thermometer

(93) Nadine: That sees her temperature; you put it in their mouth

(94) Ishaan: Yeah, oh no green, she's going to be hot, she's hot that means bad. It's bad!"

Conclusion

In this research I suggest that the language employed by children's peer-to-peer classroom role-play has three broad functions realised through different lexicogrammatical choices. In addition, that the co-construction of dialogue in role-play offers children opportunities to create and interact with different social roles through registers in social contexts that children may or may not have directly experienced. As a child, the range of social roles is limited yet learning about the different types of language and registers is necessary to develop learning and language skills that equip children for the range of social roles and relationships that they will undertake later.

Communication and language remains a focus in the Early Years National Curriculum (Department for Education 2012). It is my view that role-play can contribute significantly as a curriculum resource as it allows the practice of language and meaning making skills that are in development in the child. However, if we are to realise the full potential of classroom role-play in learning language and learning through language, it is necessary to understand in depth how children use language in the role-play area. This study has taken the first step in understanding more about the use of language in role-play and its significance for language learning and learning through language and the role of Systemic Functional Linguistics in facilitating this insight.

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Modes, Medium and Hypertext: Some Theoretical and Methodological Issues in the Conceptualization of Genre in Digital Texts

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Keywords: social networks; digital; hypertext; genre; text

Introduction

Social networks appeared on the Internet during the mid-2000s. From then on, social networks convey a great majority of social interactions on the web. They have progressively replaced certain practices and colonized others. They shape manners of social action and relationships that socially drill their users, who adopt them in such a way that it is acritical, though with some exceptions.

The aim of this presentation is to analyse interactions on Facebook and evaluate the adequacy of the notions of discourse genre and text (Halliday and Hasan 1976, 1989, Martin and Rose 2003, Kress 2003, 2010, Fairclough 2003). The issues I present are the result of a first stage of research based on the analysis of 50 cases on Facebook and 50 cases on Twitter.

In globalization processes (Fairclough 2002) interactions depend on specific forms or genres that specialize in transnational and interregional communication. Social networks are a part of the forms that appear with the new capitalism, and which carry semiotic transformations that modify ways of being and acting. One of the most prominent transformations is that social networks manage to bring the daily and most personal dimension of our social relationships, into the public web sphere through interaction patterns designed by their platforms, by means of devices that are progressively dynamic and accessible (such as computers, tablets and phones). Thus, our private spaces, even our intimacy, circulate the public space on the web, similarly to other types of information.

The social network: Facebook

The platforms that support social networks have the distinctive feature of organizing by means of their interfaces an interaction space, activities and social and communicative roles [note 1]. These networks, at the same time, symbolically impose on them by means of metaphors. Interaction becomes a complex process because these predesigned aspects are superimposed to roles, activities and patterns that activate the texts that participants exchange. In the same interaction, predesigned formats and genres that are activated by the user coexist, which in some cases leads to the superposition of roles, activities and patterns that do not always coincide. When this happens, users recognize this divergence and express it [note 2].

Genres account for action and social interaction in the text. In social networks, the possibility of using these forms creatively - outside of the usages that are expected given their design - are remote. This has to do with the stiffness of these formats, the impossibility of intervening with their designs, and to the penetration achieved in their users, who adapt not only to their patterns of use, but also to the changes that regularly are produced in them (i.e. 'biography' in 2011).

Interaction on Facebook

The success of any social network lies in its ability to achieve the most amount of user traffic. Relevance is measured by the volume of information and interaction capacity that circulates in them. This goal is quantified according to three criteria: quantity of users; level of participation; the capacity for the spread of information in that social network [note 3] (Chanes and Noblia 2012). These issues have a direct impact on the forms of interaction of the participants. Platforms are designed to achieve that. Information architecture is the condition for the possibility of these purposes. It accounts for different elements such as the layout of graphic elements; the size of the field; data that is requested and stored; the way this information is cross-checked and circulates the web.

Facebook offers intuitive surfing to cut down on effort. The design of the platform defines a virtual space for interaction, one where at least three activities are distributed in space: publication of comments on the wall, chat, and profile (and each of its subsections). The space each platform assigns to each activity allows us to assess the importance that the network gives to

this type of content, the type of content preferred, and the expected use by the users. On Facebook, wide participation is not encouraged, though continued participation is. This leads to a conversational use that is functional to the network (Chanes and Noblia 2012).

Interaction on Facebook answers to the most basic type of interaction and interpersonal relationship, 'friendship', and articulates activities defined in terms of +/- dialogic, +/- public. The profile of the user is oriented to the personal and social dimension of the participant's identity; it is public and less dialogic. On the wall, a dialogue can be synchronic or a-synchronic according to its use, it can be +/- public and in it converge different genres, similar to daily conversation. Chat is the most dynamic and private form of dialogue. These activities can develop or not, they can intersect in interaction or they can be kept separate, depending on the use that participants make.

Participants and roles

Everyone who receives the message, even though they are not the addressees, can act as a node to spread information. One of the requirements that this audience must meet is to be identifiable. Users and the ability to transform users into information nodes are the merchandise of social networks. The user who posts, checks, sends emails or uses the search engine is a consumer for placement of products and services, or a product by itself that is marketed as a another commodity that circulates in the market [note 4]. The cross-checking of data in the network shows an impoverished and naïve, though effective, concept of an individual. The communicative correlate to the subjectivity that defines the market, 'the consumer' (Kress 2010) is the 'user': someone whose 'production' is the 'use' of a certain kind of activity organized by another textual producer, the designer. Social roles are set by the friendship metaphor and by the social categories that define the profile. On top of this, we should add the roles that are defined by the genre patterns in published texts.

The texts

The texts are complex: they are multimodal (an image, a video, a link, any element and all of them combined can integrate these messages); they can be edited (by the options to copy, paste and hyperlink); they have blurring and dynamic limits (the hyperlink and collaborative textual production calls into question the textual unit, the key notion of text in itself (Kress 2003, 2010) and of genre (Hasan 1989). The digital, multimodal and hypertextual nature of these texts disrupts the linearity of traditional texts and puts forward both in production and in reception a stratified sequence. Reading and writing are realized as movements that go from successive layers of text depth (not necessarily hierarchical) in which information is progressively presented. The purposes and actions of this text can be interpreted in a different way once a different stratum has been reached [note 5]. The material support on the screen transforms that depth to something flat that overshadows the framework of textual links and successive coding that exist in the text [note 6].

The dynamic convergence of different texts is uncontrolled by the textual producer. The coherence is guaranteed by the interpretative frames provided by the interface. It is very complex to define the communicative situation of these interactions in terms of register, given that including contexts appear dynamic and changing, even the same text can appear simultaneously with different contexts, according to the device and the user that gains access to it. The complexity of time as a contextual variable allows reactivating and reformulating the same text at such divergent times that it can make a dead user participate in a dialogue. In this sense, the only stable and recognizable context is outlined by the graphic format of the network and this abstract situation that defines the metaphors that conceptualize them [note 7].

Conclusions

Facebook configures a virtual space, contextualizes activities and social roles that are predetermined and go beyond the will of the individual. This network recreates roles and activities that have direct interpersonal interaction, as in face-to-face, as their typical scenario. Interfaces evolve and as a result they put forward changes that users adopt and that rarely violate creative and different uses. There is a deep asymmetry: users are almost completely unaware of their relationship with the platform itself; however, networks are very aware of their relationship with the users, what they want of the media, to complete one-sided changes in this relationship.

We cannot consider networks as genres, given that in these formats there are possibilities for options or for transformation of the established forms, which are static and do not admit any creative adaptation from the users. Nevertheless, in their usage, participants bring genres with the texts they exchange in their interactions. Facebook lays out a double game: the network's own logic, which has been determined by specific economic ends, and the communicative exchange that actually is produced and that answers to typical social rules of traditional discourse exchange.

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Notes

- [1] In the case of Twitter, these three instances are labelled in spanish with specific words: enter to 'Twitter', 'twittear' (activity), 'twitt'(text), 'twitter'(role).
- [2] For example, cases of tenor problems, originated by the fact that people who are not friends take on that role and who outside the network perform a different role, such as that of father or mother.
- [3] One of the neologisms that arise is the expression 'to viralize' which makes reference to the ability of a message to spread to the most amount of networks and to be seen, heard or read by the most amount of users. This metaphor reveals two sides of the phenomenon: it is dispersive, and it is indifferent to the will of the individual, even though in some cases its use is intentional.
- [4] Farms of users are extreme cases.
- [6] In this case, it is worth considering the value of the screen metaphor that Kress notes in French, German and English, but which also arises in Spanish, linked to its significance as an object hidden from view, which prevents the observation of what's behind it. In the digital text the screen covers the various encodings that coexist (electronics, html, and discourse itself with its entire network of hyperlinks).
- [7] It is interesting to remark that, the metaphor of reading of these texts is 'to surf' in English, or in Spanish 'navegar', that is 'to navigate'. That is, diving in depths for which there are no rules with regards to their extension.
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How Social Actions and Practices are Affected by Persuasive Technologies in Digital Settings

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Keywords: digitality; persuasive technology; social network; evaluation; remediation

The aim of this study is to verify if persuasive technologies can be treated not simply as semiotic resources but first and foremost as appraisal resources. The premise is that dealing with digitality does not mean attending to more or less simple tools and instrumentalities but with technologies of signification which are created and designed to establish relationships of signification. They participate in meaning making processes such as an online document, a multimodal text, an interface, a blog, a social network profile, or a wiki page. These digital technologies are aimed at a further development of the text and their designers should conceive of them as meaning potential simply because their users perceive of them as meaning actuality.

The issues explored are as follows: first, what digitality is and what it implies in terms of multimodal meaning construction; second, how interactivity technologies, typical of digital settings, affect and shape the way we manipulate/negotiate mediated social actions and practices; third, why these technologies can be defined as persuasive; finally, if they are persuasive, how they can be investigated as 'evaluative meaning producers'.

Digital textuality lives and evolves thanks to its capability of 'remediation' (Bolter 2001). It does not pertain only to digital contexts since the process of remediation is more complex because the affordances of digitality involve and manage a vast range of modes. Traditionally, by remediation we mean a shift from an old medium, an old technology (e.g. writing), to a newer one (e.g. printing). Today "remediation is a process of cultural competition between or among technologies" (Bolter 2001: 23), but is not limited to technologies of writing. New visual media carry out their cultural significance precisely by borrowing from, by paying homage to, rivalling, and refashioning earlier media: photography remediates painting, film remediates stage production and photography, and television remediates film, vaudeville, and radio. But a Website, a portal, a social network remediate television, radio, TV, news, journals, letters (email), and face-to-face conversation (chat) simultaneously. Now remediation has a double logic. Digital culture and its representations need both to multiply their media and their semiotic resources, a process defined as "hypermediacy" by the authors, and, at the same time, to eliminate all traces of mediation, defined as "transparent immediacy". Paradoxically, they want to delete their media in the very act of multiplying them.

The multiplicity of simultaneous representations on the Web requires a process of semiotic re-negotiation as affordances amplify and merge the borders of each mode and its semiotic framework accordingly. A hypersemiotic framework (Petroni 2011) is then the means analysts use to examine not only how many modes and resources meaning construction is based on but also why and how those resources have been deployed, and why the same meaning has been reified and materialised through different modes.

As far as the second point is concerned, Bruce and Hogan rightly underline that technologies should be considered as ideological tools which actualize social values. They argue that "digital technologies can only be understood in relation to larger systems of practices. Most technologies become so embedded in daily experience that they disappear, that is, they are no longer seen as technologies. They become the ordinary [...]" (Bruce and Hogan 1998: 299) and hence hardly noticed. They suggest that it is necessary to investigate how ideology is enmeshed within technology and claim that "[t]o understand what a technology means, we must examine how it is designed, interpreted, employed, constructed, and reconstructed through value-laden daily practices." (ibid.: 308). Recent years have seen an augmentation in the social networking capability of web-based services provided by the collaborative Web 2.0. It enhances a kind of organisation and categorisation of content which is based on another meaning-bearing technology, that is 'hyperlinking'. When users click on links, they perceive these as computational acts which give rise to mediated social practices. These digital actions become social and the manner in which these are performed, the actors participating in the actions, the resources needed to perform the actions constitute social practices (Van Leewen 2005). Users may apply the same social rules and expectations to computers as people do to humans in the real world. For this reason, these technologies can affect people's attitude and engagement and lead them, or better persuade them, to carry out, anytime anywhere, digital social actions.

How, then, are these persuasive technologies, along with the digital actions they endorse, created and used to engage users in these settings and to affect what people think and do? This is the third issue. There is a branch of computing science called Persuasive Technology, or Captology, an odd acronym and neologism (Computers As Persuasive Technology) created by its most authoritative scholar B.J. Fogg at Stanford University. Persuasive technology is defined as any interactive product designed to change attitudes or behaviours by making desired outcomes easier to achieve (Fogg 2003). And hence, in the online world, we meet persuasion attempts at every click, a process augmented on the Web 2.0 whose affordances allow users to be writer and reader, producer and consumer, at the same time. Virtually every website has a persuasive purpose: the creators intend to affect user attitudes or behaviours in some way: sign up for service, tell a friend about this video, enter your email address. Facebook is one of the most successful examples of persuasive technology. According to Fogg, the ability of computing systems to be persuasive derives from how we use them. He distinguishes what he calls 'the functional triad' of ways (tool, medium, and social actor) in which we interact with systems. Computing can be then a persuasive tool by: 1) making target behaviour easier; 2) leading people through a process; 3) performing calculations and measurements that motivate. Computing can be also a persuasive medium by: 1) allowing people to explore cause-and-effect relationships; 2) Providing people with experiences that motivate; 3) helping people rehearse a behaviour. Finally, computing can become a persuasive social actor with and through which we interact and form relationships by: 1) providing people with positive feedback; 2) modelling a target behaviour or attitude; 3) providing social support.

If these technologies can be described and defined as persuasive, undoubtedly we should look at them in terms of evaluation systems and investigate them as evaluative meaning producers. In fact, the last issue will focus on these persuasive technologies and their target behaviours in terms of social actions and analyse how the Appraisal system (Martin and White, 2005) can be applied to those semiotic resources, such as technologies, that are not properly linguistic. Every act of evaluation manifests a communal value-system and goes towards building up the value-system that, in turn, is part of the ideology which resides behind every meaning-making process. Maintaining relations implies manipulation (i.e. change of behaviours, attitudes, ideas and hence persuasion), hedging and politeness in general, typical strategies of rhetoric (e.g. power and solidarity principles, the two key tenor variables in interpersonal meaning). In digital settings, and in particular in social networks, the positioning strategies in which Appraisal values play a part means that the targets and sources of evaluation are also part of the positioning strategies in a text's organisation. The meaning-making process - deriving from the social actions and the target behaviours embedded in the evaluative acts - is actualised by persuasive technologies which in turn further contribute to this process. If persuasive technologies are analysed as Appraisal resources it is possible to classify them by utilising the three interacting domains of the Appraisal framework - Attitude, Engagement, Graduation - and hence to show how these technologies arouse mainly positive Attitude in terms of Affect, Judgment and Appreciation. How they can be grouped under the heading of Engagement since they allow users to position their 'voice' and to 'engage' with the other voices interpreted as being in play in the communicative context in use. How Graduation, too, plays a dialogistic role in that it enables users to present themselves as more strongly aligned with the community.

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Scientific and Legal Contents in Digital Press: Contrastive Analysis of Popularisation Strategies of Specialized Information ^[note 1]

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1. Introduction

Interest in legal information has experienced significant growth in recent years (Ronda Iglesias 1999). Just as it has been the case in other areas, for instance in scientific journalism, legal experts, journalists and other professionals specialized in this field demand more autonomy for legal journalism. This autonomy ensures both a mechanism for analyzing reality from the legal perspective and massive public access to legal information (De la Cuadra 2007, Santiváñez Vivanco 2008, Ghiggi 2012). Both scientific and legal journalism should aim not only to be accurate and truthful, but also to meet society's right to be informed. Thus, to ensure citizens' right to understand legal information, journalists must be familiar with the elements involved in court processes as well as with the specific jargon related to and used in this professional area. The same thing should happen when talking about the field of science. Furthermore, it is essential that this highly specialized language is presented in the media in a way in which it can be understood by the average citizen. As part of the obligation to maintain the accuracy of information and the need to communicate clearly, the media has to guarantee citizens the right to understand judiciary (De la Cuadra 2007), as it is done with the achievements of science.

2. Objectives and methodology

This paper [note 2] is included within the field of discourse production studies and analyzes how the recognized right to understand judicial information is reflected in digital media. We analyze a corpus of news articles on legislative and judicial topics published between 2008 and 2012 in five Spanish digital newspapers: El País, El Mundo, Público, El Periódico and La Vanguardia. The corpus (47,637 words) consists of 42 (short) stories (39 signed by agencies and 3, by the newspaper) and 31 chronicles or reports, equivalent to 57.5% of chronicles or reports versus 42.6% of (short) stories. The numerical difference suggests that information on legal issues seems mostly to be popularized through the (short) story genre.

The corpus has been subjected to textual analysis with the concordance program AntConc 3.2.4w, which made it possible to carry out an empirical analysis of a qualitative and quantitative nature. The program provided a list of specialized terms in the corpus and data on frequency of use. In order to determine which of these terms could be considered unintelligible or non-transparent for a generalist newspaper reader without legal background, a survey was conducted among first-year students of Bachelor's in Philology and Audiovisual Communication at the University of Barcelona. The survey contained legal terms extracted from the corpus, properly contextualized. The students had to answer two questions: first, they were asked whether they understood the legal concept from the context of the text, and then, if the answer was affirmative, they were asked to write the approximate meaning of the term. From the responses, we selected 56 terms.

The selection of these terms made it possible for us to fulfil the dual purpose of this work: (i) to observe the degree of concentration of terminology and (ii) to identify the different types of verbal and non-verbal procedures used for the presentation of specialized knowledge work in legal journalist popularization texts. For the first purpose, four variables were taken into account: the newspaper, the kind of journalistic genre (story or chronicle), the subject (legal or court) and authorship / firm (agency, editor or journalist's name). For the second one, we compare the popularisation procedures used to popularize expert knowledge with the ones already analysed in scientific press corpus, such as definition, reformulation,

analogy or exemplification (Ciapuscio 1993, 1997, Calsamiglia 1997, Cassany and Marti 1998, Salaverría 2002, Alcívar 2004). Furthermore, given the multimodal (Kress 2010), interactive and hypertextual (Salaverría 2005, Salaverría and Sancho, 2007) environment characterizing the digital press, we assume that, along with linguistic and discursive procedures, new multimodal mechanisms are also expected to appear to make legal and judicial news clear for citizens.

3. Discussion and results

The use of legal terminology that is difficult to understand by the average citizen can be generally considered to be common in digital newspapers, as observed in the corpus analyzed. The various newspapers analyzed, except *El Periódico*, show a similar degree of terminological concentration: about 25 terms (see Table 1). This newspaper presents a very low level of legal terminology concentration: 8 terms. Avoidance of terminological items itself can be considered a strategy for clarifying information and, therefore, a clarification tool, despite the difficulties of detection in the text (Cassany and Marti 1998, Salaverría 2002). However, the omission of technical terms represents a peripheral event in clarification resources. In that sense, it contributes less to the appropriate training of citizens in matters of natural justice (Montolío 2012: 110), which is the area that, due to its impact on the lives of citizens, we were interested in studying.

	<i>El Mundo</i>	<i>El Periódico</i>	<i>El País</i>	<i>La Vanguardia</i>	<i>Público</i>
N.º of terms	24	8	29	21	23
N.º of terms with clarification strategy	6	4	10	5	7
% clarified terms	25 %	50 %	34,4 %	23,8 %	30,4 %

Table 1: Relationship of technical and clarifying strategies in the newspapers analyzed

We also noticed differences between newspapers in the use of clarification strategies, both linguistic and discursive and audiovisual or hypertext, to facilitate reader access to the meaning of legal language: *El Periódico*, *El País* and *Público* employ more clarification strategies. In the case of *Público*, it was noted that the computer programme "Dixio" is used. This is a free computer tool which allows the reader, by double clicking on the word whose meaning he or she wants to know, to access the definition provided by one of multiple dictionaries that the program contains. In this sense, we would consider that 100 % of the legal terms that appear in their texts are accompanied by a clarification strategy.

On the other hand, as shown in Table 2, it can be stated that documented clarification strategies show significant differences, depending on the issue that the journalistic information addresses: legislation or processes and judgments. Similarly, it is also important that this information is signed by a journalist or news concerned agency or signed by the newspaper.

		Nº of occurrences of terms with clarifying strategy	Nº of occurrences of terms	Percentage of terms with clarifying strategy
subject	Legislation (23 news or chronicles)	31	143	21,6%
	Court (50 news or chronicles)	21	105	20%
Sign	Agency/newspaper redaction (42 news)	32	163	19,6%
	Journalist (31 chronicles)	19	85	22,8%

Table 2. Clarification strategies ratio depending on the item and sign variables

With regard to linguistic and discursive popularisation strategies, the corpus analysis shows the use of the following resources:

- (i) at the lexical level: omission, substitution (namely, examples of synonymy, metaphor, comparisons or analogy) and definition;
- (ii) at the sentence level: fundamentally, explanatory sentence structures;
- (iii) at the discourse level: description, scenario creation, paraphrastic reformulation and exemplification.

These linguistic and discursive popularisation strategies coexist with resources that can underpin the digital medium, such as the hyperlink and the video, but they can still reach higher levels of development.

The digital press in Spain is close to twenty years old. Throughout this time, new media has transformed the reading habits of consumers of print media and the writing techniques of professional journalists. As noted by Díaz Noci (2006), cyberjournalism is the field in which the use of hypertext is developed on a daily basis. Hypertext has become a "technical and documentary basis for journalistic excellence in the online media discourse" (Larrondo 2008: 165), in such a way that hypertext language has come to constitute a form of expression familiar to the digital media reader. Hence in this work we have considered the discursive capacities of hypertext as a tool for clarification of legal terms.

While digital texts that form hypertext, in other words nodes, can contain textual, visual, aural or graphic information that can contribute to the clarification of terminology, in the corpus analyzed nodes contain mostly textual information. However, as the following example shows (Example 1), the hyperlink can link audiovisual information that helps the reader or viewer to understand complex legal concepts.



Example 1

In the example above, the video serves as a complement to the text, and images contribute to "refine and enrich the written information" (Masip, Mico and Meso 2012). On the one hand, the video content refers to the original source of textual information, so this could be considered as a repetition of the first. On the other hand, the video selection is also relevant for their content, therefore, it acts as a dual strategy of clarification: as a quote of authority (the explanation of the Minister of Justice is reproduced) and as terminological clarification strategy (the minister explains in an understandable way the modification of a legal assumption and, by extension, the legal concept in itself)

4. Conclusion

The description given underlines that using popularisation and clarification strategies, both linguistic and not-linguistic, in a thoughtful way contributes to making the daily work of specialised journalists more effective. However, corpus analysis shows that, despite the use of popularisation strategies, the percentage of terms clarified using different multimodal strategies, in most media, is very low. This seems to indicate a lack of awareness on the part of professionals about the benefits of incorporating these strategies to writing techniques in the stories or in chronicles about specialized content.

Moreover, given the potential of the hyperlink and the combination of semiotic modes as resources of clarification in digital media, to reach full informative effectiveness, both hypertext and linkage to different types of content and format must respond to a clear strategy of the journalist to guide readers in a consistent manner. In this sense, the analysis of the corpus shows that, although the links may generate expectations for clarification of terms, in most cases the nodes do not provide useful information for the interpretation of the concepts that are expressed by those terms.

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Notes

- [1] This work is part of the research project Estrategias de textualidad del discurso profesional en soportes multimodales. Análisis y propuestas de mejora (Textuality Strategies of professional discourse in multimodal media. Analysis and proposals for improvement) (FFI2011-28933) funded by the Ministry of Economy and Competitiveness of Spain.
- [2] For an extended version of this work, see: Yúfera, García Asensio and Polanco (in press). El léxico jurídico en el periodismo digital: Mecanismos de clarificación. *Lingüística Española Actual*.

Presentation Scale in the Framework of Functional Sentence Perspective Theory

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Keywords: information structure; FSP; communicative dynamism; presentation scale

Introduction

Not only is the theory of Functional Sentence Perspective a conceptional predecessor to the theory of Information Structure within the Hallidayan conception, it also offers a valuable alternative to analyzing the information structure of a sentence and brings about insights into language that seem to substantiate our ontological judgment about the way a sentence functions in the flow of communication.

The foundations of the theory of the information structure of a sentence were laid by the founder of the Prague Linguistic Circle, Vilem Mathesius, and further detailed elaboration was presented by Jan Firbas, the founder and main representative of the Brno school (a branch of the Prague School of Linguistics). The theory has attracted considerable attention among linguists, a fact reflected in the dedication of an entire chapter to its practical and theoretical aspects in a major work of grammar (Quirk et al. 1985, Ch 18: 1355-1419).

In this paper I present how FSP operates and I argue that it better accounts for cases like 'A girl entered the room' where the Hallidayan conception of information structure inevitably fails to identify the rhematic element at the left of the verb.

FSP – relevant categories

The concept of informational significance/weight has been termed communicative dynamism (CD). In an FSP analysis, sentence elements are examined in reference to their degree of CD. The element with the highest degree of CD (the carrier of the 'informational centre') is the element towards which the sentence is perspectified. A sentence represents the basic field in which the act of communication is carried out, i.e. it serves as a basic distributional field of CD in the act of communication. Syntactic constituents of the sentence (the subject, the verb, the object, etc.) mostly correlate with communicative units (Firbas 1992: 17, Svoboda 1981: 4). A communicative unit is such a part of a sentence where all carriers of CD (it can be one or more) function at the same hierarchical level of communicative development.

Within a distributional field communicative units with the lowest degree of CD form the thematic part of a sentence (theme), communicative units with the highest degree of CD form the rhematic part (rheme), and mediating between these two there is the transitional part (transition) performed by the verb. The basic scheme of development of a sentence in the act of communication can be shown as follows: Theme – transition – rheme with the remark that the transitional and the rhematic section constitute the non-theme of the whole.

The scheme does not necessarily coincide with the linear arrangement of the sentence. The actual word order can differ from the scheme (that represents the gradual rise in communicative dynamism) and it often does, especially in English where the grammatical principle is the decisive force and overrides the FSP principle, as mentioned above. Firbas distinguishes actual linear arrangement from interpretative arrangement where the latter denotes structures in which the sentence elements are arranged "in accordance with a gradual rise in CD." As he comments, "the two arrangements may, but need not, coincide" (1992: 12). "Where the sentence structure is consistent with gradual increase in CD, i.e. where the least dynamic element, the theme, occurs initially, and the most dynamic element, the rheme, or focus, is found at the end, with transitional elements coming in between, we speak of basic distribution of communicative dynamism" (Dušková 1999: 249 making reference to Firbas 1992: 10).

Within one FSP section, viz. theme, transition, or rheme, two or more components can occur. Then the sections can be subdivided into smaller FSP units and a finer classification takes place, cf. the full FSP scheme:

Theme proper – diatheme – transition-proper oriented element – transition proper – rest of transition – rheme – rheme proper.

Jan Firbas significantly contributed to the FSP theory in his numerous profound studies on the topic and most fundamentally in his book *Functional Sentence Perspective in Written and Spoken Communication* (1992). He identified four factors which – by their mutual interplay – bring a particular element into the foreground. They are linearity: the linear arrangement of sentence elements which carry a degree of CD according to their position from the lowest to the highest from the left to the right respectively; context dependence: the elements appearing in the preceding context carry a lower degree of CD than those mentioned for the first time; semantics: the meaning of sentence elements, namely the verb, which by its meaning either introduces a new phenomenon on the scene or it directs attention towards its complementation. With the verbs of appearance / existence on the scene such as appear, come, come into view, present oneself, take place, arise, etc. the presented phenomenon (if context-independent) is the element towards which the sentence is perspectived. We speak of a so-called presentation scale. Other verbs direct attention towards their complementation, (if the complementation is missing, then the attention is directed towards the verb itself) and then the sentence is perspectived towards the quality of a phenomenon. Then we speak of a so-called qualification scale, cf. two of Firbas' examples (1992: 67-69):

1. Ages ago there was a young king.

The sentence is perspectived towards presentation of a phenomenon, i.e. 'a young king'.

2. He/The young king ruled his country capriciously and despotically.

The sentence is perspectived towards the quality, i.e. 'capriciously and despotically'.

"Quality is to be understood here in a wide sense, covering an action or a state, permanent or transitory, concrete or abstract." (Firbas 1992: 5)

"Generally speaking, these three means of FSP can be hierarchically ordered: semantics is superior to linearity, and context is superior both to linearity and semantics." (Svoboda 1981: 2)

In spoken communication the last of the four factors is put into operation: intonation. As intonation is a wide concept, we need to mention that in FSP, the placement of the intonation nucleus and its association with new information is of primary interest. Generally the intonation prominence is associated with semantic prominence (e.g. Halliday and Hasan 1976: 69, Firbas 1974: 30, 1992: 148-154); however it has been observed that coincidence between the carrier of the most important information and the intonation nucleus in a sentence is not always the case. Svoboda remarks, "[t]he reason why communicative prominence and prosodic prominence do not go hand in hand is seen in the fact that in case the other three FSP factors signal the communicative prominence sufficiently, the prosodic features are free to convey other (e.g. attitudinal) meanings" (2005: 219).

Commenting on the interplay of all four factors in FSP, Svoboda summarizes, "[a]ll the above factors represent indispensable aspects of natural language communication, because such communication must be linearized (linearity), must convey meaning (semantics), cannot be realized in isolation (context), and if spoken, cannot be realized without rhythm, melody, and pauses (prosodic features)" (2005: 217).

Context is perhaps the most powerful factor contributing to our perception of an item of information either as given or new. Elements appearing in the preceding context are recognized as communicatively less important (i.e. they carry a lower degree of CD) than elements entering the discourse for the first time (these are carriers of a high degree of CD). The elements known from the context are referred to as context-dependent, i.e. for their interpretation the reader/listener depends on the preceding text (anaphoric personal pronouns like 'he', 'she', 'they' are typical examples of context-dependent elements). The elements unknown from the preceding text are referred to as context-independent, i.e. we are able to interpret them per se, without reference to the prior text. The broad concept of context, however, needs to be explained and specified. There are three types of context, viz. experiential (= context of general experience taken into account during the act of communication), situational (= context of situation within which communication takes place), and verbal (= context constituted by preceding sentences/text) (Svoboda 1981: 4).

In assessing the degree of CD that an element in a sentence carries, the situational context overrides the experiential context and the verbal context overrides the other two. The verbal context thus plays the most important role and has the largest impact on our perception of an element in communication as regards its informational importance.

Depending on to what extent context operates over a sentence, three instance levels have been identified (Svoboda 2005: 219 with reference to Firbas, see section 2.2):

A/ the basic instance level (all sentence elements are context-independent and only semantics and linearity determine the information structure of a sentence)

B/ the ordinary instance level (there are both context-dependent and context-independent elements and all three means of FSP are involved)

C/ the second instance level (all sentence elements are context-dependent but one which is at the moment of utterance brought into distinct prominence and only contextual factor asserts itself) (after Svoboda 1981: 4).

A vast majority of sentences operate at the ordinary instance level.

Analysis

In this paper I present an analysis of 1300 distributional fields whose communicative aim is that of presentation and show how their information structure is delineated by the interplay of the four factors (three in a written text).

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Characteristics of Schizophrenia and Mania Computationally Uncovered through Combinations of Linguistic Variables

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The clinical interview is commonly used in psychiatry for diagnosis, though it is time-consuming, needs special training, and multiple sources of information. Recently computerized analysis of speech offers objective means for evaluating symptoms in schizophrenia. Cohen writes: "Accurate measurement of negative symptoms is crucial for understanding and treating schizophrenia. However, current measurement strategies are reliant on subjective symptom rating scales, which often have psychometric and practical limitations. Computerized analysis of patients' speech offers a sophisticated and objective means of evaluating negative symptoms" (2007: 827). Specific to schizophrenia, machine learning techniques have been used in the study of patients' writings (Strous et al. 2008).

With large within group differences, there is no one language characteristic that distinguishes speakers with schizophrenia and mania. However, this study has found that combinations of features and possible correlations among the features separated the diagnostic groups, characterizing the disorders. Transcripts of subjects with schizophrenia (six transcripts) and mania (four transcripts) were digitalized to compose two sub-corpora. The texts were annotated and analyzed (UAM Corpus Tool, O'Donnell 2008) for syntactic complexity, amount of talk, dysfluencies, type-token ratio, lexical similarity, and word frequency among other variables.

The semantic features of process types (Material, Mental, Behaviour, Verbal, Relational, and Existential) and logico-semantic relations (including elaboration, extension, enhancement, projection, expansion, etc.) did not show substantial differences between the groups (Shagalov and Fine, forthcoming). Rather, dysfluency measures distinguish the groups. Repetition and pausing, two types of hesitations, have similar functions but the prevalence of repetition in mania and pausing in schizophrenia makes the disorders sound different (Shagalov and Fine, forthcoming). Correlations between dysfluency measures (silent pauses, filled pauses, stumbles, and repetition) were studied for both groups (Table 1).

	Schizophrenia	Mania
<i>silent pauses - stumbles</i>	$r = 0.64$ ($p < 0.17$)	$r = -0.41$ ($p < 0.59$)
<i>silent pauses - repetition</i>	$r = \mathbf{0.95}$ ($p < 0.0037$)	$r = -0.21$ ($p < 0.79$)
<i>filled pauses - repetition</i>	$r = \mathbf{0.75}$ ($p < 0.086$)	$r = -0.67$ ($p < 0.33$)
<i>filled pauses - stumbles</i>	$r = -0.18$ ($p < 0.73$)	$r = -0.18$ ($p < 0.82$)

Table 1: Correlations between dysfluencies in schizophrenia and mania

The correlations are mainly not significant but nevertheless they are in opposite directions for schizophrenia and mania. Subjects with schizophrenia have more pausing and less stumbling and repeating compared to the subjects with mania, and there is a positive correlation between these dysfluencies in schizophrenia. This generally positive (but not significant) correlation between dysfluencies in schizophrenia shows that more impaired schizophrenia speakers demonstrate higher scores for all of these types of hesitations. In schizophrenia, the correlation of the dysfluencies suggests that such dysfluencies are more characterising of the disorder than is their presence in mania. The subjects with mania either demonstrate no correlation or negative correlation between different types of hesitations. The strongest negative correlation in mania is between filled pauses and repetitions (-0.67).

Increased dysfluencies may be caused by discourse generation impairments and deficits in maintaining a discourse plan affecting verbosity because "difficulty generating goals or accessing conceptual content may lead to less speech" (Barch and Berenbaum 1997: 116). We considered separately the correlations of silent pausing with verbosity and filled pausing with

verbosity. Though verbosity (utterances per turn) was shown to be similar for both diagnostic groups (schizophrenia 4.44, mania 4.81) (Shagalov and Fine forthcoming), a strong negative correlation between verbosity and silent pausing was found only in mania ($r = -0.97$). See Figure 1.

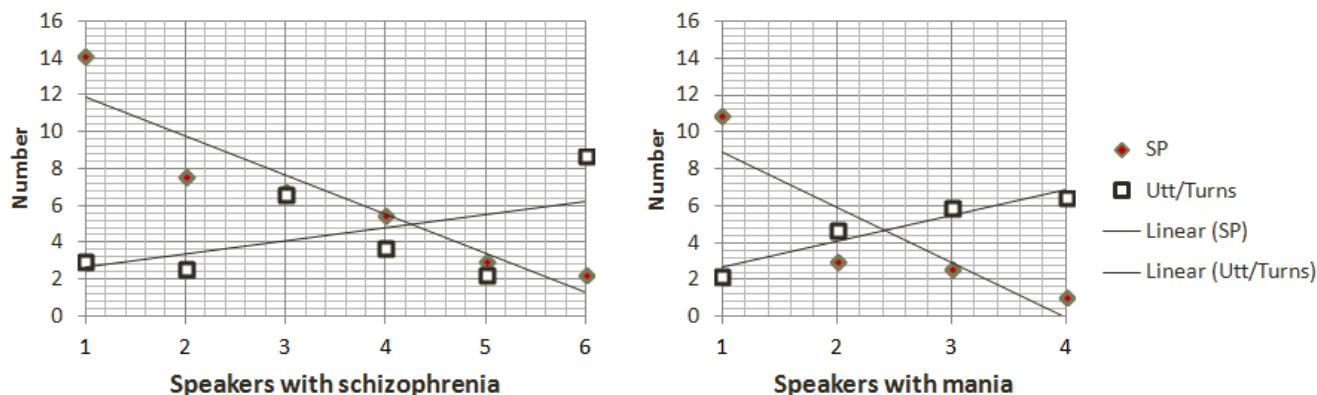


Figure 1: Correlation between Silent Pauses (SP) and Verbosity (Utterances per Turn)

The correlation between filled pausing and verbosity was positive in both groups (schizophrenia $r = 0.84$, $p < 0.004$; mania $r = 0.73$, $p < 0.25$). Thus the negative correlation between verbosity and pausing that was reported in previous studies (Resnick and Oltmanns 1984; Barch and Berenbaum 1997) was found only for silent pausing (Figure 2).

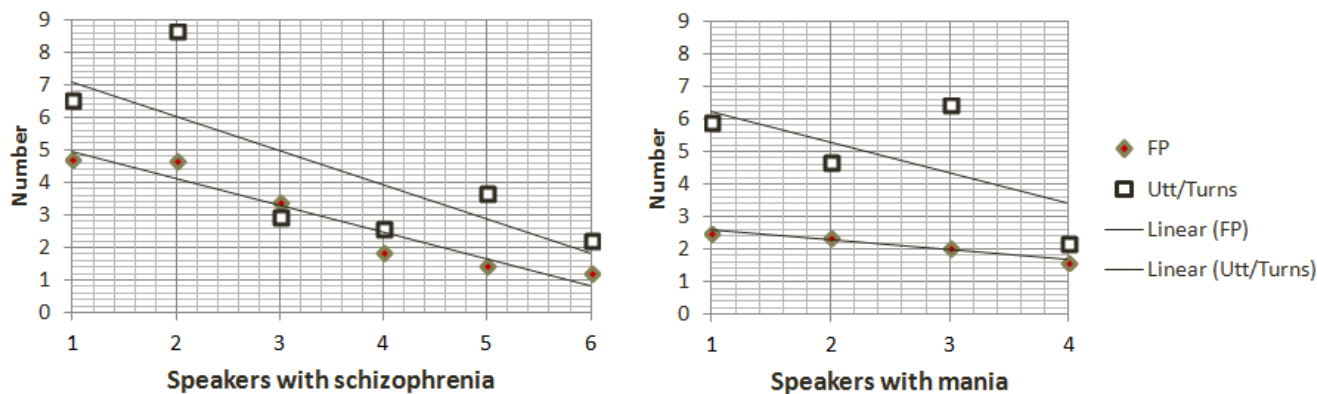


Figure 2: Correlation between Filled Pauses (FP) and Verbosity (Utterances per Turn)

A negative correlation between verbosity and just the silent pausing suggests that the silent pausing is not really planning and/or assembling the discourse that is to come. Rather, it indicates being "stuck". The speaker who is getting stuck is also the speaker who does not have much to say (lower verbosity scores). Such low verbosity may be the result of inability to plan, slight alogia, withdrawal or other reasons. In contrast, the positive correlation of filled pauses and verbosity does suggest that there is planning during those filled pauses and that the planning is fruitful, resulting in increased verbosity. Thus, simply comparing group means on the linguistic variables does not take into account substantial within-group differences, such that the relations among the linguistic variables (their positive or negative correlation in some cases) show the differences across the diagnostic groups.

Linear regression analysis (LRA) was used to find combinations of variables (predictors) that can distinguish the diagnostic groups and classify a new language sample as belonging to schizophrenia or mania. The fluency variables appeared to be not sufficient on their own and a number of cohesion variables drawn from Systemic Function Linguistics (SFL) were added to the analysis. Whereas cohesion creates the continuity of meaning by tracking participants (reference) and creating relations among clauses (conjunction), fluency measures track interruptions in the speech flow.

For the first phase, the best subset of variables (from all 46 research variables) for distinguishing between two diagnostic groups was determined. In 10 trials, one sample of the 10 speech samples was "held out" and was to be classified as either schizophrenia or mania using the predictors chosen by applying LRA to the training set of the 9 remaining samples. Table 2 shows the variables that were chosen as the best predictors in more than 4 of the 10 trials.

Variable	N trials
Repetitions of non-speech role references	10
Stumbles on speech role references	7
Filled pauses after non-speech role references	6
Conjunctions per 100 transitivity units	5
Filled pauses after speech role references	5
Depth of hypotactic embedding	5
Subordinate clauses per T-unit	5
Type-token ratio	5

Table 2: The number of trials in which the variables were the best predictors

Five of eight best predictors involved cohesion, that is, text-forming devices in the textual metafunction. This finding further supports an underlying difficulty in schizophrenia of interpreting and producing textness. Subjects with schizophrenia experience difficulty interpreting deictic reference because deictic terms (e.g. 'I' and 'you') have no fixed meaning since their referential meaning changes depending on the context (Crow 2010, Patniyot 2011). In our study, there are filled pauses after speech role references:

*I didn't discuss it with **my ah** (.) with the Dean of studies*

Difficulties in processing cohesive items including references in schizophrenia can result in unclear references (Rochester and Martin 1979) and dysfluencies when processing anaphoric references (Shagalov and Fine forthcoming). In our study, there are filled pauses after anaphoric references:

*but um (...) um (.) the man **that uh** was taking care of her (.) **he um** (.) he's a I think it is or (.) and uh (.) he's had an awful time*

At this first research stage, the error rate was 0.4; that is, only 6 of 10 cases were classified correctly.

For the second research phase, the question was whether a combination of variables of the best subset of predictors can minimize the errors in classifying new language samples as belonging to the group of speakers with schizophrenia or with mania. With only the eight best predictors entered into LRA, only one speech sample, belonging to mania, was not classified correctly.

Thus, dysfluencies in combination with conjunctions, exophoric speech role references and anaphoric non-speech role references as well as the type-token ratio and syntactic variables were chosen computationally as the best combination of variables to distinguish the groups. A new language sample can be classified as belonging to the subject with schizophrenia or mania with an error 0.1.

The computational analysis of a variety of variables captures the combinations of features that distinguish the two disorders, identifying a new language sample as belonging to the subject with mania or schizophrenia. Cohesion variables were 5 of the 8 best variables for distinguishing the disorders indicating that building textness, especially in association with dysfluency markers, is an important difference between schizophrenia and mania.

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BlogEng: Variation Across Speech and Writing in Blogs

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Keywords: blogs; resource-switching; genre analysis; corpus linguistics; functional analysis

1. Definitions, state of the art and research questions

Blogs have been classified according to their discussion of external events (i.e. filters, Blood 2002) and to the impact and influence bloggers may have as citizen journalists (Lasica 2002, Gillmor 2003), public intellectuals (Park 2003) and opinion leaders (Delwiche 2004). Other studies focus on the sociodemographics of bloggers' and individuals' motivations for using a specific medium (Papacharissi 2004, Herring et al. 2005a, 2005b, Kaye 2005, Nowson and Oberlander 2006, Li 2007, Sanderson 2008). Blogs have been also variously defined, but what most definitions have in common is that they include posts published in inverted chronological order and that they need technical affordances to be aggregated. Research literature has amply discussed social and verbal aspects in blogging and also multimodal properties to some extent, but no systematic attempt has been made so far to take into full account the many resources that come into play in blogs. This paper sets out to fill this gap, also trying to capture the textual and semiotic transition from macro-blogging to micro-blogging in English, here defined as blogEng (Sindoni 2013), that is holding sway in the contemporary mediascape.

The process of transition from macro-blogging to micro-blogging can be explained in terms of genre analysis, i.e. the evolution from web genres characterized by more static formats (i.e. single webpages and websites in the form of personal journals) to more fluid web genres, incorporating commenting activities in web-based platforms, video/media sharing communities and social networks. What used to be a full-length entry, akin to conventional pieces of writing but in digital formats, has now been turned into a quick and concise form of digital writing, in some cases blurring into spoken-like models of communication, for example in status updates in Facebook or tweets in Twitter. Status updates and tweets are both examples of how blogging is being transformed in the digital mediascape. On a sociosemantic level, Thibault maintains that blogs can and should be studied in broader terms, also because the possibility of hypertexting in digital media has reshaped language, and in particular written language (2012).

The research questions that this paper addresses are: does it still make sense to distinguish between speech and writing in the digital domains? How is spoken and written discourse changing in blogs? And also: assuming that web-based environments are made up of ensembles of complex semiotic resources, how to tackle such diversity and complexity?

2. Theory and method

Based on Halliday's view on language modes and language mode variation (1987 [2002]), this work argues the case for the study of speech and writing as meaningful semiotic resources among others, such as images, music, videos and animated gifs. It also investigates how speech and writing are intertwined in hybrid digital texts, sampling blogs in networking communities (i.e. LiveJournal) as a case study.

Variation across speech and writing has been traditionally studied using multifeature/multidimensional analysis (cf. MF/MD analysis, Biber 1988). However, other studies attest that lexical-based corpus analyses can reliably approximate MF/MD results (Tribble 1999, Scott and Tribble 2006). Assuming that a lexico-grammatical approach can explain how the traditional categories of speech and writing are blended in blogging environments, this study reports on how the corpus has been built and explored to account for language mode variation, using keyness analysis and lexical bundle analysis for verbal data in a quantitative fashion (Sindoni 2013). A quantitative approach can explain how the traditional categories of speech and writing are blended in blogging environments, but says nothing about the contribution of other resources in meaning-making events within blogging communities. Verbal language is in fact immersed in a semiotic environment made up of several components and resources and this paper contends that a purely linguistic and computational analysis does not make justice of all that come into play in such complex communicative events. How then has it been possible to compute and interpret variation?

Variation has been studied in two purposely created corpora: 1) the LiveJournal Corpus (LJC) is made up of c. 1 million words and includes verbal data, and 2) the LiveJournal Corpus with Semiotic Resources (LJC_SR) incorporates other resources, such as visuals, videos, tags, gifs, etc. The former has been explored to study spoken/written variation and the latter has allowed

observations to be made on how multimodal resources are used in combination with verbal language. Furthermore, the integration and relative status of each resource within the corpora have been investigated, invoking the new notion of resource-switching (Sindoni 2013).

3. Corpus tagging and annotation

A preliminary discussion accounts for the creation and tagging of the overall LJC, tackling issues such as 1) representativeness (computed by lexical saturation), 2) the selection of sampling units (i.e. blog entries) and 3) method of data collection (i.e. a time-frozen analysis, to capture a specific moment in time, namely April 2012). A further question that is seminal in any multimodal analysis is the issue of annotation, arguing the case for a problem-oriented approach, particularly flexible to address specific research questions, i.e. annotating only relevant phenomena.

After the creation, tagging and annotation of the corpus, an in-depth analysis of two corpora subsections has been undertaken, exploring variation across speech and writing in verbal data and other questions related to other semiotic resources involved, respectively. The notion of resource-switching is invoked to explain the alternation of semiotic resources in LJC_SR. This notion is different from another notion, that of mode-switching, in that the latter is limited to the description of alternation between speech and writing in synchronous events (Sindoni 2011, 2013). Resource switching deals with questions such as alternation, relative status and preferential use of all the semiotic resources involved in the communicative exchange (Sindoni 2013).

4. Results

The two subsections LJ1 and LJ2 have been compared and respective figures are reported in Table 1 below:

Corpus	Number of entries	Total number of words	Total number of images	Word/image ratio	Number of entries including images
LJ1	150	105,512	365	289.07	51
LJ2	150	54,804	609	89.99	60

Table 1: Resource-switching in context

As can be seen, word/image ratio is rather different, consequently entries with and without images have been separated, i.e. posts-cum-images and image-free posts. This was done to recompute word/image ratio: results are shown below in Table 2:

LJ1	Total number of words	Total number of images	Word/image ratio
Posts with images	14,996	365	41.08
Image-free posts	90516	0	0

Table 2: Posts-cum images and image-free posts in LJ1

LJ1 was turned into LJ1_Images (i.e. posts-cum-images). It includes fewer words, and word/image ratio has changed dramatically from 289.07 to 41.08. Similar results have been detected in LJ2_Images (i.e. posts-cum-images). In other words, images tend to cluster with other images and words tend to coalesce with other words. This leads to the conclusion that posts-cum-images are much less wordy than image-free-posts and this challenges the much heralded idea of the high integration of semiotic resources in web-based texts.

Variation across spoken-like and written-like discourse features of verbal data has been studied via keyword analysis and lexical bundles analysis, which have been used to survey the most prominent and frequent linguistic features that are functionally related to the blog as a genre. Keyness is a measure of statistical unusuality, showing the most and least

frequent keywords in a corpus with another, more general corpus, acting as a reference. To check whether corpus size affected the results, five different wordlists were used to create five different keyword lists with five different reference corpora, namely British National Corpus, FLOB, International Corpus of English - Great Britain component (ICE henceforth) and the latter two subcomponents, i.e. the spoken and written sections (ICE spoken and ICE written henceforth). Ultimately, reference corpora size did not affect the results, so the ICE corpus was selected as it allowed a comparison between its two subcomponents, the one including spoken texts, the other including written ones.

Comparing the data, the top ten items in the three ICE-based lists have eight positive keywords in common, all (i.e. ten) between the general ICE-based list and the spoken ICE-based list, eight between the overall ICE and the ICE written and eight between the spoken and the written-based lists, as can be seen in Table 3 below:

No.	ICE as RC	ICE_spoken as RC	ICE_written as RC
1.	his	his	his
2.	he	Jin	he
3.	Jin	he	I
4.	him	her	him
5.	Kazuya	him	Jin
6.	it's	it's	you
7.	I'm	Kazuya	Kazuya
8.	her	I'm	it's
9.	http	comments	I'm
10.	comments	http	her

Table 3: Positive keyness with ICE as reference corpus

Table 4 below displays negative keywords and the picture is here even more revealing. The overall ICE-based list has six negative keywords in common with the spoken ICE-based and four negative keywords in common with the written ICE-based list. Consistent with this finding, the ICE-based spoken and the ICE-based written lists display a remarkable difference in the most prominent negative keywords, as they do not have a single item in common.

No.	ICE as RC	ICE_spoken as RC	ICE_written as RC
1.	uh	uh	the
2.	uhm	uhm	of
3.	s	s	is
4.	of	I	which
5.	ve	that	by
6.	is	yeah	be
7.	the	yes	in
8.	yeah	ve	may
9.	yes	it	are
10.	which	well	however

Table 4: Negative keyness with ICE as a reference corpus

From this comparison, it becomes apparent that these texts exhibit in-between discourse features, because they lack features typical of spoken genres, but also features typical of written genres.

But how do words co-occur in such texts? An analysis of lexical bundles is of help when trying to enrich a quantitative analysis with contextual cues, as lexical bundles are words that tend to co-occur in a text. Bundles emerging from the analysis have been divided into functional groupings, i.e. stance, discourse and referential bundles, following Biber, Conrad and Cortés (2004). The top 15 lexical bundles are shown below in Table 5:

1. <i>One of the</i>	bundle specifying attributes
2. <i>In front of</i>	place bundle
3. <i>Out of the</i>	place bundle
4. <i>A lot of</i>	imprecision bundle
5. <i>Be able to</i>	ability bundle
6. <i>Do you want</i>	desire bundle
7. <i>I don't know</i>	epistemic bundle
8. <i>I want to</i>	desire bundle
9. <i>You want to</i>	desire bundle
10. <i>I don't think</i>	epistemic bundle
11. <i>I wanted to</i>	desire bundle
12. <i>The end of</i>	bundle specifying attributes
13. <i>Going to be</i>	prediction bundle
14. <i>Part of the</i>	bundle specifying attributes
15. <i>The rest of</i>	bundle specifying attributes

Table 5: Top fifteen lexical bundles

Stance bundles display the highest incidence, including c. 60% of the most frequent bundles in the overall corpus. They can be easily associated with speech (Biber et al. 1999) and usually include the beginning of a mental clause plus a projection. Most bundles that can be associated with writing (Biber et al. 1999), conversely, are building blocks for extended noun and prepositional phrases.

In conclusion, the notion of resource-switching explores the alternation of resources through multimodal corpus linguistics methods and shows that semiotic resources are less integrated than they are usually assumed to be. Keyness and lexical bundles analysis yielded consistent results in that blogEng includes spoken-like and written-like discourse features.

Furthermore, we may postulate two different theoretical strands in tackling such web-based environments: the notion of hybridity well suits verbal language in that it blends two aspects, that of speech and that of writing, whereas polymorphism, a more fluid notion, is well suited to describe the ensemble of semiotic resources involved in the process of communication.

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Electronic Corpora, Databases and Process Types

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The case for the use and usefulness of large electronic corpora in Systemic Functional Linguistic (SFL) research should no longer need to be made (see Thompson and Hunston 2006).

Besides corpora, there are available a number of electronic databases which provide valuable analyses of linguistic phenomena. Naturally, most such databases do not adopt an SFL framework. A case in point is the FrameNet lexical database at UC Berkeley which has developed out of Fillmore's Frame Semantics (Baker et al. 2003). On the other hand, Neale's Process Type Database (PTDB) was developed fully within the framework of the Cardiff Grammar model of SFL (Neale 2006).

Specifically, in this paper, I explore, and then argue for the usefulness of both kinds of electronic resource in establishing membership of Process Types in the system of TRANSITIVITY as proposed within models of Systemic Functional Grammar. And, importantly, with the exploitation of such resources comes the potential for the analyst to contribute to the development of the grammar itself, rather than simply solve local issues of text analysis.

Process Types and the Participant Roles associated with them are central in the Systemic Functional analysis of options in the system of TRANSITIVITY. And to judge from the regular stream of queries posted to the SFL discussion groups, sysfling (sysfling@cardiff.ac.uk) and sys-func (sys-func@listserv.uts.edu.au), the classification of individual Processes often raises problems.

The two central criteria used in SFL Process Type identification and classification are (a) the lexicogrammatical patterns (reactances) and (b) the Participant Roles, that are associated with the various Process Types respectively. While the first criterion can be tested by examining the range of lexicogrammatical patterns exhibited by the candidate process in question and finding a match in terms of those associated with a given Process Type, or sub-type, the second can be tested through probes, or Re-expression Tests in the Cardiff Grammar framework, such as 'What X did was to', which identifies the Participant Role of Agent.

Naturally, in order for identification to be successful, a comprehensive account of lexicogrammatical pattern and Participant Role associations is necessary, in respect of the various Process Types. The main source of information regarding lexicogrammatical patterning is Halliday and Matthiessen (2004), and they do provide a substantial resource, albeit understandably not comprehensive. In respect of probes - Re-expression Tests for Participant Roles in the Cardiff Grammar model - a full set of tests is found in Fawcett (2011). The Cardiff Grammar, however, does not provide a systematic account of the relationship between Process Type and lexicogrammatical patterns. As can be seen in Neale's PTDB, despite the substantial number of Processes covered, together with their associated Participant Roles, there is no characterisation of the lexicogrammatical patterns associated with each Process beyond a single example of its use. Such probes are not found systematically in Halliday and Matthiessen's (2004) grammar, but see Fontaine (2013) for a fairly comprehensive account within this framework.

It is in large general corpora e.g the British National Corpus (Aston and Burnard 1998), including the internet as corpus, e.g. Webcorp (Renouf et al. 2007), that the clausal patterns centred on lexical verbs can be elicited. The multi-million word size of such corpora typically provides substantial evidence of the lexicogrammatical patterning associated with given verb lemmata, which may then be gauged against the descriptions given in grammars such as Halliday and Matthiessen (2004). Moreover, with increasingly sophisticated search-tools, it is possible to identify functionally significant aspects of lexicogrammatical patterning. The Sketch Engine (Kilgariff et al. 2004), for example, when used with corpora such as the BNC, can provide evidence of the range of expressions that function as Subject and Complement of Processes, thus throwing light on the semantic nature of the Participant Roles that correspond to those clause elements.

Complementary to corpus linguistic evidence of this kind are the classifications and descriptions offered in lexical databases such as FrameNet and the PTDB, which typically give accounts of the underlying Semantic Roles and grammatical configurations that are associated with the various verb-classes/Process Types. Clearly, in exploiting databases, such as

FrameNet, that are based on theories other than SFL, it is necessary to establish mappings between the categories and classification used in each approach. This is particularly the case with the classification of Participant Roles, which tends to differ from theory to theory, although not usually resistant to cross-theory mapping.

Not unlike the less than comprehensive coverage of Processes in Halliday and Matthiessen (2004), databases are limited in coverage, primarily because entries are manually annotated. FrameNet, for example, has 14,000 word senses with annotation, covering all lexical classes and not simply verbs. With less frequent or common verbs/Processes, there is always a distinct possibility that the database will not contain an equivalent entry; but neither will Halliday and Matthiessen (2004), since the Process in question has been classified, there would be no need for a query to be posted to the discussion groups.

There are of course ways of homing in on the classification of a given Process, despite its absence from databases or primary grammatical descriptions. The careful analyst, for example, will be able to identify near synonyms or semantically related Processes, which will help narrow down the choice of type or subtype. Ultimately, every single Process will have its unique grammar, albeit sharing much of it with semantically close relatives.

One case of a query posted on sysfling/sys-func involved the Process 'prescribe', which is covered neither by Halliday and Matthiessen (2004), PTDB nor FrameNet. However, its associated grammatical patterning, as evidenced by corpus findings, together with an examination of semantically related Processes such as 'recommend', 'suggest', 'order' etc., does allow substantial light to be thrown on its classification. And perversely, in this particular case, it would seem that 'prescribe', in its medical sense, does not fit well in any established type or sub-type in the system of TRANSITIVITY!

And this, arguably, points to the important lesson that needs to be learnt by those seeking to use such classification in the analysis of text. If we are to work towards more fully comprehensive accounts of TRANSITIVITY, for example, input must also come from those who would probably only consider themselves 'consumers' of the theory. If Systemic Functional Grammar does not develop beyond those few, long-established central grammatically-oriented works, then some areas of analysis will always be problematic. In consulting extant grammars, corpora and lexical databases the text analyst puts him/herself in a position to contribute to the development and refinement of the grammar itself.

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Social Media, Ambient Affiliation, and Identity [note 1]

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Keywords: social media; identity; Twitter; microblogging; affiliation

You know flight attendants saying put your mask on before helping the little kid next to you? That's how I feel about dinner. #badmother

1. Introduction

Microblogging, the act of posting short character-constrained messages to the Internet, has become a prevalent communicative practice for construing identity. It is currently receiving much scholarly attention due to the lens that it provides on mass, real-time expression of opinion and sentiment about both public events and domestic life. While previous work on microblogging personae has concentrated on professional identity, branding, and micro-celebrity (Gilpin 2010; Marwick 2011; Page 2012), this paper focuses on the personal domain, considering the kinds of personae that are enacted as microbloggers make "the ordinary visible to others" (Oulasvirta, Lehtonen, Kurvinen, and Raento 2010: 238), posting about their quotidian experiences. The aim is to understand how microbloggers as "users of language perform their identities within uses of language" (Martin, Zappavigna, Cleirigh, and Dwyer, forthcoming). I will investigate such 'identity work' (Benwell and Stokoe 2007) from the dual perspective of ambient [note 2] affiliation (how social bonds are configured in order to commune with a mass online audience) and ambient identity (how these bonds are realised as particular discursive patterns of collocative values that characterize different microblogging personae).

Exploring forms of 'networked identity' (boyd and Heer 2006) is currently an area of inquiry within a range of disciplines that have an interest in computer-mediated communication and the structure of online social networks (Androutsopoulos 2006, Papacharissi 2010, Thurlow and Mroczek 2011). Within sociolinguistics a body of work has recently begun to develop considering how identity is construed in social media texts (Seargeant and Tagg 2013, in press), focusing on language variation and variables such as gender, ethnicity and style (e.g. variation in emoticon use, Schnoebelen 2012). This work builds on earlier approaches [note 3] to identity in interaction within offline contexts outside the social media domain (e.g. Campoy and Espinosa 2012, Coupland 2007, Eckert 2000, Hyland 2009, Jaffe 2009, Knight 2010).

Complementary to this focus on identity is the long-standing interest both within and outside linguists in the shared communicative strategies that might characterize communities of language users, variously theorized as 'discourse communities' (Bizzell 1992) and 'communities of practice' (Wenger 1998) [note 4]. As an object of study, microblogging offers a rare opportunity to the linguist to track the particular configurations of shared social bonds that are involved in construing group memberships. In part, this is because the brevity enforced by the medium goes some very small way to reducing complexity, and because the affordances of the channel mean that we can collect large volumes of textual interactions that give us insight into linguistic disposition [note 5]. This gives us some ability to gain a window on what Firth refers to as the "general language of the community" that governs each person's "command of a constellation of restricted languages" (1968: 207). In addition, as we will see, the affordances of the channel (such as search [note 6] and aggregation of posts via metadata) mean that microbloggers engage in self-classification practices associated with social tagging (Trant 2009) and generation of profile descriptions (Ellison and boyd 2013).

2. Ambient identity

This paper seeks to augment existing linguistic accounts of identity in interaction by suggesting the role of 'ambient' [note 7] forms of communion that occur with social media use. This form of online fellowship is 'ambient' in the sense that it does not necessarily presume direct interaction between participants (Zappavigna 2011). While microbloggers may use social media platforms such as Twitter to engage in conversation-like exchanges between individuals, they will often simply be talking about the same topic at the same time. They may draw on shared communicative practices that have a solidarity-invoking function within the 'networked public' (boyd 2010) such as mass performances of hashtagging [note 8] (where shared topics are marked with a hashtag (e.g. #parenting), a form of metadata) or contributions to iterations of Internet memes (media such as catchphrases, image macros, or video that spread virally via the Internet).

Appending a hashtag presupposes that a post has an ambient audience who may share or contest the values construed by the accompanying verbiage. This interpersonal orientation arises from the main function of microblogging: proposing bonds to a set of followers (or wider ambient audience). For example consider the shared experience of parenting invoked in the following HERMES posts that include a *#parenting* tag:

A successful parent will honor & support their child's journey through life ..NOT try to control it. **#parenting** #Loa
Lady Gaga Barbie dolls by Lu Wei Kang...weird! <http://bit.ly/abqNfl> What good #parent would ever buy this half-naked
"toy"? #ugly **#parenting**
D'oh! while I am out here organizing my digital life, my son is elbow deep in the toilet, learning how the flush works.
#parentingfail
Whoa, eye-opening. RT @GaryBrannigan Do you give your child THINGS in place of your TIME? There's no
comparison! **#parenting**

Posts of this kind both enact parenting identities and invite communion around the daily experience of parents.

3. Communion of feeling

My focus on affiliation in relation to identity is inspired by Firth's (1964: 112) suggestion that "promotion, establishment, and maintenance of communion of feeling is perhaps four-fifths of all talk". Sharing feeling is central to both fostering social interaction and communicating the values that signify who we are. A Firthian perspective on microblogging sensitizes us to the ways in which microblogging texts propose social 'bonds' to their ambient audience in order to invite such communion of feeling. Malinowski (1972) foregrounds similar ideas in his concept of 'phatic communion' where the main communicative function of a discursive interaction is interpersonal. A related interpersonal function has been explored by J. Coupland (2000) with reference to 'small talk' such as gossip and conversational 'keeping in touch'.

For example, the main function of the following post is not ideational (letting the world know that the microblogger's child is asleep) but interpersonal (sharing positive affect about the experience of motherhood):

mu lil one just fell asleep in my arms..she hasnt done that in awhile..i love being a mom

Similarly, the post below, when viewed as part of an on-going prosody of light self-mockery in this microblogger's Twitter feed, can be seen to have a largely interpersonal function inviting communion of sentiment:

Just spilt wine on son's homework diary. **#badmother**

While this post does function at one level to inform the ambient audience about a minor event in the microblogger's domestic life, it also interpersonally aligns the ambient audience around a humorous shared experience of parental inadequacy. This interpersonal function is marked by the self-deprecating hashtag '*#badmother*'. The hashtag playfully classifies the microblogger as failing to live up to a parenting ideal by acting as a kind of conversational aside that connects this post with a putative collective of other inept parents.

As well as interactional and relational, identities are semiotic in the sense that a persona will tend toward enacting particular patterns of values in discourse (Bednarek and Martin 2010; Bednarek 2010). For example patterns of emotional language are involved in enacting attitudinal or expressive identity (Bednarek, in press; Bednarek 2011). Groups of personae form discourse fellowships as they converge (or diverge) around these evaluative patterns. Thus we require what Halliday (1978) refers to as a 'social semiotic' perspective to account for, not only the ways in which identity is construed in discourse, but also for how that construal both affords and influences different forms of sociality. While this paper will focus on the meanings made by a particular user in a single microblogging stream (compared with more general patterns in a reference corpus), I do not wish to suggest that enacting identity is most productively thought of in terms of individual people. Instead if we adopt a perspective focused on meaning in its social context, we are interested in how personae are performed in discourse:

As Firth warns, it is not psycho-biological entities we are exploring, but rather the bundles of personae embodied in such entities and how these personae engender speech fellowships. We're not, in other words, looking at individuals interacting in groups but rather at persons and personalities communing in discourse. (Martin 2009)

The interpersonal dimension of meaning inflects the personae that we adopt in social life, just as the kinds of roles that these personae can take up is modulated by the genres into which we have been socialized (Martin and Rose 2008).

For analysis of the configuration of bonds displayed in the Twitter corpus used in this research the reader is directed to the full paper (Zappavigna, M. (in press, 2014). Enacting identity in Microblogging. *Discourse and Communication* 8(3)).

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Notes

- [1] This is an abridged version of work published as (Zappavigna, in press, 2014).
- [2] 'Ambient' is used throughout this paper to refer to the interpersonal affordances of social media as a communicative channel that allows users to commune with others without necessarily engaging in direct conversational exchanges (e.g. see discussion of hashtagging practices in later sections as well as in (Zappavigna 2012)).
- [3] For a useful overview see (Bucholtz 2009).
- [4] For an overview of these concepts see (Prior 2003).
- [5] This disposition is informed by a person's particular semiotic 'repertoire' that arises out of the potential semiotic 'reservoir' available via their membership in a given community (Bernstein 2000).
- [6] 'Search' refers to the ability of a computer system to select a subset of documents from a larger collection based on a set of criteria such as keywords.
- [7] I do not intend by using this term to foreground a distinction between online and offline personae, but rather to indicate the affordances of 'searchable talk' (Zappavigna 2012) (e.g. metadata use) that make values shared in microblogging discourse 'findable' and hence 'bondable'.
- [8] Page (2012: 196) has noted that "the kinds of talk which aggregate around hashtags (even those used by 'ordinary' Twitter members) involve multiple participants talking simultaneously *about* the same topic, rather than individuals necessarily talking *with* each other in dyadic exchanges that resemble a conversation".

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