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Evaluation in English News Discourse
Vyjadřování hodnotících postojů v anglickém novinovém diskurzu

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.....

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Abstract

The thesis deals with evaluation in English newspaper discourse. The corpora analysed were newly created for the purposes of the sub-analyses; they comprise articles from three British online newspapers - three tabloids (the Sun, the Express, the Mirror) and broadsheets (the Telegraph, the Independent, the Guardian). The classification of the thesis' core dimensions of evaluation – opinion and emotion – draws on Appraisal Theory (Martin and White, 2005). The thesis pursues answers to two fundamental questions 1) What means do British online newspapers use to express evaluation? 2) What differences (if any) are there in construing evaluation between the tabloids and the broadsheets? In order to obtain the answers, at first, a small manual analysis of six 'positive' and six 'negative' articles (one from each newspaper) is conducted. Attention is paid to the key word analysis and the word classes expressing evaluation, namely adjectives, nouns, and verbs. Based on the findings, I decided to explore evaluation conveyed by adjectives, in the second part of the study, by employing evaluative adjective lexico-grammatical patterns described by Hunston and Sinclair (2000) and further amended by Bednarek (2007b, 2009). These patterns, which are associated with the dimensions of opinion and emotion, are analysed in the corpora in terms of function and frequency. The results prove that evaluation is highly context dependent and a mere key word analysis is not sufficient as a significant amount of implied evaluation can be overlooked. On the other hand, the local grammar approach can be considered as a useful device to detect instances of evaluation in newspaper discourse.

Key words: evaluation, patterns, adjectives, emotion, opinion, newspapers, discourse

Abstrakt

Dizertační práce se zabývá vyjadřování hodnotících postojů v anglickém novinovém diskurzu. Korpusy, které slouží k analýze, byly speciálně vytvořeny pro účely této práce. Skládají se z článků britských online novin – tří bulvárních novin (the Sun, the Express, the Mirror) a tří seriózních novin (the Telegraph, the Independent, the Guardian). Klasifikace základních kategorií této dizertace - kategorie názoru a emocí byla provedena na základě Appraisal Theory (Martin and White, 2005). Práce se zaměřuje na dvě hlavní otázky: 1) Jaké prostředky používají britské online noviny k vyjádření hodnotících postojů. 2) Jaké jsou rozdíly ve vyjadřování hodnotících postojů v bulvárním a seriózním tisku. K získání odpovědí byla nejprve použita malá manuální analýza, která zkoumala šest pozitivních a šest negativních článků (z každých novin byl použit jeden článek pozitivní a jeden negativní). Pozornost byla věnována analýze klíčových slov a slovním druhům, které vyjadřují hodnotící postoje, jmenovitě přídavným jménům, podstatným jménům a slovesům. Na základě získaných informací jsem se rozhodla věnovat se v druhé části práce lexiko-gramatickým vzorcům, které popsali Hunstonová a Sinclair (2000) a upravila Bednareková (2007b, 2009). Tyto vzorce, které jsou úzce spojovány se zkoumanými kategoriemi názoru a emocí, byly analyzovány z pohledu frekvence a funkce. Výsledky ukazují, že hodnotící postoje jsou úzce spjaty s kontextem a samotná analýza klíčových slov se ukázala jako nespolehlivá, protože mnoho implicitních hodnotících postojů může být při ní přehlédnuto. Na druhou stranu, přístup pomocí ‚local grammar‘ se ukázal jako plně efektivní při detekci hodnotících postojů v novinovém diskurzu.

Klíčová slova: hodnotící postoje, vzorce, přídavná jména, emoce, názor, noviny, diskurz

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List of Abbreviations

ADJ	Adjective group
AdvG	Adverb group
Ap	April
AT	Appraisal Theory
B	Broadsheets
B-Broad	Baby sub-corpus, Broadsheets
B-Tab	Baby sub-corpus, Tabloids
BNC	British National Corpus
BRC	British Register Corpus
COMPAR	Comparative form
Dec	December
Feb	February
Jan	January
Jun	June
KW	Key word
Mar	March
n	Noun group
NG	Noun group
Nov	November
OALD	Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary
Oct	October
PBF	Parameter Based Framework
PP	Prepositional phrase
prep	Prepositional phrase
Q-Broad	Qatada sub-corpus, Broadsheets
Q-Tab	Qatada sub-corpus, Tabloids
Sep	September
SFL	Systemic Functional Linguistics
SUPERL	Superlative form
T	Tabloids
<i>that</i>	That clause
<i>to-inf</i>	To infinitive
V	Verb
v-link	Copular verbs

1. Introduction

This doctoral thesis aims to explore the ways in which evaluation is presented in English newspaper discourse. Linguistic descriptions of the expression of evaluative meaning in various genres have been recently surveyed by e.g. Hunston and Thompson (2000); Martin and White (2005), and Bednarek (2006). Newspaper discourse has also been analysed by e.g. Bell (1991), Crystal and Davy (1969) or Mac Donald (2005, in Biber and Conrad, 2009: 279). However, newspaper discourse in terms of evaluation has been scrutinized to a much lesser extent. The linguists who have focused their research on this field are Bednarek and Caple (2012), and Bednarek (2008a, 2008b, 2007b, 2006). This thesis aims to enrich the research on newspaper discourse and evaluation (particularly focusing on the dimensions of opinion and emotion). Namely, it will try to contribute to this issue in the following areas:

1. The means used to express evaluation in English online newspaper discourse.

Newspaper language varies depending on the kind of newspaper; broadsheets are known for their sophisticated language and style whereas tabloids are (in)-famous for their informalisation and personalisation of their news. Yet, how do the newspapers incorporate evaluation into their newswriting (if they do)? To be more specific, what word classes do the newspapers use to construe the dimensions of opinion and emotion in their news? Hunston and Sinclair (2000) propose that adjectives are known for being evaluation loaded; however, what other word classes can be considered evaluation carriers? How can these word classes be detected in a newspaper discourse corpus? Do they have to be found manually or are they software detectable?

2. Differences between English online broadsheets and tabloids in terms of evaluation, particularly in presenting the semantic mapping of opinion and emotion.

Bednarek (2006) analysed newspaper discourse (tabloids and broadsheets) from the evaluative parameters' perspective (see section 3.2.). She did not operate with the dimensions of opinion and emotion, yet her findings showed that the parameter of EVIDENTIALITY/STYLE¹ was the most important parameter in both kinds of newspapers;

¹ The parameter of EVIDENTIALITY focuses on the question "How do we know?", STYLE evaluates how things are presented.

² <http://www.laurenceanthony.net/software/antconc/>

³ Described by Hunston and Sinclair (2000) and amended by Bednarek (2009).

⁴ Labov, W. (1972). *Language in the Inner City*. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania.

⁵ Describing the same phenomenon, Downes (2000: 110) uses the term polyphony: "emotive and evaluative

this parameter falls into this thesis's category 'opinion'; therefore, it could be assumed that newspapers from their intrinsic nature will predominantly express opinion. Bednarek (ibid.) further reported that the parameter EMOTIVITY (which falls into this thesis's dimension of emotion), was more frequently expressed in the tabloids. She proves her findings by another study (Bednarek, 2007b), where she discovered that 'the tabloid newspapers prefer to use evaluative adjective patterns for reporting emotional or mental states, whereas broadsheet newspapers prefer to use them for evaluation proper' (ibid.: 15). Will the results of this thesis support Bednarek's findings?

In order to obtain the answers I decided to conduct two analyses, the pilot 'small corpus analysis', which was carried out to identify the range of evaluative linguistic means used in six British online newspapers (three tabloids - the Sun, the Express, the Mirror - and three broadsheets - the Telegraph, the Independent, the Guardian). This was followed by a large corpus analysis, which focused on adjectival lexico-grammatical patterns. Each analysis required a different corpus and approach. The small corpus analysis comprises a keyword analysis of the given corpus (six positive and six negative articles - one from each newspaper) and a manual analysis, which was aimed to identify the frequency and range of word classes that are used to express evaluation. Based on the small corpus analysis findings, I decided to conduct a large corpus analysis, which would focus on adjectival lexico-grammatical patterns, which were attested in the corpus with the help of the concordance software *AntConc*. These findings were then analysed in terms of this thesis's evaluation categories of opinion and emotion.

Chapter 2 defines evaluation. It deals with the issues concerning the function of evaluation such as expressing the speaker/-writer's opinion, construing and maintaining relations, and organising the discourse. Further, it describes the means that are used to convey evaluation.

Chapter 3 introduces the most important approaches to evaluation, it starts with Appraisal theory, which was introduced by Martin and White (2005) and which this thesis mainly draws on. The core semantic mappings of this thesis - opinion and emotion - are established based on Martin and White's dimension of Attitude. Further, the chapter introduces Bednarek's Parameter Based Framework, where for example parameters of COMPREHENSIBILITY,

EMOTIVITY, HUMOROUSNESS, and EVIDENTIALITY are discussed. Local grammar, local grammar patterns, and patterns of evaluation are defined in the next part of the chapter. The section identifies general local grammar patterns and patterns of evaluation; moreover, it introduces Hunston and Sinclair's (2000) basic evaluative patterns. The last part of this chapter deals with newspaper discourse, its fundamental features, such as news values, and lexical and syntactic means that are typically employed in such discourse.

Chapter 4 characterises the corpora used, and discusses the methodology.

Chapter 5 starts with the research, it introduces the research data of the small corpus analysis where the broadsheets and the tabloids were analysed in terms of a key word analysis, and the range of linguistic means used to express evaluation. The small corpus analysis comprises four parts. First of all, the negative tabloid and broadsheet articles (Qatada sub-corpus) are analysed and compared. Then the positive articles (Baby sub-corpus) follow and conclusions are drawn in terms of differences between the broadsheets and the tabloids, differences between expressing the dimensions of opinion and emotion, and differences in linguistic means used by the particular newspapers.

Chapter 6 presents the large corpus analysis, which was conducted with the help of the concordance software *AntConc*.² The analysis is narrowed to only one word class - the adjectives, as adjectives seem to be the most evaluation loaded word class that can be easily attested in a corpus. Initially, non-graded adjectival lexico-grammatical patterns³ were tested and analysed, and additionally graded adjectival lexico-grammatical patterns were added in order to include a wider scope of the patterns. The overall findings are compared in terms of function and frequency, and conclusions are drawn.

² <http://www.laurenceanthony.net/software/antconc/>

³ Described by Hunston and Sinclair (2000) and amended by Bednarek (2009).

2. Defining Evaluation

“Evaluation can be considered as an extremely important aspect of language that allows communicators to express values, construct and negotiate communality and commitment and construe specific discourse personalities” (Bednarek, 2008a: 1).

“Evaluations are construal of experiences in context on binary scales between positive and negative: good vs. bad, desirable vs. undesirable, important vs. not important, lovely vs. hideous” (Downes, 2000: 104).

“Evaluation is a broad cover term for expression of the speaker’s and writer’s attitude or stance towards, viewpoint on, or feelings about the entities or propositions that he or she is talking about” (Thompson and Hunston, 2000: 5).

As the above quoted definitions show, linguists differ in their views on what constitutes evaluation. What they agree on, however, is the fact that evaluation is comparative, subjective, and value-laden (Thomson and Hunston, 2000: 13). If we wish to find evaluation in a text, we need to search for social value, subjectivity, and comparison. For example, Daneš (1994: 253) claims that evaluation is “a marked case against the background of the normal or expected.” According to Labov, “evaluation consists of anything which is compared to or contrasts with the norm” (1972,⁴ in Thomson and Hunston, 2000: 13). Therefore, comparative adjectives and adverbs, as well as adverbs of degree, can serve as markers of evaluation in texts. Subjectivity, i.e. the expression of a subjective reaction to an event, can be manifested in the text via markers of subjectivity, such as modals, marked clause structures, specific evaluative patterns, nouns, verbs, and adverbs. Social value (‘markers of value’ in Thomson and Hunston’s terms) is construed by “lexical items whose typical use is in an evaluative environment and indications of the existence of goals and their (non-)achievement” (ibid.: 21).

According to Bednarek (2008a: 3), there are three approaches to evaluation -“doing, having, and saying evaluation”. ‘Doing’ evaluation is regarded as a cognitive operation; ‘having’ means mental representation via frames and schemata, and ‘saying’ means expressing opinion via modality, affect, etc. In this thesis, I will focus on the third approach to evaluation, ‘saying evaluation’.

⁴ Labov, W. (1972). *Language in the Inner City*. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania.

2.1. Functions of evaluation

One of the fundamental questions is what roles evaluation plays in communication. Thompson and Hunston (2000: 6-13) determine three functions of evaluation, namely:

Expressing the speaker's or writer's opinion (and in doing so reflecting “the value system of that person and their community”) – the writer can share his opinion on how he perceives certain information with the reader. The sharing is based on the particular “value system” of the society (ibid.: 6): building on these cultural, economic and social norms, the reader can establish whether the writer agrees or disagrees with the information, and the writer can “reinforce and reflect” (ibid.) the ideology he supports.

Constructing and maintaining relations between the speaker or writer and hearer or reader – thanks to this function the writer can influence the reader and manipulate the reader's opinion and decisions; he/she can build relations with the reader and can persuade him or her to maintain certain views on the world.

Organizing the discourse – evaluation provides a clue to ‘monitoring’ the organization of discourse. “As the relationship between writer and reader is built up, part of that relationship is a mutual awareness of the boundaries in the discourse and the nature of the connection between its various parts” (ibid.: 12). In the same way the significance of the discourse is signalled through evaluation.

The role of evaluation has been studied extensively in relation to various genres. In research related to academic texts, for example, it has been subsumed under the heading of ‘metatalk’ or ‘metadiscourse’. Hyland (2004: 109) uses the term metadiscourse to refer to “non-propositional aspects of discourse which help to organize prose as a coherent text and convey a writer's personality, credibility, reader sensitivity and relationship to the message.” Schiffrin (1980: 231) considers metatalk as the author's ability to organize text in order to “bracket the discourse organization and the expressive implications of what is being said.”

Evaluation (or metadiscourse) plays a crucial role in interaction in various genres “in facilitating communication, supporting a writer's position and building a relationship with an audience” (Hyland, 2004: 110). The means of expressing evaluation, however, appear to be tied closely to the type of text, i.e. to the norms and expectations of a particular discourse community (ibid.). Evaluation can be displayed explicitly mainly via lexical items but it is also possible to detect instances of covert / implicit/ evoked evaluation via ‘tokens of

evaluation' which "have the capacity in the culture to evoke judgemental responses" (White, 2001), for more on explicit and implicit evaluation see e.g. Bednarek (2007a), Martin and White (2005), Hood and Martin (2007). The present thesis, however, will focus merely on the explicit/ inscribed means. The next section describes linguistic means that are used to express evaluation.

2.2. Means conveying evaluation

2.2.1. Lexis

While readers generally tend to agree on what counts as evaluation in a text (Hunston and Thompson, 2000: 13), the question of how to recognize particular information as evaluative seems more difficult to answer. As mentioned above, "[c]onceptually, evaluation has been noted to be comparative, subjective, and value-laden. Identifying evaluation, then, is a question of identifying signals of comparison, subjectivity, and social value" (ibid.). Such signals can be identified at different language strata: at the level of lexis, grammar, and text.

Lexis may be assumed to be the easiest means to detect; many lexical items carry evaluative meaning on their own. However, a lexical item may "[give] information in addition to the evaluation, and as a result, its status as evaluation may be more debatable" (Thompson and Hunston, 2000: 17). Evaluation is most commonly associated with adjectives, adverbs, nouns, and verbs (ibid.: 14). The same information can be presented differently by different lexical items that carry different evaluative values, based on the writer's attitude. This predominantly occurs with nouns and verbs. See the following examples:

- (1) ... abstain, forbear, and refrain all typically indicate a positive attitude towards absence of action, whereas flinch, retreat, and shirk indicate a negative attitude. (Thompson and Hunston, 2000: 17)
- (2) ...execution, assassination, killing, murder, slaughter may all be used to describe the same incident, but the sense of moral outrage increases with each successive noun (ibid: 18).

The question arising from these examples is whether recognizing the evaluative value of a lexical item can be based only on intuition (which is supported by the value system of a society), or whether it could be found systematically by linguistic analysis, for example, via recurrent lexico-grammatical patterns. Channel (2000) conducted a corpus based research which shows that

“...the analysis and description of evaluative functions is possible in a systematic way... [since] ...quantitative data show clear evidence of where there is an evaluative polarity in an item ... [however] the notion of evaluative function [is] central to the description of a sizeable but as yet unquantified proportion of words” (Channel 2000: 54).

Bednarek (2008a: 21) further demonstrates that evaluative lexical items “often realise two or more ... evaluative parameters at the same time”, and that “evaluation can be expressed in a single utterance or a limited stretch of text with the help of different linguistic units” (ibid.: 26). This phenomenon can be referred to as ‘evaluative interplay or combination’.⁵ Bednarek introduces two types of evaluative interplay and combination:

Evaluative conflation relates to instances where one lexical item realizes two or more different kinds of evaluations, e.g. reporting verbs, such as *say* or *whisper*, combine evaluation of evidentiality, i.e. marking the source of the writer’s knowledge, with an evaluation of a particular way of speaking;

Evaluative collocation and modulation: evaluations along different parameters frequently co-occur (or collocate) across a sufficiently large number of texts (e.g. combinations of evaluative lexical items, such as *signs of resentment* or *looking bitterly disappointed*) (ibid.: 26-27).

2.2.2. Grammar

Apart from the lexis, grammatical constructions have also been found to carry evaluative meanings. According to Conrad and Biber (2000: 57), for instance, some adverbial constructions are evaluative. They use the term adverbial ‘stance markers’. They group these adverbials into “three major semantic classes: epistemic stance, attitudinal stance and style stance”. Epistemic stance adverbials are used to comment on evidentiality, certainty, and reliability. The attitudinal stance comprises comments on feelings and judgements. The style stance relates to how something is said or written. The epistemic stance is expressed more often than the attitude and style stance. Biber and Finegan (1989,⁶ cited in Thomson and Hunston, 2000: 19) include among the above mentioned stance markers:

- adverbs indicating affect, certainty, and doubt, e.g.: *definitely, probably, happily*

⁵ Describing the same phenomenon, Downes (2000: 110) uses the term polyphony: “emotive and evaluative meanings are simultaneously interwoven”.

⁶ Biber, D. and E. Finegan, E. (1989) ‘Styles of stance in English: lexical and grammatical marking of evidentiality and affect’. Text, 9. 93-124.

- adjectives indicating affect, certainty and doubt, e.g. *furious, sure, feasible*
- verbs indicating affect, certainty, and doubt, e.g. *love, make sure, doubt*
- hedges, e.g. *kind of*
- emphatics, e.g. *for sure, really*
- modals indicating possibility, necessity, and prediction as stance markers, e.g. *might, may*

Thompson and Huston (2000: 18) further introduce Labov's findings that intensifiers, comparators, correlatives and explicatives 'have a marked evaluative force'. In addition, Thomson and Hunston (2000: 26), referring to Hunston and Sinclair (2000), claim that it is not only particular grammatical items that carry evaluation but that "there are particular grammatical patterns that select and identify evaluative and lexical items" (ibid.). The grammatical pattern can then serve as the starting point for the localization of evaluative meaning in texts (cf. the 'local grammar of Affect').

2.2.3. Text

Hoey (1983: 9) points out that texts are composed of clauses which are not put together in a "brick by brick" fashion; clauses, paragraphs and text are constructed so that they intrinsically carry necessary information, which could be explicit or implicit. Hoey (2001: 159) introduces textual patterns that are detectable in discourse, according to him, the fundamental Problem – Solution pattern is closely interlinked with negative evaluation, and the Desire Arousal-Fulfilment pattern,⁷ on the other hand, is signalled by positive evaluation.

⁷ This pattern is frequently to be found in advertisements.

3. Individual Approaches

Table 3-1 (borrowed from Bednarek, 2008a: 22) lists different approaches to evaluation which will be dealt with in more detail in the following sections.

	appraisal (Martin and White 2005)	Francis (1995)	Thompson and Hunston (2000)	Conrad and Biber (2000)	Biber and Finegan (1988)	Lemke (1998)	Parameter-based framework
Attitude	rationality	positive/negative parameter	attitudinal stance	<i>amazingly</i> adverbials: expressing attitudes towards the content independent of its epistemological status	desirability/inclination	EMOTIVITY	
- Affect	value/appropriacy					(MENTAL STATE)	
- Judgement							
- Appreciation							
	<u>predictability</u>	expectedness/obviousness		<i>actually</i> adverbials: expressing actuality, emphasis, greater certainty/truth than expected	usuality/expectability/comprehensibility/obviousness	EXPECTEDNESS	
	obviousness			<i>maybe</i> adverbials: expressing possibility, likelihood, questionable assertions, hedging		COMPREHENSIBILITY	
Engagement	truth modality	certainty	epistemic stance	<i>surely</i> adverbials: expressing conviction or certainty	warrantability/probability	ITY	
						EVIDENTIALITY	
	importance	relevance/importance		<i>honestly</i> adverbials: expressing manner of speaking	importance/significance	IMPORTANCE	
			style stance	<i>generally</i> adverbials: expressing approximation, generalisation		STYLE	
	ability				normativity/appropriateness	POSSIBILITY/NECESSITY	
					humorousness/seriousness	SERIOUSNESS	
Graduation							
- force							
- focus							RELIABILITY/STYLE

Table 3-1 Comparison of approaches (Bednarek, 2008a: 22)

3.1. Appraisal Theory

Appraisal Theory (AT),⁸ developed mainly by Martin and White, is a functionally oriented approach to evaluation in language, which evolved within the Systemic Functional Linguistics framework (SFL) introduced by M.A.K. Halliday and his colleagues (Martin and White, 2005: 1). Martin and White's approach is primarily lexis oriented.

According to the SFL, language performs three major functions: ideational, interpersonal and textual, i.e. language construes the world of experience, relationships between people, and it organises each instance of discourse. Each function operates separately as language is regarded as a system of choices (Hunston, 2011: 19-20), yet they are interlinked in other aspects (Martin and White, 2005: 11). According to Martin and White

“we can locate appraisal as an interpersonal system at the level of discourse semantics. At this level it co-articulates interpersonal meaning with two other systems - negotiation and involvement. Negotiation complements appraisal by focusing on the interactive aspects of discourse, speech function and exchange structure... Involvement complements appraisal by focussing on non-gradable resources for negotiating tenor relations, especially solidarity” (Martin and White, 2005: 33).

The relationship among the systems of appraisal, negotiation and involvement at the levels of discourse semantics and lexico-grammatical patterns which realize them are illustrated in Table 3-2. Table 3-2 shows, appraisal, as “one of three major discourse semantic resources construing interpersonal meaning” (ibid.), “is regionalised as three interacting domains – ‘attitude’, ‘engagement’ and ‘graduation’” (ibid.: 35).

⁸ <http://www.grammatics.com/appraisal/AppraisalOutline/Unframed/AppraisalOutline.htm>

	negotiation	appraisal	involvement
discourse semantics	speech function exchange	engagement attitude graduation	naming technicality anti-language swearing
lexicogrammar	mood tagging	evaluative language modal verbs modal adjuncts polarity numeration intensification repetition	proper names technical lexis specialized lexis slang taboo lexis grammatical metaphor

Table 3-2 Evaluative language means used in discourse semantics and lexicogrammar (adapted from Martin and White, 2005: 35)

Figure 3-1 describes how Martin and White perceive appraisal: appraisal consists of three central issues through which writers or speakers adopt either a positive or negative stance towards information. ‘Attitude’ is associated with feelings, emotional reactions, judgement of behaviour and evaluation of things (ibid.: 35). The three major regions of feeling covered by Attitude are affect, judgement and appreciation. ‘Engagement’ deals with the way information is projected, which involves, for example, whether information is quoted or reported, what modality is applied or what adverbials are used to position speakers in a dialogue. ‘Graduation’ intensifies or blurs the information given (ibid.: 36). In other words, when people use evaluative language, they show their attitudinal, dialogistic, and intertextual positioning.

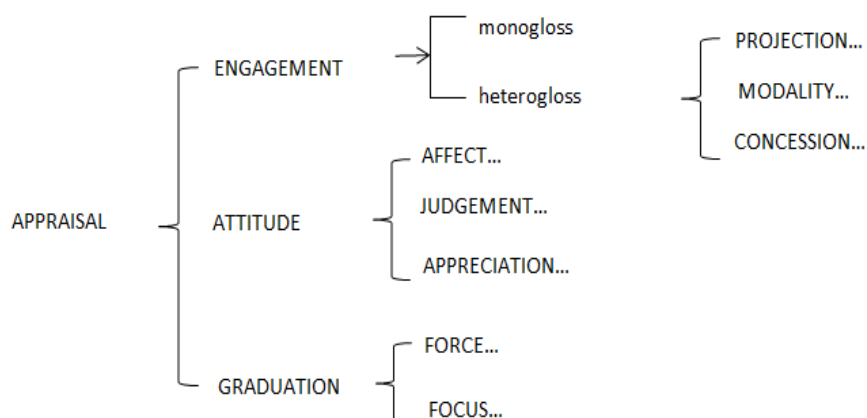


Figure 3-1 Appraisal systems: an overview (Martin and Rose, 2003: 54)

Table 3-3 provides a more detailed exemplification of lexical means that can be used to express attitude, amplify it (graduation), and attribute it to sources (engagement).

Attitude	Affect	<i>envied</i> <i>torn to pieces</i>
	Judgement	<i>a bubbly vivacious man</i> <i>wild energy, sharply intelligent</i>
	Appreciation	<i>a top security structure</i> <i>a beautiful relationship</i>
Graduation		<i>sharply intelligent</i> <i>wild energy</i>
Engagement		<i>He was popular with all the 'Boer' Afrikaners.</i> <i>And all <u>my girlfriends</u> envied me.</i>

Table 3-3 Basic options for appraisal (adapted from Martin and Rose 2003: 24)

3.1.1. Attitude

Martin and White (2005) refer to attitude as to a system of meanings which covers semantic regions of emotion, ethics and aesthetics; it “is concerned with our feelings, including emotional reactions, judgements of behaviour and evaluation of things” (Martin and White, 2005: 35). Within the system of attitude, people, things, events, and happenings are assessed either positively or negatively (Martin, 2000: 147).

Attitudinal positioning can be ‘inscribed’ (direct) or ‘invoked’/‘evoked’ (implied). Inscribed attitude means that evaluation is expressed by explicit evaluative lexis. Invoked/evoked attitude involves the application of more indirect ways of evaluation, such as metaphor and the use of non-core vocabulary (Martin and White, 2005: 67). Martin and White subdivide invoked attitude into ‘provoked’, ‘flagged’, and ‘afforded’. Provoked attitude is invoked indirectly as metaphor is applied (ibid.: 64-67); flagged attitude employs non-core vocabulary and afforded attitude invites the reader to decide him/herself whether he/she wishes to align with the attitude invoked by connotation and context (ideational statements that imply evaluations). Attitude can be understood on the basis of the co-text. This division of attitude reflects “the degree of freedom given to readers in aligning with the values naturalised by the text” (ibid.: 67). Bednarek (2007a: 117) widens the scope of attitude and introduces an alternative classification (see the comparison in Figure 3-2 and Figure 3-3). Bednarek (2007a: 118) demonstrated that invoked attitude can be strongly implied when affect terms are used (see section Affect). Attitude is ‘metonymically implicated’ when logical associations are involved. For example, when the actors of an activity are evaluated, example (3), the activity itself is metonymically evaluated.

- (3) *They played fantastic* → judging the players, metonymically appreciating the play
(ibid.)

Moreover, attitude can be ‘triggered’ by evaluative meaning from outside attitude, such as graduation, when for example contrast, repetition or adverbs are applied (see section Graduation).

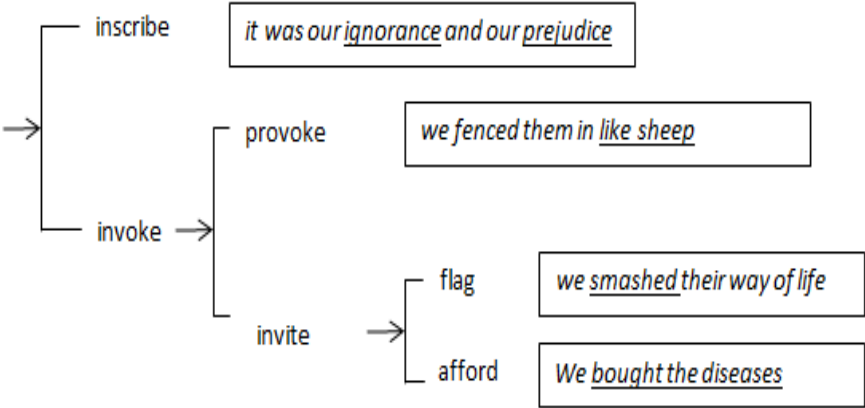


Figure 3-2 Strategies for inscribing and invoking attitude (Martin and White, 2005: 67)

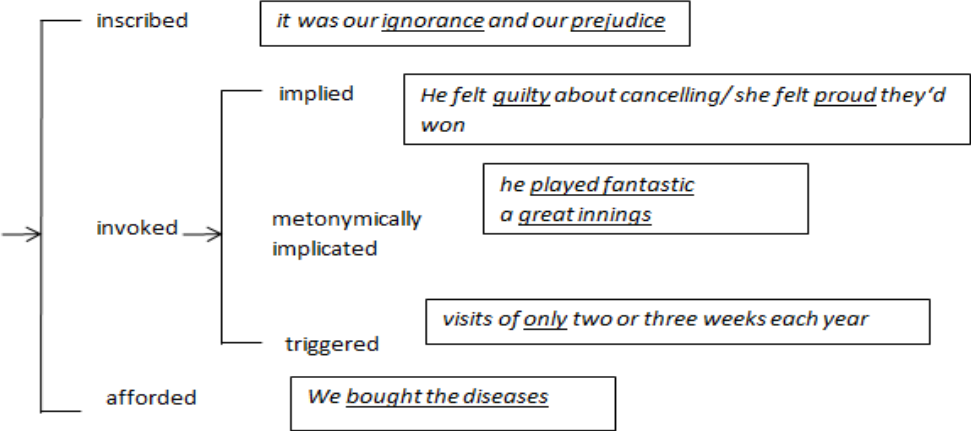


Figure 3-3 Attitude classification by Bednarek (2007a: 117)

As pointed out above, the system of attitude involves three semantic regions, which are displayed in Figure 3-4 affect (covering emotion), judgement (dealing with attitudes towards behaviour), and appreciation (involving evaluations of semiotic and natural phenomena). Martin and White are aware of the fact that their categorisation of attitude is neither complete nor precise.

“...our maps of feeling (for affect, judgement and appreciation) have to be treated at this stage as hypotheses about the organisation of the relevant meanings - offered as a challenge to those concerned with developing appropriate reasoning, as a reference point for those with alternative classifications and as a tool for those who need something to manage the analysis of evaluation in discourse” (Martin and White, 2005: 46).

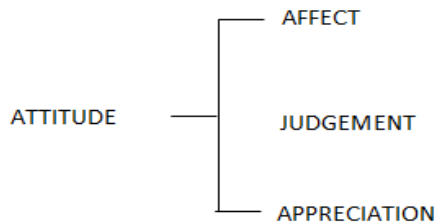


Figure 3-4 Subdivision of attitude

The three subsystems of Attitude – Affect, Judgement, and Appreciation – can be subsumed under a binary system of Emotion and Opinion (see Figure 3-5 (Bednarek, 2009: 156)): the term ‘emotion’ is used “to label attitudinal assessments which are indicated through descriptions of the emotional reactions or states of human subjects... [and] the term ‘opinion’, in a rather narrower sense than is customary in everyday usage, to label positive or negative assessments [...] under which a positive or negative quality is said to be an inherent property of the phenomenon being evaluated” (White 2004: 232).

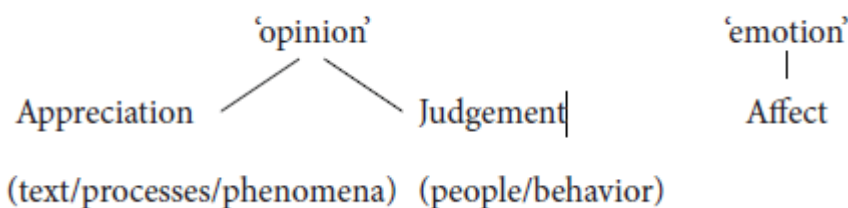


Figure 3-5 ‘Opinion’ and ‘emotion’ as subsystems of Attitude (Bednarek, 2009: 156)

Hunston and Sinclair (2000) propose a similar distinction between ‘evaluative categories’ (corresponding to ‘opinion’ in focussing on evaluative quality) and ‘evaluative responses’ (parallel to ‘emotion’ in indicating personal reactions). The relations among the above mentioned sub-categorizations are summarized in Table 3-4 (drawing on Bednarek, 2009: 168-169).

	Opinion	Emotion	
Hunston and Sinclair (2000)	evaluative category	evaluating response	
Hunston (2003)		covert affect/ constitutive affect e.g. It was distressing to hear her talking like that.	overt affect/ reflective affect e.g. It makes me feel happy that they've come.
Martin and White (2005: 58-59, Martin 2003)	judgement e.g. It was reasonable to incur that expense.	appreciation e.g. It was wonderful talking to you the other day.	affect

Table 3-4 The subsystems of Attitude (based on Bednarek, 2009: 168-169)

In Martin and White's approach, affect (i.e. registering positive and negative feelings) is at the heart of the system of attitude since judgement and appreciation can be understood as "institutionalised feelings".

"In these terms, judgement reworks feelings in the realm of proposals about behaviour – how we should behave or not; ... Appreciation on the other hand reworks feelings as propositions about the value of things – what they are worth or not; ..." (Martin and White, 2005: 45)

This view of judgement and appreciation as institutionalised affect can be illustrated by Figure 3-6 (ibid.)

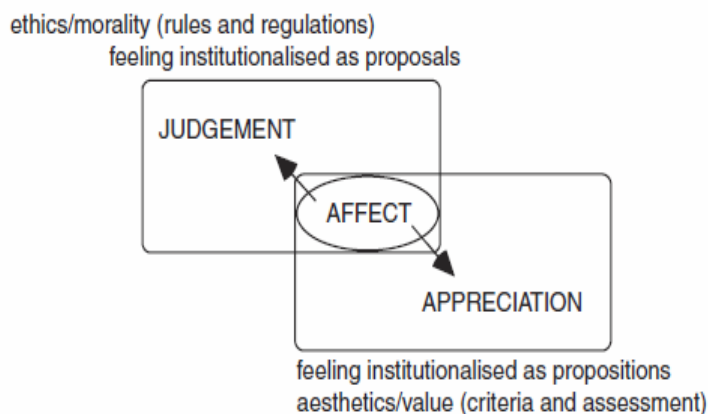


Figure 3-6 Judgement and appreciation as institutionalised affect (Martin and White, 2005: 45)

3.1.1.1. Affect

Affect is “the core resource for the realization of appraisal” (Hunston and Thomson, 2006: 309). It represents reactions to behaviour, text/process, or phenomena and can be analysed from many angles such as whether it is authorial or non-authorial, whether it is positive or negative, whether it is graded or not, whether it portrays a mental process or behaviour surge, etc. These affect issues will be discussed below.

3.1.1.1.1 Affect classification

According to Martin and White (2005: 47-49, see also Martin and Rose, 2003: 59-60), affect can be classified on the basis of six factors/questions, which are introduced below.

I. Is the feeling **positive or negative**?

positive affect the captain was **happy**

negative affect the captain was **sad**

II. Is the feeling interpreted via **behavioural, mental, relational** process?

behavioural surge the captain **wept**, she **smiled** at him

mental process/state the captain **disliked** leaving/the captain felt **sad**

relational she felt **happy** with him

III. Is the feeling directed at some specific external agency or at some general ongoing mood?

reaction to other the captain **disliked** leaving/leaving **displeased** the captain

undirected mood the captain was **sad**

IV. Is the feeling graded and how?

low the captain **disliked** leaving

median the captain **hated** leaving

high the captain **detested** leaving

V. Is it a feeling of a desiderative or emotive process?

realis the captain **disliked** leaving

irrealis the captain **feared** leaving

VI. Is the feeling related to un/happiness, in/security, and dis/satisfaction variables?

un/happiness the captain felt **sad/happy**

in/security the captain felt **anxious/confident**

dis/satisfaction the captain felt **fed up/absorbed**

The ‘un/happiness’ variable covers emotions such as sadness, anger, happiness and love, ‘in/security’ covers emotions concerned with social well-being, anxiety, fear, confidence, and trust, and the ‘dis/satisfaction’ variable those concerned with ennui, curiosity, respect. Martin and White, (2005: 48) also include the variable ‘dis/inclination’ which covers emotions of fear and desire, yet this variable is not included in factor VI, but in factor V because ‘dis/inclination’ involves “intention (rather than reaction) with respect to a stimulus that is unrealis” (ibid.), see Table 3-5 for unrealis affect.⁹

DIS/INCLINATION	SURGE	DISPOSITION
fear	<i>tremble shudder cower</i>	<i>wary fearful terrorized</i>
desire	<i>suggest request implore</i>	<i>incomplete(miss) lonely (long for) bereft (yearn for)</i>

Table 3-5 Unrealis affect (adapted from Martin and Rose, 2003: 60)

Table 3-6 (showing realis affect) demonstrates that “[feelings] can be experienced as emotional dispositions, such as *sad* or *happy*, or they may appear as surges of behaviour, such as *crying* or *laughing*” (Martin and Rose, 2003: 60).

UN/HAPPINESS	SURGE (of behaviour)	DISPOSITION
unhappiness - misery	<i>cry, whimper...</i>	<i>down, sad...</i>
unhappiness - antipathy	<i>rubbish, abuse...</i>	<i>dislike, hate...</i>
happiness - cheer	<i>laugh, rejoice..</i>	<i>cheerful, jubilant...</i>
happiness - affection	<i>hug, cuddle...</i>	<i>fond, adoring...</i>
IN/SECURITY	SURGE (of behaviour)	DISPOSITION
insecurity - disquiet	<i>restless, shaking...</i>	<i>uneasy, anxious...</i>
insecurity - surprise	<i>cry out, faint...</i>	<i>astonished, surprised...</i>
security - confidence	<i>declare, asset...</i>	<i>confident, assured...</i>
security- trust	<i>delegate, commit...</i>	<i>comfortable with, trusting...</i>
DIS/SATISFACTION	SURGE (of behaviour)	DISPOSITION
dissatisfaction - ennui	<i>yawn, fidget</i>	<i>bred, fed up...</i>
dissatisfaction - displeasure	<i>scold, caution...</i>	<i>angry, furious</i>
satisfaction - interest	<i>attentive, busy</i>	<i>curious, absorbed...</i>
satisfaction - admiration	<i>reward, compliment</i>	<i>proud, impressed</i>

Table 3-6 Types of affect (adapted from Martin and Rose, 2003: 61)

⁹ Bednarek (2008b: 160-168) challenges Martin and White’s variables of factor VI and classifies the emotion terms in five categories, including the category ‘surprise’ as in e.g. He was *shocked*, and the category dis/inclination as in e.g. he was *unwilling* to help.

Drawing on the above system of classification, for instance, the expression *the captain felt fed up* can be recognized as an instance of expressing affect due to the copular verb *feel* and the adjective *fed up*; further, it can be said that the affect here is negative, it involves a mental process, the mood is undirected, it is graded high, it falls into the realis category because the feeling has already happened, and it represents dis/satisfaction, displeasure and disposition.

Authorial / non-authorial affect

Martin and White¹⁰ use, in connection with affect, the terms ‘authorial’ and ‘non-authorial’ affect (also called 1st person/ 2nd and 3rd person affect). Examples (4) and (5) show differences between these two notions.

(4) non-authorial affect: He doesn’t hate cats. He was really sad. Another lost game really traumatised him.

(5) authorial affect: I love him so much. I wanted to be here soon. I am very angry.

They suggest that when expressing authorial affect, the writer portrays how s/he is involved or how s/he has responded to the issue that is being evaluated. By expressing authorial affect, the speaker/writer indicates his/her attitude towards the person or situation that triggers the emotion. Through authorial affect the writer/speaker wishes to establish an interpersonal bond with the reader so that the reader could agree and sympathize with the emotional reaction; due to this bond, the reader is more open to ideological attitudes of the writer. Authorial affect tends to carry positive meaning while non-authorial affect tends to carry negative evaluation¹¹. When using the non-authorial affect, the writer does not describe his emotions but describes emotions of other groups and individuals, judges their behaviour or appreciates the things/events evaluated (Bednarek 2008b: 158-159). Overall, it is to be emphasised that when a writer/speaker uses any forms of affect, he/she opens his/her readers to ideology; the writer can provoke a sympathetic or unsympathetic response to social actors, and the readers then adopt the social position that the writer represents.

3.1.1.1.2 Covert vs. overt affect, blends

As mentioned in the section on Attitude, ‘affect’ along with ‘judgement’ and ‘appreciation’ are the three core subsystems of ‘attitude’; these subsystems can be further subsumed under two sub-systems – ‘emotion’ (covering affect), and opinion (encompassing appreciation and

¹⁰ <http://www.grammatics.com/appraisal/AppraisalGuide/UnFramed/Stage1-Attitude-Affect.htm>

¹¹ <http://www.grammatics.com/appraisal/AppraisalGuide/UnFramed/Stage1-Attitude-Affect.htm>

judgement), see Figure 3-5. Bednarek (2007a, 2008b, 2009) demonstrates that the border area between ‘affect’ and ‘appreciation’ is very fuzzy and she uses the terms ‘covert affect’ and ‘overt affect’, where ‘covert affect’ is regarded as an intermediate category between opinion and emotion... It might be said to constitute a ‘bridge’ between assessments of opinion and emotion” (Bednarek, 2009: 172), see Figure 3-7.

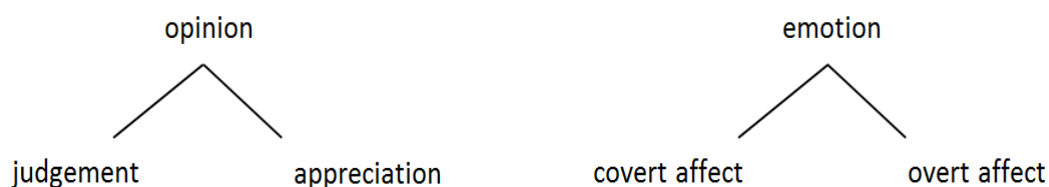


Figure 3-7 Division of overt and covert affect (Bednarek 2009: 167)

Bednarek’s proposal is supported by Hunston’s terminology of ‘reflective’ vs. ‘constitutive’ affect (Hunston,¹² 2003: 535, in Bednarek, 2009: 166), where ‘reflective affect’ “indicates the emotional response of the emoter”, while ‘constitutive affect’ indicates the quality of things evaluated,¹³ see Table 3-4. Bednarek further suggests that “...covert affect is less personalising than overt affect, but more personalising than appreciation and judgement” (Bednarek 2009: 172.). In other words, the distinction between covert affect and appreciation is blurred, constituting - in Bednarek’s terms - border phenomena. The border between affect and appreciation is shown in Figure 3-8.

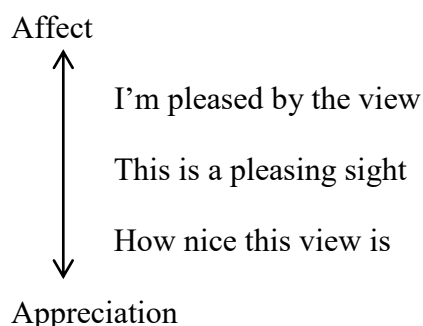


Figure 3-8 Border line between Affect and Appreciation, adapted from Bednarek (2007a: 121)

¹² Hunston, S (2003) ‘Frame, phrase or function: a comparison of frame semantics and local grammars.’ Manuscript, University of Birmingham. [Published in Archer, D., Rayson, P., Wilson, A. and McEnery, T. (eds.) *Proceedings of the Corpus Linguistics 2003 Conference*. University of Lancaster: University Centre for Computer Corpus Research on Language (Technical Papers 16): 342-358.].

¹³ Hunston (2003: 353, in Bednarek 2009: 166) illustrates the differences by the given examples: *Everyone in the school is distressed to hear of the tragedy* - reflective evaluation as it attributes evaluation to *everyone* in the school, *...after the distressing event of 1887...*- constitutive evaluation as it avers an evaluation of the events.

Moreover, Bednarek widens her research on affect and suggests that within the attitude system appraisal blends appear, they operate “somehow in-between appreciation/judgement and affect” (Bednarek, 2007a: 125-129). (She considers blends as “lexical items that inscribe two or more kinds of appraisal simultaneously” (ibid.)). That is why she introduces a new division of affect - namely affect and blended affect where affect /appreciation or affect/judgement is mixed. She supports her findings by examples of the lexical item *love*. *Love* is considered to render pure affect in ‘I love you’ as it refers to an emotional response, but in ‘I love this shirt’, *love* does not refer to an emotional response but to ‘liking’ or ‘enjoying’ an artefact, therefore, it is a blend of affect/appreciation. The sentence *I love this football player* expresses affect/judgement as the person’s role is evaluated. Furthermore, Bednarek refers to Lemke (1998), who also operated with appraisal blends and stated that “single lexical items can realize the conflation of two or more evaluations” (Lemke, 1998: 37, in Bednarek 2007a: 125). Bednarek (ibid.) calls this phenomenon “evaluative conflation” (see section Functions of Evaluation for more details). She claims though that more research in this area is necessary (Bednarek, 2007a: 130).

3.1.1.2. Judgement

The second subarea of attitude is judgement; it refers to “attitudinal evaluation in which human behaviour is positively or negatively assessed by a system of social norms.”¹⁴ Judgements can assess social norms as moral/immoral, legal/illegal, socially acceptable or unacceptable, etc. Moreover, social norms can be described as ‘social esteem’ and ‘social sanction’. Social esteem conveys normality (how special someone is), capacity (how capable someone is) and tenacity (how resolute someone is). Social sanction portrays veracity (how honest someone is - the truth) and propriety (how far beyond reproach - ethics) see Table 3-7. The aspects of social esteem tend to appear in the oral culture, such as chat, gossip, or rumour, while aspects of social sanction are more or less written rules, such as laws, decrees, or regulations (Martin and White, 2005: 52). The way people make judgments is determined by the culture and ideological situation they operate in, by their experience, beliefs and expectations. It is always possible to receive a different judgment, depending on ideological positioning of the person making the judgement.¹⁵

¹⁴ <http://www.grammatics.com/appraisal/AppraisalGuide/UnFramed/Stage2-Attitude-Judgement.htm>

¹⁵ <http://www.grammatics.com/appraisal/AppraisalGuide/UnFramed/Stage2-Attitude-Judgement.htm>

SOCIAL ESTEEM	positive (admire)	negative (criticize)
normality	<i>lucky, fortunate...</i>	<i>unfortunate, pitiful, tragic...</i>
capacity	<i>powerful, vigorous...</i>	<i>mild, weak, wimpy...</i>
tenacity	<i>plucky, brave, heroic...</i>	<i>rash, cowardly...</i>
SOCIAL SANCTION	positive (praise)	negative (condemn)
veracity	<i>truthful, honest, credible...</i>	<i>dishonest, deceitful...</i>
propriety	<i>good, moral, ethical...</i>	<i>bad, immoral, evil...</i>

Table 3-7 Types of judgement (adapted from Martin and Rose 2003: 62)

Judgement is expressed explicitly (inscribed) or implicitly (provoked and evoked). Explicit judgement is coded by means of lexical items such as *brave, hero, corrupt*. Implicit judgement carries judgemental value that can trigger judgemental responses conditioned by the reader's social, cultural and ideological position. It can be set off by some evaluative language (*although, nevertheless*) or by factual tokens – a description which leads to inference of good/bad, appropriate/inappropriate behaviour. Nevertheless, the distinction between implicit and explicit judgement is not always clear-cut (ibid.), and it is context dependent. Figure 3-9 shows how judgement can be activated.

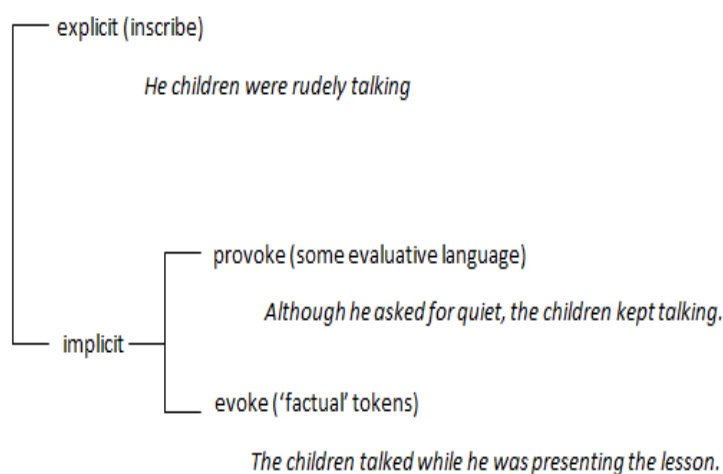


Figure 3-9 Modes of judgement (Martin and White)¹⁶

¹⁶ <http://www.grammatics.com/appraisal/appraisalguide/framed/frame.htm>

3.1.1.3. Appreciation

The third subarea of attitude is appreciation. Appreciation positively or negatively evaluates things and artefacts as well as natural phenomena and things we make.

“In general terms appreciations can be divided into our ‘reactions’ to things (do they catch our attention; do they please us?), their ‘composition’ (balance and complexity), and their ‘value’ (how innovative, authentic, timely, etc.). Reaction is related to affection, composition is related to perception, and valuation is related to cognition” (Martin and White, 2005: 56).

appreciation	positive	negative
reaction – catching attention	<i>arresting, notable..</i>	<i>dull, boring</i>
reaction - pleasing	<i>lovely, beautiful...</i>	<i>mild, weak, wimpy...</i>
composition - balance	<i>harmonious, unfitted...</i>	<i>incomplete, unbalanced</i>
composition - complexity	<i>simple, elegant...</i>	<i>puzzling, simplistic...</i>
valuation - worthwhile	<i>challenging, significant...</i>	<i>shallow, generic...</i>

Table 3-8 Types of appreciation (adapted from Martin and Rose, 2003: 63)

Appreciation along with judgement is oriented towards the appraised thing/behaviour, while affect is more focused on the subjective appraiser. Sometimes the border between judgement, affect and appreciation is really thin, but the differences still exist. See the following examples.

- (6) affect: I **wept** when I heard the song.
- (7) judgement: He is a very **weepy** person.
- (8) appreciation: It is a very **weepy** song

3.1.2. Graduation

Graduation is a sub-system of appraisal that helps to make the message of a text more or less intensive. Graduation is central to the appraisal system; it influences both engagement and attitude because all attitudinal meanings are gradable, and “engagement values scale for the degrees of the speaker/writer’s intensity, or the degree of their investment in the utterance” (Martin and White, 2005: 135-136). Figure 3-10 shows an overview of graduation.

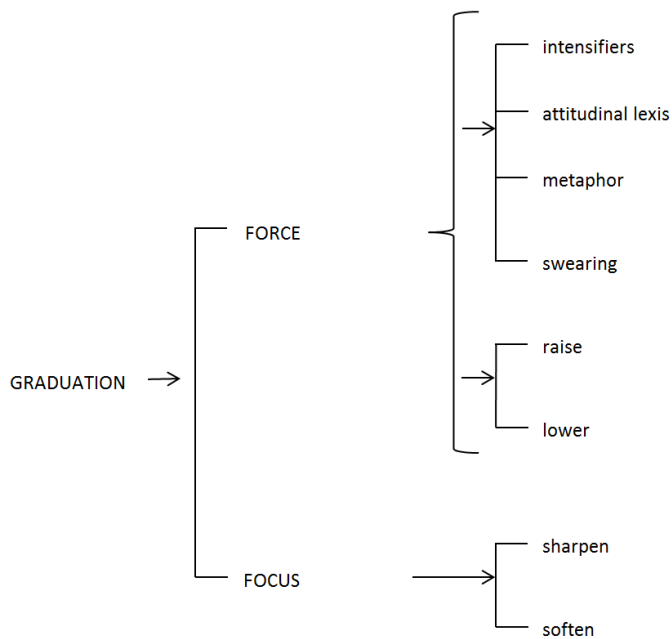


Figure 3-10 Options for graduation (Martin and Rose, 2003: 43)

Graduation can be described along two axes of scalability: **force** and **focus**. Force intensifies or quantifies the message. Focus either sharpens or blurs a message.¹⁷

3.1.2.1. Force

As shown in Figure 3-10, force is realized by the following means (Martin and White, 2005: 148):

- intensifiers** (up-scaling/down-scaling) applies to either qualities e.g. *slightly greedy, very greedy* or verbal processes such as *reduced it slightly, reduced it greatly*
- attitudinal lexis** *happy, delighted, ecstatic*
- metaphor** *crystal clear, came out like a jack in the box, prices sky-rocketed*
- swearing** *dammit*, interjections can be included in this category e.g. *ugh, phew*,

3.1.2.2. Focus

Focus (example 10), on the other hand, is concerned with class membership and prototypicality; it specifies how strong or weak the membership is. It either, in Martin and White's (2005) terms, sharpens the specification "so that prototypicality is indicated (e.g. *a real father, a true friend*)" or softens it "so as to characterise an instance as having only

¹⁷ www.alvinleong.info/sfg/sfgappraisal.html

marginal membership in the category (e.g. *they sort of play jazz, they are kind of crazy...*)” (ibid.: 138) . “Softening is elsewhere typically analysed under the headings of ‘hedging’ and ‘vague language’”,¹⁸ “...sharpening consists of intensifiers, boosters and amplifiers” (Martin and White, 2005: 138).

(9) force: He is a brat. - negative force

The team put up a good fight.- positive source

(10) focus: He is a true friend. - sharp membership

He is a friend kind of.- blurred membership

3.1.3. Engagement

The third main area of appraisal according to Martin and White is engagement (see Figure 3-11). They use the term engagement as “a cover-all term for resources of intersubjective positioning” (Martin and White, 2005: 95). The writer/speaker reveals his attitudinal positions and he negotiates alignment/misalignment with the reader/writer via engagement. Martin and White build their argument on Bakhtin/Volshinov who believe that all communication whether verbal or written is ‘dialogic’ (Martin and White, 2005: 92), i.e. that the speaker or writer refers to what has been said or anticipates responses. Utterances are divided into ‘monoglossic’ and ‘heteroglossic’. Monoglossic utterances do not refer to any other viewpoints or voices, while heteroglossic utterances allow dialogic alternatives. The examples below are borrowed from Martin and White (2005: 100)

(11) monoglossic: The banks have been greedy.

(12) heteroglossic: Everyone knows...; In my view...; There is the argument that...

Engagement - heterogloss is further divided into ‘expansive’ and ‘contractive’, where the former allows a dialogically alternative position and the latter restricts the scope of alternatives. In both cases reported speech and reported verbs are often used to make reference to external voices or viewpoints. A detailed division of engagement is shown in Figure 3-11.

¹⁸ <http://www.grammatics.com/appraisal/AppraisalOutline/Unframed/AppraisalOutline.htm>

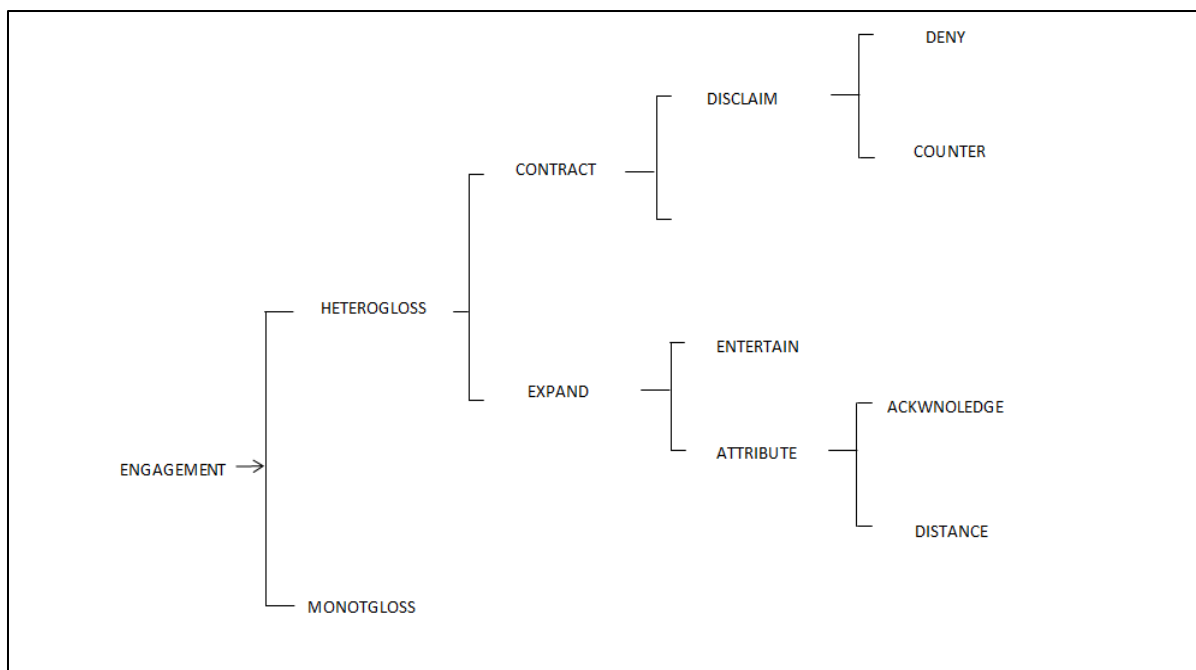


Figure 3-11 Engagement (adapted from Martin and White, 2005)

3.2. Parameter Based Framework

The parameter based framework (PBF) is described thoroughly in Bednarek’s book *Evaluation in Media Discourse* (2006). This framework is introduced as “an alternative to and a synthesis of existing approaches” to “the phenomenon of speaker opinion” (Bednarek, 2006: 3). The speaker’s attitude is analysed as related to a set of evaluative parameters, such as the parameter of EMOTIVITY, IMPORTANCE, EXPECTEDNESS, etc. Bednarek summarises that although research on written discourse (and namely media discourse) has been conducted abundantly, there is no representative sample that would indicate how evaluation is expressed in such discourse. Her statement is supported by Biber and Conrad (2009), who have compiled a list of studies that focus on written registers and genres, and they confirm that Bednarek is the pioneer in examining evaluation in the newspaper context (ibid.). Although Bednarek’s research on evaluation in media discourse builds on Martin and White’s Appraisal Theory, she is not satisfied with their taxonomy and classification of appraisal finding it too complicated and the taxonomy too extensive; therefore, she inclines more to Francis’s (1995) views on evaluation and uses her eight evaluative parameters. Francis claims that these parameters were established on the basis of large scale corpus data (Francis, 1995: 9,¹⁹ in

¹⁹ Francis, G. (1995) “Corpus-driven grammar and its relevance to the learning of English in a cross-cultural situation.” In *English in Education: Multicultural perspectives*, A. Pakir (ed). Singapore: Unipress.

Bednarek 2006: 37). Francis's findings were based on the Birmingham CoBuild *Bank of English* corpus. Francis (1993: 146) found out that "It isthat..." clauses often include gradable adjectives which fall into evaluative classes. As mentioned earlier in the chapter on evaluation, Thompson and Hunston (2000: 20) introduced four basic evaluative parameters; however, they claim that these four parameters could be unified into one, namely the good/bad parameter (ibid.). Lemke (1998) identified seven basic parameters based on his corpus of editorials. See the comparison of parameters describing forms of evaluation in Table 3-1.

It is evident from Table 3-1 that there is not unanimous agreement on the relevance of different aspects of evaluation, and consequently on the parameters to apply. According to Bednarek (2008a: 10), the parameters that have been used to describe evaluation so far "do not appear to capture all aspects of evaluation's complexity." She takes a step further in her research and, by using a combined approach (theory and text driven) (Bednarek, 2006: 37), she introduces many more parameters, which are based on the fact that speakers can evaluate the world in differently based relations to a wide range of norms, such as whether the information is good/bad, reliable/unreliable, expected/unexpected etc. (Bednarek 2006: 42). She suggests evaluative parameters, which she divides into core and peripheral parameters (Bednarek, 2008a: 14). Furthermore, she claims that all these parameters are used by speakers and writers to "evaluate aspects of the world" (Bednarek, 2008a: 11).

Table 3-9 shows Bednarek's division of evaluative parameters. When conducting the synthesis of the parameters, she takes into consideration similarities between the parameters, for example those that indicate different degrees of RELIABILITY; next, she points to differences, emphasizing that the parameters of IMPORTANCE, EXPECTEDNESS, COMPREHENSIBILITY, SERIOUSNESS, and EMOTIVITY are very often considered as one parameter and that the subtle differences are disregarded.

PARAMETER	SUB-VALUES: examples
Core evaluative parameters:	
COMPREHENSIBILITY	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> COMPREHENSIBLE: <i>plain, clear</i> INCOMPREHENSIBLE: <i>mysterious, unclear</i>
EMOTIVITY	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> POSITIVE: <i>a polished speech</i> NEGATIVE: <i>a rant</i>
EXPECTEDNESS	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> EXPECTED: <i>familiar, inevitably</i> UNEXPECTED: <i>astonishing, surprising</i> CONTRAST: <i>but, however</i> CONTRAST/COMPARISON: <i>not, no, hardly, only</i> (negation)
HUMOROUSNESS	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> HUMOROUS: <i>funny</i> SERIOUS: <i>serious</i>
IMPORTANCE	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> IMPORTANT: <i>key, top, landmark</i> UNIMPORTANT: <i>minor, slightly</i>
POSSIBILITY/NECESSITY	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> NECESSARY: <i>had to</i> NOT NECESSARY: <i>need not</i> POSSIBLE: <i>could</i> NOT POSSIBLE: <i>could not</i>
RELIABILITY	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> GENUINE: <i>real</i> FAKE: <i>choreographed</i> HIGH: <i>will, be to</i> MEDIUM: <i>likely</i> LOW: <i>may</i>
Peripheral evaluative parameters:	
EVIDENTIALITY	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> HEARSAY: [he said it was] <i>"a lie"</i> MINDSAY: <i>"well done"</i> [he thought] PERCEPTION: <i>seem, visibly, betray</i> GENERAL KNOWLEDGE: <i>(in)famously</i> EVIDENCE: <i>proof that</i> UNSPECIFIC: <i>it emerged that, meaning that</i>
MENTAL STATE	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> BELIEF/DISBELIEF: <i>accept, doubt</i> EMOTION: <i>scared, angry</i> EXPECTATION: <i>expectations</i> KNOWLEDGE: <i>know, recognise</i> STATE-OF-MIND: <i>alert, tired, confused</i> PROCESS: <i>forget, ponder</i> VOLITION/NON-VOLITION: <i>deliberately, forced to</i>
STYLE	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> SELF: <i>frankly, briefly</i> OTHER: <i>promise, threaten</i>

Table 3-9 Parameters of evaluation (Bednarek, 2008a: 12)

3.2.1. Core parameters

“Core evaluative parameters relate to evaluative qualities ascribed to the entities, situations or propositions that are evaluated, and involve evaluative scales with two poles, but also potential intermediate stages between them Bednarek (2006: 44).”

As seen from Table 3-9, there are seven core parameters, which will be described below.

COMPREHENSIBILITY establishes how writers evaluate entities and situations. It is related to the concept of vagueness and explicitness, and also includes concepts of mental clarity, mystery and inexplicability.

(13) Do you think this is *simple* [COMPREHENSIBILITY: COMPREHENSIBLE]? (Bednarek, 2008a: 15)

(14) Manchester United in takeover *mystery* [COMPREHENSIBILITY: INCOMPREHENSIBLE]. (Bednarek, 2008a: 15)

EMOTIVITY is concerned with a writer’s evaluation of aspects of events as good or bad. Evaluation of EMOTIVITY can be expressed by a wide range of linguistic means. These vary enormously in the intensity they express. The underlying question is “how positive or how negative this appears?” (Bednarek and Caple, 2012: 144).

(15) But some visibly flinched as he *stooped* [EMOTIVITY: NEGATIVE] to *gutter* [EMOTIVITY: NEGATIVE] politics with *vicious* [EMOTIVITY: NEGATIVE] personal *attacks* [EMOTIVITY: NEGATIVE] on political opponents. (Bednarek, 2006: 45)

Bednarek emphasizes that EMOTIVITY is the most problematic of all parameters, as it is not easy to judge or recognize objectively. She explains that “emotive meaning is a very complex phenomenon involving different clines” (Bednarek, 2006: 46). She dwells on the fact that some lexical items are by nature “disaster vocabulary”, but when one uses them, it does not mean that one wishes to employ emotivity; on the contrary, one’s only aim may be to report on a tragic situation where, for instance, a bomb exploded and killed several people; by using these words, one’s approval or disapproval is not shown. Having expressed this opinion, she points out that when a certain degree of intensity is applied, then these expressions become evaluative. For example *bomb*, *kill*, or *damage* are not evaluative lexical items, but *murder*, *assassin* or *mayhem*²⁰ are (ibid.), but the problem lies in the distinction when a lexical item is evaluative or not. Other aspects of emotivity can be its explicitness and implicitness, see

²⁰ Some of these lexical items were already mentioned in section 2.1.

section 3.1.1. Bednarek (2008b: 11-12) divides emotivity into two groups - *emotional talk* and *emotion talk*. *Emotion talk* is encapsulated by “linguistic expressions that denote emotions”; *emotional talk* includes all “linguistic expressions that conveniently signal the writer’s emotions”. These are for example mood, intensifiers, intonation, repetition, interpersonal metaphor, etc.

EXPECTEDNESS involves the writer’s evaluations of the world, i.e. whether various aspects of the world are seen as usual, familiar, un/expected or strange. Contrast and comparison are also included, though it could be argued that these parameters should be regarded as peripheral. The underlying question is “how expected or unexpected this appears” (Bednarek and Caple, 2012: 147). This parameter can be expressed by conjunctions, adverbs, or negations (e.g. *not, only, but, while, although*).

(16) The killer blow began when General John de Chastelain, head of the international decommissioning body, delivered an unexpectedly [EXPECTEDNESS: UNEXPECTED] brief and vague report on IRS’s latest disarmament. (Bednarek, 2006: 49)

(17) English football has had better weeks. Even by the increasingly outrageous standards of the national side, this week has become a circus. Little wonders that [EXPECTEDNESS: EXPECTED] Eriksson’s yearning to return to club management seems to grow with each passing day. (Bednarek, 2006: 49)

IMPORTANCE evaluates the world according to the terms of importance, relevance and significance. The question underlying this parameter is “how important or unimportant does this appear?” (Bednarek and Caple, 2012: 140). The parameter is broad; it includes notions of stardom/famousness, influence/authority, significance and importance. In Martin and White’s terms lexical items utilized to express this parameter fall into judgement and appreciation, as well as graduation.

(18) He provides no detailed explanation of which reports are incorrect and which *insignificant* [IMPORTANCE: UNIMPORTANT]. (Bednarek, 2008a: 17)

POSSIBILITY/NECESSITY is concerned with modality, the writer evaluates whether things are un/necessary or im/possible.

(19) She *did not need to* [POSSIBILITY/NECESSITY: NOT NECESSARY] to tell us... (Bednarek, 2008a: 17)

Bednarek feels that when objective modality is applied, it is not as evaluative as dynamic modality. Objective modality is expressed in reports of permission or obligations, when they

do not express a writer's evaluation. In their *News Discourse* Bednarek and Caple (2012: 143) divide this parameter into two independent parameters; therefore, we can see again that the authors themselves revise their attitude to this issue and are not sure whether their division is sufficient. This parameter is further subdivided into IM/POSSIBILITY or IN/ABILITY and UN/NECESSITY.

RELIABILITY is connected with epistemic modality; it includes instances of expressing likelihood, certainty and confidence. The underlying question is "how likely or how unlikely does it appear?" (Bednarek and Caple, 2012: 146). **RELIABILITY** is further divided into five values FAKE/ GENUINE, LOW/ HIGH, and MEDIAN. GENUINE/ FAKE reports on evaluation of reported events, whether they are real or unreal. HIGH/ LOW and MEDIAN report to likelihood of propositions. This parameter is often exploited by journalists when they express hypotheses, when they speculate or predict future developments of stories.

(20) He *is likely to* [RELIABILITY: MEDIAN] receive high quality medical care in his jail's hospital wing. (Bednarek, 2008a: 18)

(21) He *is almost certain to* [RELIABILITY: HIGH] be replaced in Istanbul. (Bednarek, 2008a: 18)

HUMOROUSNESS/ SERIOUSNESS is a new parameter that Bednarek (2008a) includes in the list of parameters; she did not mention it in her previous study. I believe it was included based on Lemke's (1998) evaluative semantic dimensions. This parameter is concerned with issues regarding how funny or how serious evaluative items are.

(22) It is just hilarious [SERIOUSNESS: HUMOROUS]. (Bednarek, 2008a: 16)

While humorousness can be accepted as a parameter; seriousness - in my opinion - can be subsumed under the IMPORTANCE parameter. On the other hand, the fact that the parameters overlap proves Bednarek, Martin and White, and Francis's statements claiming that all the borders are fuzzy and difficult to set precisely. Lemke (1998) points out examples where his dimensions overlap, saying that "a single lexical item may also realize the conflation of two or more evaluations." More details about conflations are mentioned in section 2.2.1., or for further details see Bednarek (2008a).

3.2.2. Peripheral evaluative parameters

Bednarek (2006: 49) describes them as

“...parameters that do not involve evaluative scales as such, and do not indicate the same kind of qualitative evaluation of entities, situations or propositions as do core evaluative parameters. However, they tend to occur in evaluative texts and can be related to evaluation in a variety of ways”

EVIDENTIALITY is a parameter that is mentioned in many studies. It deals with a writer’s evaluation of the evidence for their knowledge. The question which applied here is “How do we know?” (Bednarek and Caple, 20102: 146). Bednarek, (2006: 49) divides this parameter into six subclasses. **HEARSAY**, **MINDSAY**, **PERCEPTION**, **GENERAL KNOWLEDGE**, **PROOF**, and **UNSPECIFIED**. According to her, these subclasses operate as the basis of information expressed. They encompass the following information.

HEARSAY - the utterance is evaluated by the sayer, who is not the writer. It is expressed by direct speech.

(23) He *said* they were wrong. (Bednarek, 2008a: 18)

MIDSAY – the utterance is evaluated while it is being said/thought/felt/sensed. Again it is not evaluation done by the writer. It is direct mental experience.

(24) He *thought* they were wrong. (Bednarek, 2008a: 18)

PERCEPTION – this subclass incorporated three kinds of perception, mental perception (*seem, appear, look*), sensory perception (*see, visibly, audibly*), and showing (*show, betray, reveal*).

(25) There are *signs* they were wrong. (Bednarek, 2008a: 18)

GENERAL KNOWLEDGE – the information evaluated is part of common knowledge of the audience.

(26) It is *well-known* they were wrong. (Bednarek, 2008a: 18)

PROOF – relates to an evaluation that is based on hard proof.

(27) *Evidently*, they were wrong. (Bednarek, 2008a: 18)

UNSPECIFIED is according to Bednarek (2006: 49) very problematic because it covers several evaluators that can express evidentiality, but do not fall under one functional label.

(28) *It emerged that they were wrong.* (Bednarek, 2008a: 18)

Table 3-10 below shows Bednarek and Caple’s new definition of the EVIDENTIALITY parameter.

Basis	Examples
Speech	He said that they were wrong
Thought or feeling	He thought that they were wrong
Expectation	He expected them to be wrong
Emotion	He hoped they were wrong
Perception	There are signs that they were wrong
Proof	Evidently, they were wrong
General knowledge	It is well-known that they were wrong
Unspecified basis	It emerged that they were wrong

Table 3-10 Bases of information (Bednarek and Caple, 2012: 149)

MENTAL STATE - the underlying question is “how do people feel about this?” (Bednarek and Caple, 2012: 152). Mental state is often analysed when researching evaluation, it is associated with different kinds of mental states such as belief, emotion, expectations and knowledge.

(29) Ferdinand on the day he *forgot* [MENTAL STATE: PROCESS] drug test. (Bednarek, 2008a: 20)

(30) IDS GETS TOUGH. Nobody *scared* [MENTAL STATE: EMOTION]. (Bednarek, 2008a: 18)

STYLE includes evaluation of how things are presented. There is a difference in whether the writer evaluates his own discourse (STYLE: SELF) or third parties’ (STYLE: OTHER). The evaluation of STYLE concerns reporting expressions. These are classified according to sub values:

NEUTRAL	SAY, TELL
ILLOCUTIONARY	DEMAND, PROMISE
DECLARATIVE	PLEAD, GUILTY
DISCOURSE	ADD, CONCLUDE
SIGNALLING	
PARALINGUISTIC	WHISPER, SCREAM

As we can see from the above stated taxonomy of Parameter Based Framework, it is very extensive (compared to other approaches to evaluation), and there are “no hard-and-fast distinctions between the proposed parameters...” (Bednarek, 2008a: 21); this approach is considered “open ended” (Bednarek, 2006: 44). After a closer look, it can be seen that there are some distinctions between Parameter Based Framework and Appraisal Theory. Appraisal Theory appears to deal more with whether the evaluative items are concerned with phenomena, people or affect. Parameter Based Framework does not focus on such issues; the most important aspect of Parameter Based Framework is what linguistic means are used to express meaning dimensions.

3.3. Grammar Patterns, Local Grammar and Evaluation

This chapter focuses on the concept of pattern grammar and local grammar in relation to evaluation. The notion of grammar patterns was introduced in Francis (1993) where she describes a new corpus-driven approach to grammar²¹ that was adopted by a team of linguists led by John Sinclair. They started compiling and creating entries for the Collins COBUILD English dictionary using large corpora, namely the corpus of the Bank of English, which at that time consisted of 200 million words representing spoken and written English.²² Francis (ibid.: 137-138) contrasts the new approach with the traditional descriptive grammars by stating that “the evidence of the ways in which language is really used is available in plenty,” pointing to the fact that well-established descriptive grammars, whose representatives are for example Quirk et al.,²³ tended to invent example sentences due to the lack of access to big corpora.²⁴ Francis (ibid.: 138) claims that the Cobuilders’ approach (i.e. Sinclair et al.’s team) allows a non-contrastive grammar analysis, “which shows how each item or structure is used in its own right, rather than as compared with members of the same or a contrasting paradigm.” She further adds that the data driven approach does not rely on intuition, as “the corpus is the major informant, [which] provides the raw information we need in order to describe the language” (ibid.: 139). The next difference with respect to traditional descriptive grammars is that the CoBuild approach to grammar is built on lexico-grammatical grounds;

²¹ Francis later uses the term data driven grammar of English.

²² Nowadays the corpus consists of 4.5 billion words and Francis (1993) consulted a corpus of 120 million words.

²³ Quirk et al. (1985) *Comprehensive Grammar of English language*. London, New York: Longman.

²⁴ “Quirk et al., incidentally had access to small corpora, including the survey of English Usage, but these were apparently not used extensively, and the examples given are in some cases idealised from the corpus and in others clearly invented” (Francis, 1993: 138).

therefore, lexis is an essential issue. Most traditional grammars treat lexis and grammar separately. “Lexis and grammar have traditionally been seen as separate entities, with grammar being most important, because [it is] the most easily generalizable, constituent”²⁵ (Hunston and Francis, 2000: 252). According to Francis (1993: 139), “most grammars are interested in lexis only insofar as it is useful, indeed indispensable, for the illustration of syntactic structures”. Yet, lexis plays an important role in defining language and the categories of lexis and grammar must be unified. According to Hunston and Francis (2000: 251), “lexis is the most detailed level of grammatical description” and if one starts taking lexis as a starting point, they can end up with “a very different kind of grammar” (ibid.). Francis (1993: 140-141) explains this connection using the grammatical structure *V it ADJ*, which is lexically restricted. She uses the introductory or non-referring pronoun *it* as the object of a verb, followed by an adjective or noun group. Quirk et al. refer to the construction as ‘extraposition of a clausal object’. They state that “When the object is an *ing*-clause in SVOC and SVOA clause types, it can undergo extraposition; when it is a *to* infinitive clause or a *that* clause it must do so” (Quirk et al, 1985: 1393).

(31) You must find *it* exciting *working here*.

Cf: You must find *working here* exciting.
Working here is exciting.

(32) I made *it* my objective *to settle the matter*.

Cf: *I made *to settle the matter* my prime objective.
To settle the matter was my prime objective.
 Contrast: I made *settling the matter* my prime objective.
 *I made *it* my prime objective *to settle the matter*.

(Quirk et al.1985: 1393)

According to Francis (1993: 140), Quirk et al. “treat the structure entirely in terms of syntactic operations, interesting only insofar as it is, or is not, a transformation of some other ‘original’ clause.” They do not take key lexis into account and try to describe what “can or cannot be said in English.” Francis’s (ibid.) concordance lines, see Figure 3-12, suggest that the *V it ADJ* structure makes use of a restricted set of verbs.

²⁵ Following this ideology, Grimes (1998: 93, in Hunston and Francis 2000: 252) draws attention to Saussure, who states: “Grammar is the grinder, the ‘real’ structure, words merely the bricks which form the façade.” (Grimes, J., E.(1975) *The thread of discourse*. The Hague: Mouton.)

policies because they often find it difficult to explain why a r
 ass unemployment, many will find it harder than usual to relax i
 ist, who, unlike Genscher, finds it easy to make friends among B
 orers in this country, has found it almost impossible to get a g
 counted by Lord Graham who found it necessary to the point of hi
 put Gwynned first. But he found it hard, too, being wed to John
 want to pressure him, and I made it clear that I was not angry.
 cent. Dealers said the move made it clear that the Spanish autho
 ut his party's policies, he made it plain that Labour planned to
 his strategy would at least make it possible to conceptualise mo
 ess ahead of the match have made it inevitable that French rugby
 inflationary pressures and makes it less and less likely that th
 gainst a rape conviction, making it likely that he will remain i
 area of refurbishment, by making it almost impossible for them t

Figure 3-12 A random concordance of the construction V it ADJ (Francis, 1993: 140)

The most frequent verbs are *find* and *make*, and there are only few instances of *think* and *consider*. Focusing only on adjectives, Francis (ibid.) discovers that the verb *find* primarily collocates with the adjectives *difficult*, *hard*, and *easy* while *make* occurs most frequently with the adjective *clear*. She did not find any occurrences of the collocation *find* + *clear/likely*. She explains

“these lexical patterns are closely connected with the communicative function of the structure, which is to present a situation in terms of how it is evaluated, putting the evaluation straight after the verb. The ways in which we typically evaluate situations, using this particular structure, are stereotyped. Such facts about lexico-syntactic interdependence and its related communicative functions become obvious only when one interrogates a corpus larger than those to which Quirk et al had access” (Francis, 1993: 141).

Therefore, contrary to Quirk et al., she points out that the syntactic structure is not to be overrated since the functional meaning in association with vocabulary plays an important role in the description of a structure (Hunston and Francis, 2000: 253). Grammar patterns are further discussed, for example, in Hunston and Sinclair (2000), Bednarek (2007b, 2009), Groom (2005), and Hunston (2011).

3.3.1. Grammar Patterns

The fundamental question of this section is what a pattern is and how it can be analysed in lexicogrammar terms. Following Hunston and Francis

“[a] pattern is phraseology frequently associated with (a sense of) a word, particularly in terms of the prepositions, groups, and clauses that follow a word. Patterns and lexis are mutually dependent, in that each pattern occurs with a restricted set of lexical items, and each lexical item occurs with a restricted set of patterns...patterns are closely associated with meaning, firstly because in many cases different senses of words are distinguished by their typical occurrence in different patterns; and secondly because words which share a given pattern tend also to share an aspect of meaning” (Hunston and Francis, 2000: 3).

“[T]he patterns of a word can be defined as all the words and structures which are regularly associated with the word and which contribute to its meaning. A pattern can be identified if a combination of words occurs relatively frequently, if it is dependent on a particular word choice, and if there is a clear meaning associated with it” (*ibid.*: 37).

Yet, not all lexical expressions are a part of a pattern; some are excluded because they regularly occur “with almost any word of the same class” (Hunston and Francis, 2000: 49), i.e. the basic pattern, “‘basic’ might be defined as ‘that which defines the word class’” (Hunston, 2011: 128). For example, the construction *it* v-link ADJ e.g. *It is important* is not considered a pattern, since nearly all central adjectives can appear in a predicative role.²⁶ On the other hand, if the adjective is followed by a *to*-infinitive clause, e.g. *It is important to clean teeth twice a day*, then the *to*-infinitive clause is considered a part of the pattern and would be transcribed accordingly *it* v-link ADJ *to*-infinitive. However, the adverbial expression *twice a day* is not considered a part of the pattern as optional adverbials of time, place, and manner are not included in patterns. This study will exclude them as well.

The most interesting part of a pattern is the complementation for it is complementation that plays an important role in signalling a particular meaning of a given word. Hunston and Francis (2000: 41) use the adjective *afraid* to explain this.

(33) I am afraid that I wasn't ready. I am afraid to say that...

(34) I am afraid of him

²⁶ Yet, Hunston and Sinclair (2000: 95) describe this pattern and Bednarek (2007b) also uses it in her study.

Example (34), with the complementation by a prepositional phrase, expresses the state of being frightened, while (33) with the *that* /*to*-infinitive clauses expresses apologies.

It has been demonstrated, e.g. by Sinclair (1991: 65), Hunston and Francis (2000: 37, 256), Groom (2005: 259), Bednarek (2007b, 2009) that there are links between meaning and patterns. Groom states that there are two basic observations concerning the connection between patterns and meaning.

“The first is that the different meanings of polysemous words are signalled by different patterns; and the second is that words which share aspects of the same meaning share the same pattern” (Groom, 2005: 259).

3.3.2. Patterns of Evaluation, Local Grammar

With the increasing interest in patterns, the question arose as to whether there is a “relationship between recurring patterns and evaluative meaning... and whether these patterns can assist in identifying and characterising evaluative language... and whether these patterns can assist in identifying and characterising evaluative language” (Hunston, 2011: 120). The word class most prone to evaluation are adjectives; especially the gradable ones, particularly when modified by grading adverbs.²⁷ Hunston and Sinclair (2000: 94) also add that “evaluation is an extrinsic quality, being a matter of judgement”. Since adjectives restricted to the attributive position typically indicate intrinsic non-evaluative qualities, evaluation is associated with those adjectives, which can be used in predicative position or in either attributive or predicative position. Generally, “adjectives with complementation patterns indicate either subjective judgement or what someone feels” (Francis et al. 1998,²⁸ in Hunston and Sinclair, 2000: 96), e.g. the *for*-prepositional phrase complement in example (35) conveys restriction on evaluation, while in example (36) it presents the thing evaluated.

(35) The pitch is perfect for cricket.

(36) The people are impatient for change. (Hunston and Thompson, 2000: 97)

Yet, not all adjectives construe evaluative meaning; among the non-evaluative adjectives are mainly classifiers (*an annual meeting, a nuclear war, a musical instrument*). All in all, adjectives that carry evaluative meaning can be divided into those which indicate emotion,

²⁷ However, not all modified gradable adjectives are evaluation laden, e.g. *fairly tall* (Hunston and Sinclair, 2000: 91).

²⁸ Francis, G. (1998) *Collins COBUILD Grammar Patterns 1: Verbs*. London: HarperCollins.

human qualities, and qualities of things (Hunston, 2011: 129-130); these categories are similar to Martin and White's affect, judgement, and appreciation (see section Attitude).

3.3.3. Local Grammar of Evaluation

The attempts to find reliable patterns diagnosing evaluation contributed to the revelation that

“evaluation does not have its own grammar,...it appears parasitic on other resources, and ...it is randomly dispersed across a range of structural options shared with non-evaluative functions” (Hunston and Sinclair, 2000: 74).

These findings helped to establish a local grammar of evaluation; according to Hunston and Sinclair, local grammars

“do not need to squeeze the description into ill-adopted general categories but use a categorization and terminology that is developed specifically for each area. The loss in generalizability is compensated by the gains in qualities such as accuracy, transparency, and cumulative coverage” (*ibid.*: 74).

“A local grammar attempts to describe the resources for only one set of meanings in a language rather than for the language as a whole” (Hunston, 2002: 90). Local grammar draws on the links between pattern and meaning. “Because meanings are mapped on to patterns in predictable ways, elements of meaning can be identified via the elements of patterns that realise them” (*ibid.*: 154).

In other words, Hunston and Sinclair (2000: 75), point out the fact that traditional grammatical structures, which are created by “a generalizable system of structural analysis”, ‘leave out’ several aspects of language and that local grammar patterns can map these aspects more easily.²⁹ Due to the fact that Hunston and Sinclair consider evaluation as a central function of language, they focused on establishing a set of patterns which could detect evaluation in text. They contrast two ways of how grammar can be parsed in a text. While general grammar parsing focuses on the subject, verb, and complement patterns (Table 3-11), local grammar patterns focus on more specific functions of a language, such as ‘discriminator’, ‘hinge’, ‘superordinate’, see Table 3-12.

²⁹ There can be many different kinds of local grammars, for example local grammar of dictionary entries, local grammar of prepositions, titles, amounts of money etc. All these are ‘leftovers’ which conventional grammar does not cover (Hunston and Sinclair, 2000: 76).

Subject	Verb	Complement
An abstract of an article or speech	is	a short piece of writing that summarises the main points.

Table 3-11 Parsing with general grammar (Hunston, 2002: 155, adapted from Barnbrook and Sinclair, 1995: 31-32)

Left-hand side: thing defined	Link-word	Right-hand side: the definition		
<i>headword</i>	<i>hinge</i>	<i>discriminator</i>	<i>superordinate</i>	<i>discriminator</i>
An abstract of an article or speech	is a	short	piece of writing	of that summaries the main points of it.

Table 3-12 Parsing with a local grammar (Hunston 2002: 155, adapted from Barnbrook and Sinclair, 1995: 31-32)

Hunston and Sinclair (2000: 84-90) advanced in their research of local grammar of evaluative language and introduced six basic patterns that are associated with evaluative meaning.³⁰ Hunston and Sinclair's patterns include adjectives as these lexical items are well established for carrying an evaluative load. It is to be noted though that evaluation is associated not only with adjectives, but also with nouns, verbs, and adverbs.

The six basic non-gradable adjectival patterns along with the graded adjectival patterns introduced by Hunston and Sinclair (2000: 84-95) will be described in the next sections. Apart from a basic description of each pattern, a comparison with Bednarek's (2007b)³¹ and (2009)³² patterns will be conducted in order to show further modifications to Hunston and Sinclair's basic patterns. A more detailed analysis of these patterns will be presented in section Pattern Analysis, (with a detailed comparison of the three sets of patterns in Table 3-40 at the end of the chapter). Hunston and Sinclair's (2000) and Bednarek's (2007b) patterns serve as the starting point of the analysis presented in this thesis. However, before the patterns are described, it is important to mention the basic roles³³ associated with evaluation,

³⁰ Previously, Francis (1993, 140-148) already discussed the evaluative function of introductory *it* as Object (*v + it + ing/that/to*-infinitive clause); see the beginning of this chapter, further the appositive '*that*' clause quantifiers, and *it* to the grammar of *possible*. In addition, Hunston and Francis (2000) introduced other local grammar patterns, but in the case of adjectives, they focused only on the adjective *difficult* and presented all the patterns this lexical item appears in.

³¹ Bednarek (2007b) draws on Hunston and Sinclair's patterns in order to find out what attitudinal roles adjectives play in newspaper discourse (whether they fulfil the role of evaluative category or evaluating response – in terms of this thesis, opinion or emotion).

³² Bednarek (2009) revises her earlier approach and modifies her patterns when analysing the possibility of how to find diagnostic patterns to parse attitudinal adjectives, especially those that portray judgement and appreciation, in Martin and White terminology.

³³ Hunston and Francis (2000: 124) use the term 'role' in a broad sense to refer to a process, participant or circumstance; "the mapping of role on to pattern depends on the verb as well as the pattern" (ibid.: 125).

which will help clarify the descriptions further in the text. According to Hunston and Francis (2000: 133-135) “there are two basic roles associated with evaluation. These are ‘evaluative category’ and ‘evaluated entity’” (Table 3-13).

Evaluated Entity		Evaluative Category
	v-link	ADJ
<i>Some of it</i>	<i>is</i>	<i>really quite difficult</i>
<i>Economic conditions</i>	<i>became</i>	<i>increasingly difficult</i>

Table 3-13 An evaluative pattern which makes use of only two roles - 'evaluative entity' and evaluative 'category' (Hunston and Francis, 2000: 132)

The patterns may also involve other roles in addition to the two basic ones, viz. ‘evaluation carrier’, ‘evaluation limiter’ or ‘affected entity’ (see Table 3-14, 3-15, 3-16, 3-17).

	Evaluative Category	Evaluation Carrier		Evaluated Entity
<i>the</i>	ADJ	general noun	v-link	to-inf
<i>The</i>	<i>most difficult</i>	<i>thing</i>	<i>is</i>	<i>to score a goal ...</i>

Table 3-14 A pattern with an additional role of 'evaluation carrier' (Hunston and Francis, 2000: 134)

Evaluated entity		Evaluative category	Evaluation carrier
	v-link	ADJ	general noun/pronoun
<i>The question of piece</i>	<i>was</i>	<i>a difficult</i>	<i>one</i>

Table 3-15 A pattern with an additional role of 'evaluation carrier' (Hunston and Francis, 2000: 134)

Evaluated Entity		Evaluative Category	Evaluation Limiter
	v-link	ADJ	to-inf
<i>The materials</i>	<i>are</i>	<i>difficult</i>	<i>to find.</i>

Table 3-16 A pattern with an additional role of 'evaluation limiter' (ibid.)

Evaluated Entity		Evaluative Category		Affected Entity
	v-link	ADJ	for	
<i>Life</i>	<i>is</i>	<i>difficult</i>	<i>for</i>	<i>males with a family in tow.</i>

Table 3-17 A pattern with an additional role of 'affected entity' (ibid.: 135)

Hunston and Sinclair (2000: 84) changed some of these categories to the following:³⁴

Hunston and Francis (2000)	Hunston and Sinclair (2000)
<i>Evaluated entity</i>	<i>Thing evaluated</i>
<i>Evaluative category</i>	<i>Evaluative category</i>
<i>Evaluation limiter</i>	<i>Restriction on evaluation</i>
<i>Evaluation carrier</i>	<i>Evaluation carrier</i>
<i>Affected entity</i>	<i>Evaluating response</i>
	<i>Evaluator</i>
	<i>Evaluating context</i>
	<i>Hinge</i>

Table 3-18 Comparison of terminology

³⁴ There are plenty of examples in the following section; therefore there is no need to show the examples here.

Table 3-18 shows how terminology changed, namely *evaluated entity* into *thing evaluated*, *evaluation limiter* into *restriction on evaluation*; *evaluative category* is used by Hunston and Francis, and Hunston and Sinclair in the same way, however, *evaluation carrier* in Hunston and Francis’s perception is represented by a general noun or pronoun (*thing, one*), see Table 3-14 and Table 3-15, while in Hunston and Sinclair’s view (2000: 87), *evaluation carrier* is represented by a noun group, see Table 3-23. *Affected entity* is not used by Hunston and Sinclair (2000). Further, Hunston and Sinclair (2000) add categories such as *evaluating response*, *evaluator* (see Table 3-18), *evaluating context* (see Table 3-28), and *hinge* (see e.g. Tables 3-21, 3-22, 3-19)

The category labels used by Hunston and Sinclair (2000) to describe the roles in the evaluative patterns are further explained in Bednarek (2007b).

Category labels	Explanation
<i>Evaluator</i>	the person responsible for the evaluation
<i>Thing evaluated</i>	what is evaluated
<i>Evaluative category</i>	the type of evaluation that is expressed (opinion in terms of this analysis)
<i>Evaluating response</i>	a personal response to the evaluated thing (emotion in terms of this analysis)
<i>Evaluation carriers</i>	a noun group that is not directly evaluated but does carry some evaluation
<i>Restriction on evaluation</i>	what the evaluation relates to
<i>Hinge</i>	providing connections between parts of patterns

Table 3-19 Category labels and explanation (Bednarek, 2007b)

3.3.4. Basic Patterns of Evaluation

Drawing on the assumption that “each word occurs in a limited set of patterns, and words which share a pattern also share meaning” (Hunston and Sinclair, 2000: 83-84), Hunston and Sinclair focus on adjectival patterns which typically occur with evaluative words. They claim that “from those patterns and the adjectives that are used with them, it should be possible to distinguish between evaluative and non-evaluative adjectives” (ibid.: 84).

3.3.4.1. Non-graded adjectival patterns

Pattern 1: *IT* + LINK VERB + ADJECTIVE GROUP + CLAUSE

According to Hunston and Sinclair (2000), this pattern is a collection of several patterns; it starts with anticipatory *it* followed by a link verb, an adjective group and a clause. The range of the clauses is wide; the pattern can comprise a finite clause or a non-finite clause, such as a *that*- clause, *wh*-clause, *to*-infinitive clause, or *ing*-clause. Drawing on Francis et al. (1996,

1998),³⁵ Hunston and Sinclair express the patterns as follows: *it v-link ADJ that, it v-link ADJ wh, it v-link ADJ to-inf* and *it v-link ADJ ing* (a slightly different transcription will be used later in the text drawing on Hunston and Sinclair (2000) and Bednarek (2009)). This pattern is claimed to identify evaluative adjectives reliably, as “all adjectives that occur in the pattern carry evaluation” (Hunston and Sinclair, 2000: 84).

		Evaluative category	Thing evaluated
it	link verb	adjective group	finite or non-finite clause
it	was	certain	that he was much to blame.
it	was	surprising	how many on that course had disabled children.
it	seemed	important	to trust her judgement.
it	was	wonderful	talking to you the other day.

Table 3-20 First pattern examples (Hunston and Sinclair, 2000: 85)

Comparing³⁶ Hunston and Sinclair’s patterns (2000) to Bednarek’s (2007b and 2009), the only major difference between the systems consists in Bednarek’s (2009) patterns being much more detailed. While Hunston and Sinclair (2000) describe Pattern 1 as a collection of patterns with finite and non-finite clause complements, Bednarek (2009) adds four further, more detailed sub-patterns to the description (their occurrence in the corpus will be discussed in sections pattern 1a, and pattern 1b). Further, Bednarek (2009: 169) claims that this pattern, apart from detecting judgement and appreciation (opinion), can also detect covert affect (emotion, see section 3.1.1.1.2 on covert affect).

Pattern 2: *THERE* + LINK VERB + *SOMETHING/ANYTHING/NOTHING* + ADJECTIVE GROUP + *ABOUT/IN* + NOUN GROUP/ - ING CLAUSE

This pattern includes the ‘dummy subject’ *there* which is followed by a link verb, followed by *something, anything, nothing*, followed by an adjective group, preposition *about/in*, and a noun group or an *-ing* clause. This pattern is known mainly for fulfilling the function of subjective judgement and appreciation (opinion) stating whether something is good or bad. According to Hunston and Sinclair (2000: 85), when nationality adjectives are modified and used in these patterns, they carry the sense of “being typical of a national group”, e.g. *There is something very American about the national Archives collection...* Hunston and Sinclair (ibid.) further note that there are several adjectives typical of this pattern, such as *American*,

³⁵ Francis, G. et al (1996) *Collins COBUILD Grammar Patterns 1: Verbs 1*. London: HarperCollins.
Francis, G. et al (1998) *Collins COBUILD Grammar Patterns 2: Nouns and Adjectives*. London: HarperCollins.

³⁶ Table 3-40 enables a comparison of Hunston and Sinclair (2000), Bednarek (2007b) and Bednarek’s (2009) patterns.

appealing, attractive, beautiful, British, curious, depressing, English, exciting, extraordinary etc. But then there are plenty of adjectives that occur just once or twice in a large corpus (see 6.1.6 for more details on this pattern's occurrence in this paper's corpus). Table 3-21, showing examples of the pattern, uses the term 'hinge' introduced by Hunston and Sinclair (2000: 86). Hinge provides connection between parts of patterns.

	Hinge	Evaluative category	Hinge	Thing evaluated	
there	link verb	something/ anything/ nothing	about/ in	noun group or-ing	
There	's	something	rather appealing	about	being able to spend the evening in the town.
There	was	nothing	sacrosanct	about	this unit of analysis.
There	seemed	something	ironic	in	seeing Dalai Lama.
There	wasn't	anything	romantic	about	trying to do a love scene.

Table 3-21 Second pattern examples (Hunston and Sinclair, 2000: 86)

Bednarek includes this pattern in her sets as well. Bednarek (2009: 170) adds that this pattern, apart from opinion, can also express covert affect (emotion), e.g. *But there is something infallibly depressing about Blackpool.*

Pattern 3: LINK VERB + ADJECTIVE GROUP + TO-INFINITIVE CLAUSE.

Hunston and Sinclair (2000: 87) point out the syntactic relationship between the subject of the main clause and the verb in the *to*-infinitive clause. With some adjectives the subject of the main clause is also the subject of the *to*-infinitive clause e.g. *John is eager to please*, yet with other adjectives the subject of the main clause is the object of the *to*-infinitive clause e.g. *John is easy to please*. The noun group at the beginning of this pattern is usually the thing evaluated, the adjective stands for the evaluative category, and the *to*-infinitive clause indicates a restriction on the evaluation, see Table 3-22. This pattern is associated with the expression of opinion.

Thing evaluated noun group	Hinge link verb	Evaluative category adjective group	Restriction on evaluation to-infinitive clause
Horses	are	pretty	to look at.
The car	was	terrible	to park.
People	are	slow	to learn.
This book	is	interesting	to read.

Table 3-22 Third pattern examples - opinion (i) (Hunston and Sinclair, 2000: 87)

In a variation of this pattern, the adjectives usually indicate that someone's behaviour is inappropriate, foolish, or right, and in these cases, the *to*-infinitive clause is the thing

evaluated and the noun group of the pattern is the *evaluation carrier* as shown in Table 3-23 (ibid.: 87).

Evaluation carrier noun group	Hinge link verb	Evaluative category adjective group	Thing evaluated to-infinitive clause
They	are	right	to say that.
I	wasn't	stupid	to go there.
They	would be	sensible	to say yes.

Table 3-23 Third pattern examples - opinion (ii) (Hunston and Sinclair, 2000: 87)

However, this pattern does not only express opinion (evaluative category) but is also used to indicate personal reaction, in other words emotion (evaluating response), rather than quality, see Table 3-24. Here the evaluation is attributed to an explicit *evaluator* presented as the initial noun group in the pattern.

Evaluator noun group	Hinge link verb	Evaluating response adjective group	Thing evaluated to-infinitive clause
Benjamin	had been	rather overawed	to meet one of the Billington family.
He	is	most anxious	to avoid appearing weak.

Table 3-24 Third pattern examples - emotion (Hunston and Sinclair, 2000: 87)

Bednarek (2009) renames Hunston and Sinclair's patterns 3 and 4 as patterns 3a and 3b, see Table 3-40. Otherwise, there is no modification of the patterns. I will use Bednarek's labels in the analysis.

Pattern 4: LINK VERB +ADJECTIVE GROUP + THAT-CLAUSE

This pattern includes an adjective group followed by a *that*-clause; most adjectives used in this pattern indicate personal reaction to a certain situation (emotion), but it may also express opinion. According to Hunston and Sinclair (2000: 88), there are too many types of adjectives that can appear in this pattern, so that it might be too difficult to parse without any mistakes on a big corpus (see section 6.1.8 for types of adjectives in this pattern identified in this paper's corpus). As mentioned earlier, Bednarek includes this pattern in both of her studies; though in 2009 she calls it pattern 3b, see Table 3-40.

Evaluator noun group	Hinge link verb	Evaluating response adjective group	Thing evaluated that clause
He	was	very angry	that she had spoken to people about their private affairs.
Doctors	were	optimistic	that he would make a full recovery.

Table 3-25 Fourth pattern examples - emotion (Hunston and Sinclair, 2000: 89)

Evaluation carrier noun group	Hinge link verb	Evaluative category adjective group	Thing evaluated that clause
They	were	lucky	that we scored when we did.
You	are	right	that he did not go to the apartment when he said he did.

Table 3-26 Fourth pattern examples - opinion (adapted from Hunston and Sinclair, 2000: 89)

Pattern 5: PSEUDO – CLEFTS

This pattern begins with *what*, a link verb, and an adjective group, which is followed by the verb *be* and a noun group or a finite or non-finite clause. The adjective group may be followed by a prepositional phrase, often starting with *about*. This pattern mainly expresses opinion.

Hinge what +link verb	Evaluative category adjective group	Hinge link verb	Thing evaluated clause or noun group
What's	interesting	is	the tone of the statement.

Table 3-27 Fifth pattern example (i) - (adapted from Hunston and Sinclair, 2000: 90)

However, this *hinge - evaluative category – hinge – thing evaluated* pattern (as seen in Table 3-27) is not the only way that evaluative cleft sentences can be construed. If a prepositional phrase, as in *What's very good about this play is that it broadens people's view*, is a part of the sentence, then the prepositional phrase is, according to Hunston and Sinclair (2000: 90), considered 'evaluative context' since what is evaluated as *very good* is the fact that the play *broadens people's views* rather than the play itself (Table 3-28).

Hinge what verb	+link	Evaluative category adjective group	Evaluating context prepositional phrase	Hinge link verb	Thing evaluated clause or noun group
What's		very good	about his play	is	that it broadens people's view

Table 3-28 Fifth pattern example (ii) - (adapted from Hunston and Sinclair, 2000: 90)

Additionally, the cleft sentence does not need to only contain the adjective, but it can include a subject-verb sequence, as in *What I find so amazing is that my Dad is a very strict Hindu*. Then the subject noun group (i.e. the personal pronoun *I*) is parsed as the 'evaluator'.

Hinge what	Evaluator noun group	verb group	Evaluative category adjective group	Hinge link verb	Thing evaluated clause or noun group
What	I	find	so amazing	is	that it broadens people's view

Table 3-29 Fifth pattern example (iii) - (Hunston and Sinclair, 2000: 89)

Notably, Bednarek (2007b, 2009) does not include this pattern in her set of patterns. Yet, this thesis will.

Pattern 6: PATTERNS WITH GENERAL NOUNS

Pattern 6 uses general nouns such as *point* or *thing*, which are premodified by adjectives and followed by a link verb and another noun group or finite/non-finite clause. The pattern is included in Bednarek 2007b but not in her 2009 study. This pattern expresses opinion.

Evaluative category ³⁷	Evaluative context	Hinge	Thing evaluated
adjective + general noun	about + noun group	link verb	clause or noun group
The surprising thing	about chess	is	that computers can play it so well.

Table 3-30 Sixth pattern example (i) - (Hunston and Sinclair, 2000: 90)

Evaluative category	Hinge	Thing evaluated
adjective + general noun	Link verb	clause or noun group
The important point	is	to involve them as much as possible in the decision

Table 3-31 Sixth pattern example (ii) - (Hunston and Sinclair, 2000: 90)

3.3.4.2. Graded adjective patterns

Apart from the basic six non-graded patterns, Hunston and Sinclair (2000: 92-94) suggest patterns with graded adjectives (or adjectives which are used with grading adverbs) as they consider them evaluative: “gradedness indicates comparison, and comparison with a norm or a scale is often a matter of subjectivity. Subjectivity is one of the contributors to evaluative meaning” (ibid.: 92). Hunston and Sinclair’s graded adjectival patterns serve as a starting point for Bednarek (2007b), who builds on them and introduces more detailed variants. Hunston and Sinclair propose six graded adjective patterns, Bednarek (2007b)³⁸ divides them into three main groups ‘with *too* or *enough*’, ‘superlatives’, and comparatives’. The examples presented below are taken from Hunston and Sinclair (2000: 93-94); Bednarek’s (2007b) modifications are added when appropriate. Further analysis and details are presented in section 6.2.

³⁷ As pointed out by Hunston and Sinclair (2000: 91), the ‘evaluative category’ is actually the adjective *surprising* rather than the whole group *the surprising thing*.

³⁸ It must be mentioned that Bednarek (2007b) discovered a new graded adjectival pattern, which occurred only once in her corpus, yet she uses examples from the BNC. The pattern can be parsed as:

Thing evaluated 1	Hinge	Hinge	Evaluative category	Hinge	Thing evaluated 2
noun group	link verb	something as	possessive	as	superlative adjective group
It	(would) be	at	huge	as	this

New graded adjectival pattern (Bednarek, 2007b: 11)

Pattern (i) - with *too* or *enough*

The examples in Table 3-32 express opinion/evaluative category, but Bednarek (2007b: 17) also identifies variations with emotion/evaluating response, see Table 3-33.

Thing evaluated noun group	Hinge link verb	Evaluative category adjective group with ‘too’ or ‘enough’	Restriction on evaluation to-infinitive or prepositional phrase with ‘for’
He	looks	too young	to be a grandfather.
Their relationship	was	strong enough	for anything

Table 3-32 Graded adjectival pattern expressing opinion (Hunston and Sinclair, 2000: 93)

Thing evaluated noun group	Hinge link verb	Evaluating response adjective group with ‘too’	Restriction on response to-infinitive
One	was	too scared	to give his name.

Table 3-33 Graded adjectival pattern expressing emotion (Bednarek 2007b: 17)

Pattern (ii) - superlatives

The core pattern with superlatives is the one presented in Table 3-34. Table 3-35 shows an alternative without restriction, which can also be identified in Bednarek (2007b: 18).

Thing evaluated noun group	Hinge link verb	Evaluative category superlative adjective group	Restriction on evaluation preposition phrase
The race	was	one of the greatest	in modern times

Table 3-34 Graded adjective pattern (ii a) (Hunston and Sinclair, 2000: 93)

Thing evaluated noun group	Hinge link verb	Evaluative category at possessive superlative adjective group		Evaluative category superlative adjective group
It	is	at	its	most beautiful
This particular phase	is			most dangerous (Bednarek 2007b)

Table 3-35 Graded adjectival pattern (ii b) (Hunston and Sinclair, 2000: 93, Bednarek 2007b: 18)

Pattern (iii) - comparatives

Bednarek (2007b: 19) in compliance with Hunston and Sinclair (2000: 94), introduces a comparative pattern with a negative hinge (Table 3-36), which can appear with or without restriction on evaluation.

Hinge	Evaluative category	Hinge	Thing evaluated	Restriction on evaluation
negative	comparative	than	noun group	to-infinitive clause
There's nothing	better	than	normal light	to bring out the colour of painting
They do not come	more stubborn	than	the small landholders of Smithfield.	
The material could not have been	more damning and disturbing.			(Bednarek, 2007b)

Table 3-36 Graded adjectival pattern (iii a) (Hunston and Sinclair, 2000: 94, Bednarek, 2007b: 19)

The next pattern can be again found both in Hunston and Sinclair (2000: 94), and Bednarek (2007b).

Thing evaluated 1	Hinge	Evaluative category	Hinge	Thing evaluated 2
noun group	link verb	comparative adjective group	as or than	noun group/PP/AdvG
It	's	about as interesting	as	the Chelsea Flower Show.
The memories which	are is	more important cheaper	than than	the music anything he can get through his own company (Bednarek, 2007b:18)

Table 3-37 Graded adjectival pattern (iii b) (Hunston and Sinclair, 2000: 94, Bednarek, 2007b: 18)

A long with a version starting with evaluative category, followed by thing evaluated 1, hinge, thing evaluated 2.

	Evaluative category	Thing evaluated 1	Hinge	Thing evaluated 2
It	link verb	comparative adjective	to infinitive clause	than non-finite clause
It	is	better	to try to find a way through	rather than walk away

Table 3-38 Graded adjectival pattern (iii c) (Bednarek 2007b: 18)

The last Hunston and Sinclair's graded adjectival pattern was not found on Bednarek's list, but presumably as a superlative form of an adjective is used, it could fall into the 'superlatives' category.

Thing evaluated 1	Hinge	Thing evaluated 2	Hinge	Evaluative category
noun group	link verb	noun group	of the	superlative adjective general noun
Most of this work	was	middle-class propaganda	of the	crudest kind

Table 3-39 Graded adjectival pattern (iii d) (Hunston and Sinclair, 2000: 94)

Huston and Sinclair (2000) could be considered pioneers in uncovering the field of patterns and evaluation, their six basic patterns have served as a starting point for linguists in their

further research such as Bednarek (2007b, 2009), Groom (2005). As shown herein, their patterns are really basic and can be further modified into more detailed variations, which allow a more thorough analysis depending on the aim of the research or researched area of discourse.

It has been decided, for the purposes of this thesis, to follow Bednarek's 2009 patterns (along with her terminology), as they seem very detailed. Hopefully, these patterns will allow a comprehensive analysis of this thesis's large corpus. However, I do not regard Bednarek's list complete since she omitted Hunston and Sinclair's pattern 5 (Pseudo clefts) and Pattern 6 (Patterns with general nouns) (cf. Table 3-40). These two patterns will be added to my list and will be referred to as Pattern 5 and Pattern 6 in the analysis. Regarding the patterns with graded adjectives, which will also be comprised in the analysis, I have no doubts that Bednarek's division into the three main categories 'with *too* or *enough*', 'comparatives', and 'superlatives' is efficient enough; therefore, I will refer to them as pattern (i), pattern (ii), and pattern (iii). The findings will be carefully analysed in order to find out whether more emotion (evaluating response) or opinion (evaluative category) is present in the newspaper discourse of this thesis. And whether the graded adjectival patterns actually reflect Bednarek's 2009 patterns. The following two tables display the analysed patterns.

Pattern	Hunston and Sinclair (2000)	Bednarek (2007b)	Bednarek (2009)
1.	<i>it</i> + link verb + adjective group + clause	<i>it</i> + link verb + adjective group + finite/non-finite clause	a, <i>it</i> + link verb + adjective group + finite/non-finite clause b, <i>it</i> + link verb + adjective group + <i>off/for</i> + n + non-finite clause c, v + <i>it</i> + adj + <i>that</i> (<i>find, consider</i>) d, <i>it</i> + v + n + adj + <i>that</i> e, v + <i>it</i> + as + adj/v + <i>it</i> + adj
2.	there + link verb + <i>something/anything/nothing</i> + adjective group + <i>about/in</i> + noun group/ing clause	<i>there</i> + link verb + <i>something/anything/nothing</i> + adjective group + <i>about/in</i> + noun group/-ing clause	there + link verb + adjective group <i>something/anything/nothing</i> + <i>about/in</i> + n group/ing cl
3.	link verb + adjective group + <i>to</i> infinitive clause	link verb + adjective group + <i>to</i> infinitive clause	a, link verb + adj group + <i>to</i> -inf clause b, link verb + adj group + <i>that</i> clause
4.	link verb + adjective group + <i>that</i> clause	link verb + adjective group + <i>that</i> clause	noun group + link verb + adjective group + prepositional phrase (prep complementation patterns)

5.	pseudo clefts	<u>Patterns with general nouns</u> noun group + link verb + noun group - <i>thing</i> noun group- <i>thing</i> + PP+ n + link verb + noun group noun group + <i>do the decent thing</i> + link verb + finite/non-finite clause	
6.	<u>Patterns with general nouns</u> adjective + general noun + <i>about</i> + noun group+ link verb + clause/noun group adjective + general noun + link verb + clause/ noun group	<u>Adjectives with complementation</u> noun group + link verb + adjective group + PP	
7.	<u>Predicative adjectives</u> ³⁹ noun group + link verb + adjective group	<u>Graded adjectives (see Table 3-41)</u>	
8.	<u>Graded with graded adjectives (see Table 3-41)</u>	<u>Predicative adjective patterns</u> noun group/clause + link verb + adjective group noun group + link verb + adjective group + PP - <i>to</i>	

Table 3-40 Comparison of non-graded evaluative adjectival diagnostic patterns

Pattern	Hunston and Sinclair (2000)	Bednarek (2007b)
Pattern (i)	<u>Patterns with graded adjectives</u> <u>Pattern (i) with too/enough</u> noun group + link verb + adjective group with ' <i>too</i> ' or ' <i>enough</i> ' + <i>to</i> -infinitive/ <i>for</i>	<u>Graded adjectives</u> Pattern (i) with <i>too/enough</i> noun group + link verb + adjective group with <i>too</i> or <i>enough</i> + <i>to</i> -infinitive or PP - <i>for</i> noun group + link verb + adjective group - <i>too</i> + <i>to</i> -infinitive noun group + link verb + adjective group - <i>too /enough</i>

³⁹ Hunston and Sinclair (2000: 92-94) do not label patterns with predicative adjectives as in pattern 7, yet they discuss them; therefore, this pattern was included in the Table 3-40.

<p>Pattern (ii)</p>	<p>Pattern (ii) Superlative adjective groups</p> <p>noun group + link verb + superlative adjective group + prepositional phrase</p> <p>noun group + link verb + <i>at</i> + possessive superlative adjective group</p> <p>noun group + link verb + noun group + <i>of the</i> + superlative adjective group + general noun</p>	<p>Pattern (ii) Superlative adjective groups</p> <p>noun group + link verb + superlative adjective group + PP</p> <p>noun group + link verb + superlative adjective group</p>
<p>Pattern (iii)</p>	<p>Pattern (iii) Comparative adjective groups</p> <p>negative + comparative adjective group + <i>than</i> + noun group + <i>to</i>-infinitive</p> <p>noun group + link verb + comparative adjective group + <i>as/ than</i> + noun group</p>	<p>Pattern (iii) Comparative adjective groups</p> <p>noun group + link verb + comparative adjective group + <i>as/ than</i> + NG/PP/AdvG</p> <p>it + link verb + comparative adjective group + <i>to</i>-inf + <i>than</i> + non-finite clause</p> <p>noun group + link verb + comparative adjective group</p> <p>negative + comparative adjective group + <i>than</i> + noun group + <i>to</i>-infinitive</p> <p>negative + comparative adjective group</p> <p>noun group + link verb + <i>something as</i> + adjective group + <i>as</i> + noun group/<i>ing</i> clause</p>

Table 3-41 Comparison of graded adjectival diagnostic patterns

3.4. Newspaper and news discourse

According to Bednarek and Caple (2012: 2-5) newspaper discourse can be looked at from various angles, it can be considered multisemiotic due to the fact that newspaper news nowadays combine image, language, and design. There are various kinds of newspaper discourse as newspapers are often divided into different sections such as news, sport, business, money, lifestyle, etc. due to this fact, newspaper discourse has been explored widely via numerous approaches such as the sociolinguistic approach, the conversation analytical approach, the systemic functional linguistic approach, the pragmatic approach, the practice-focused approach, the corpus linguistic approach, the diachronic approach, and the critical approach (*ibid.*: 7-10), but “none of these approaches is interested in evaluation as such” (Bednarek, 2006: 12).

When newspaper discourse analysed, communicative and socio-economic context has to be considered (Bednarek and Caple, 2012: 20).

The communicative context comprises the relation between the producers of the news and the audience. The process of creating news is long and complex. Firstly, input material is gathered; secondly, the whole team (editors, journalists, photographers) puts a story together, and thirdly the news⁴⁰ is released.⁴¹ Then the audience ‘consumes’ the news, especially the target audience. Yet, there are other kinds of audience – the auditor, who is not the target audience; but is expected to ‘consume’ the news; the overhearer, who is not expected to be in the target audience, and the eavesdropper, who is expected to be absent from the audience (Bell, 1991: 92). “For example, a newspaper like *The Times* does not expect unskilled or semi-skilled professionals as readers – such readers are expected not to read *The Times* (eavesdroppers) or they are unexpected overhearers” (Bednarek and Caple, 2012: 25). However, the presented roles are not clear-cut. Generally, news discourse is created for different kinds of target audience, based on their education, political views, qualification, age, gender, etc. Principally, it can be said that mass communication is considered one-directional, impersonal,⁴² full of stereotyping, and embedding.

The socio-economic context concerns social and economic circumstances in which the communication takes place. Finances have always played a key role in the news production, the majority of financial means comes from advertising, therefore the news organizations have their “specific types of audiences that they target in order to attract advertisers” (Bednarek and Caple, 2012: 33). Based on the target audience, newspapers in Great Britain, which this thesis focuses on, are divided into the tabloids (*the Daily Mail, the Daily Express, the Daily Mirror, the Star, the Sun*) and the broadsheets (*the Guardian, the Independent, the Daily Telegraph, the Times, the Financial Times*). Bednarek (2006: 13) states that the tabloids are about four times more popular among the readership than the broadsheets. More than a half of the population reads a national tabloid newspaper, while only an eighth reads a

⁴⁰ ... “much news is second-hand text” (Bednarek and Caple, 2012: 24).

⁴¹ The staff responsible for producing the language is the principal (a news executive/proprietor/ manager), who is the originator of the expressed stance/position, the author (a journalist/ reporter/ photographer), who produces the original draft, the editor (an editor/photo editor/producer), who modifies parts, and the animator (a technician/correspondent), who verbalizes the utterance (ibid.: 22-24).

⁴² Due to the Internet the one-directional and impersonal phenomena have changed as the readers can read news and can comment on it. By doing so they actually interact with other readers. In other words, it can be said that online communication has brought a revolution to newspaper discourse (Bednarek and Caple, 2012: 25).

broadsheet newspaper. Overall, the broadsheets readers have achieved better education than the ones of the tabloids. The broadsheets newspapers tend to cover politics, economics and sports, while the tabloids focus on human interests. Yet, with the increase of ‘tabloidization’, the format and content of the broadsheets newspapers have changed. For example, some of the broadsheet newspapers moved to tabloid size and reduced or dropped ‘heavy news’ between the years 2003-2005; in addition, the broadsheet newspapers adopted ‘hard-hitting presentations of stories’ (Bingham and Conboy, 2015: 228).

3.4.1. News values

According to Fowler (1991: 12-13), news is not just “found or gathered.” News is created through a journalistic process which decides whether the information is newsworthy. The criteria determining creditworthiness are called news values (ibid.) and they include general values of a society. Galtung and Ruge (1965, ⁴³ in Fowler 1991) introduced twelve perceptive typology factors which condition the newsworthiness. The original factors include *frequency*, *threshold*, *unambiguity*, *meaningfulness*, *consonance*, *unexpectedness*, *continuity*, *composition*, *reference to elite nation*, *reference to elite people*, *reference to persons*, *reference to something negative*. The factors do not act independently; they are ‘inter-related’ (McGregor, 2002: 2).

The original twelve factors are described below; additional information about how the factors are construed in news discourse is added.

Frequency - a current event is more likely to be published than a long-term process. Bednarek (2006: 16) also includes the factor *recency*, as she says “the more recent, the more newsworthy an event is.” *Frequency* is created in news discourse, for example, via references to time, verb tense and aspect (Bednarek and Caple, 2012: 63).⁴⁴

Threshold – concerns the size, value, or intensity. An accident involving ten vehicles will get more attention than one involving two (Fowler, 1991: 14). “The more violent the murder, the bigger the headline” (McGregor, 2002: 1).⁴⁵ When this factor is construed in news discourse, intensification/quantification is used along with comparison, references to strong emotions, metaphor, simile, and repetition (Bednarek and Caple, 2012: 76).

⁴³ Galtung, J. and M.H. Ruge (1965). ‘The structure of foreign news: The presentation of the Congo, Cuba and Cyprus crises in four Norwegian newspapers’. *Journal of Peace Research*, volume 2, number 1. 64–90.

⁴⁴ Bednarek and Caple (2012: 63) refer to this factor as *Timeliness*.

⁴⁵ Bednarek and Caple (2012: 76) refer to this factor as *Superlativeness*.

Unambiguity – the more clear-cut a news story is, the more it is covered (Bednarek, 2006: 17); Fowler (1991: 14) also adds that mysterious events can be classified as newsworthy.

Meaningfulness - events that show cultural proximity⁴⁶ are more likely to be reported than events concerning distance cultures. The British newspapers are more likely to report on items concerning Britain or France than items concerning Albania (ibid.). This factor is often construed in news discourse through reference to places, nation/community, first-person plural pronouns (Bednarek and Caple, 2012: 64).

Consonance - relates to the extent to which a story fits in with stereotypes (frames) about the events and people portrayed in it (Bednarek, 2006: 16). Evaluative language indicating expectedness, along with repeated word combinations, conventionalized metaphors, and comparisons very often construe this factor in news discourse (Bednarek and Caple, 2012: 67).

Unexpectedness - an event that happens without warning is more newsworthy than an expected one (Fowler, 1991: 14). News discourse, when construing *unexpectedness*, uses evaluative language indicating unexpectedness, comparison, and references to surprise/expectations/shock (Bednarek and Caple, 2012: 74).⁴⁷

Continuity - when an item is considered news and appears in the press, then it will be repeatedly mentioned. *Continuity* can be observed with major events, such as the Chernobyl explosion, yet also events that concern people's daily lives can stay in the news for weeks (Fowler, 1991: 14). 'News breeds news' (Bednarek, 2006: 17).

Composition – concerns the composition of a newspaper. A newspaper may focus on people's lives, therefore all events concerning this issue will be considered newsworthy; yet if a newspaper comprises financial news, a car accident will not be included.

These eight above-mentioned factors can be considered socially constructed; the next four factors are culture-bound factors.

Reference to elite nation – encodes ideology of the dominating countries (Fowler, 1991: 17). References to elite nations and people are construed via evaluative language indicating importance, and role labels (Bednarek and Caple, 2012: 65).

⁴⁶ Bednarek (2006: 16), Bednarek and Caple (2012: 41) call this factor *Proximity*.

⁴⁷ Bednarek and Caple (2012: 41) call this factor *Novelty*.

Reference to elite people – reference to ‘elite’ people is considered very newsworthy. Newspapers have the ability to create feelings of identification, empathy or disapproval (Fowler, 1991: 15).⁴⁸

Reference to persons – in other words ‘personalisation’; personalised items are more attractive to the audience than generalised concepts (Bednarek, 2006: 17). It is important to remember that personalisation is a very creative aspect of ideology (Fowler, 1991: 16). Newspapers use references to emotion, quote ‘ordinary’ people, or refer to individuals when they construe this factor in news discourse (Bednarek and Caple, 2012: 78).

Reference to something negative – can be considered as a basic news value. Negative news is more attractive to the readers. It might be caused by psychological reasons as a reader ‘consumes’ the forbidden, taboo, ‘off-limits’ items, which s/he is not allowed to commit, and this ‘consumption’ can bring him/her some vicarious satisfaction (Bednarek, 2006: 16). The factor is construed via negative evaluative language, references to negative emotions, and negative vocabulary (Bednarek and Caple, 2012: 69).

McGregor (2002: 2) challenges this old typology and argues that the existence of real times news requires new news values and further suggests *visuality, emotion, conflict, and the celebrification of the journalist*.

Visualness – is probably, nowadays, the most dominant news value; one could say that this value plays an important role in the television media, but as newspapers are increasingly design-driven, and especially the online newspapers, this value is becoming more and more important in the news discourse due to the fact that newspapers also try to attract young readers and they prefer their newspapers “to look like magazines” (McGregor, 2002: 3). Knox (2010: 38) mentions ‘intersemiotic repetition’- the use of language and image.

Emotion - is connected with *Visualness*, the more emotion loaded the event, the more likely it is to be selected as news. Events that are emotion loaded are human interest dilemmas, tragedies, victims, survivors, children, and animals (ibid.: 4). These events evoke emotional responses in the readers and increase the consumption of emotion loaded news. Emotion can be described via emotional responses which can take many forms (Bednarek and Caple, 2012: 48, for more details see the section Affect).

⁴⁸ Bednarek and Caple (2012: 65) join the factors *reference to elite nations* and *elite people* to the factor called *Prominence*.

Conflict - the dynamics of news require a point-counter-point format such as the yes vote versus the no vote, the conservative attitude versus the liberal, etc. If there is not a conflict format, the event is not likely to be selected to become news (McGregor, 2002: 5).

Celebrification of the journalist - can be linked more to the television news discourse than to the written news as television journalists have become sources of news, opinions, and judgements over the years (ibid.: 6).

As mentioned earlier, all these factors of news values do not act independently, they are interlinked and the higher the cumulation of the factors, the more newsworthy the news is.

3.4.2. Lexical and syntactic features of news discourse

Once a newsworthy event is selected, the news is written, which involves the use of linguistic features that are typical of newspaper writing; Bednarek and Caple (2012: 85-87) drawing on their research mention specific uses of nouns and noun phrases, verbs, adverbials, figures and numbers, and intertextuality.

Nouns and noun phrases

Bednarek and Caple (ibid.) state that nouns and noun phrases are very common in newspaper writing as they are frequently used as premodifiers of other nouns (e.g. *earthquake cost*); further, nominalisation (e.g. *moves toward closer military cooperation*) attributive adjectives that pre-modify nouns (e.g. *wealthy supporters*), and prepositional phrases following nouns (e.g. *his surrender to British police*) are also typical. The key nouns that appear in UK news discourse are *Britain, pound, season, TV* (reflecting the different sections of the newspapers). Noun phrases very often indicate time (e.g. *the second time*), and place (e.g. *at the struggling resort*); in addition, they label news actors and sources (e.g. *no bidders*) and include intensification (e.g. *without a single submission*), evaluation (e.g. *the struggling resort*), and descriptive or background information (e.g. *the state's five approved slot sites*). Noun phrases “allow a minimum packaging of meaning in minimum space” (ibid.: 87). The use of personal pronouns is not very common in news discourse, yet it is more frequent than in academic writing.

Verbs

The frequency of present tense verbs and past tense verbs is about the same in the newspapers (Biber and Conrad, 2009: 116-117, 119). The use of modal verbs depends on the kind of article. For example, editorials tell people what they *should* do or what action is preferred

(with *can*), editorials further describe future events, therefore, modal verbs used for predictive function are employed such as *will*, or *may*. Moreover, editorials are known for discussing hypotheses, hence *would* is also common. News reports, on the other hand, narrate events, and no prediction, hypotheses, or suggestions are included, hence modal verbs are often absent (ibid.: 125). Passives represent about 15 per cent of all finite verbs (ibid.: 117).

Adverbials

Time and place adverbials are the most common adverbials used in news discourse while linking adverbials are rare (ibid.) as reports are written in a given sequence and the readers easily understand their meaning.

Figures and numbers

Figures and numbers⁴⁹ play an important role in news stories as they help to construe creditworthiness (Bednarek and Caple, 2012: 90). The way numbers and figures are presented in the news depends on the type of news stories but very often the numbers are rounded with lexical expressions, such as *up to*, *at least*, *more than* (ibid.)

Intertextuality

Intertextuality is an issue which is integrated into reports in various ways, mainly via several types of reported speech, such as a direct quote, which provides authenticity; a partial/mixed quote, which is used to distance oneself from what is quoted; indirect speech, which can create neutrality; free indirect speech, which is indicated via tense and pronouns shifts; a paraphrase of a speech act, or embedded reported speech⁵⁰ (ibid.: 92-93). Reporting expressions used in reported speech also play an important role. The expressions can be neutral (e.g. *tell*, *say*), illocutionary (e.g. *demand*, *promise*), declarative (e.g. *acquit*, *plead guilty*), discourse signalling (e.g. *add*, *conclude*), or paralinguistic (e.g. *whisper*, *scream*).

To summarise this chapter it can be said that:

“News discourse is constrained by various situational and cultural factors, but at the same time it actively contributes to the establishment of such factors, even where it just reinforces them – as in the consistent use of linguistic devices to construe what readers accept as ‘typical’ news discourse or in the consistent use of language and images to establish recurring

⁴⁹ Figures and numbers are lexical means which express graduation (see section Graduation).

⁵⁰ Reported speech within reported speech.

news values” (Bednarek and Caple, 2012: 108). This involves also evaluation in news discourse since “evaluation is one of the main ways in which newsworthiness is discursively construed in the news” (ibid.: 139).

4. Corpora and methodology

The thesis consists of two analyses. First, a pilot study – ‘the small corpus analysis’ – was carried out to ascertain the range and classes of evaluative linguistic means. The pilot study was followed by ‘the large corpus analysis’, which focussed on adjectival evaluative patterns. Each of the analyses required a different corpus and different methods. This chapter is devoted to describing the two corpora in terms of size and text selection. Further, this chapter outlines the methodological decisions that have been made in both analyses.

4.1. The small corpus and methodology

The small corpus comprises articles downloaded from British daily online tabloid and broadsheet newspapers. The newspapers chosen are *the Sun*, *the Express*, and *the Mirror* for the tabloids, and *the Independent*, *the Guardian*, and *the Telegraph* for the broadsheets. Two sub-corpora called ‘Qatada’ and ‘Baby’, each comprising six articles, were created by downloading one article on the same issue on the same day from each online newspaper chosen. This method should reduce topic-related differences between the individual newspapers to a minimum (cf. also Bednarek, 2006). The Qatada corpus represents news on Abu Qatada, a Muslim cleric, who was allegedly involved in terrorist action, and Britain could not extradite him back to Jordan, where he was wanted, due to human rights considerations. The articles were published on 13 November, 2012. Table 4-1 represents the headlines of the selected articles and their size in numbers of tokens.⁵¹

Broadsheets	Headlines	size (tokens)	Tabloids	Headlines	size (tokens)
Independent	Prime Minister ‘completely fed up’ as terror suspect Abu Qatada walks free from prison	777	Sun	Terror suspect Abu Qatada smirks as he arrives home	456
Telegraph	Abu Qatada to be monitored from space	418	Mirror	‘I’m living in fear’: Ex-spy who helped track Abu Qatada scared hate preacher’s followers want him dead.	783
Guardian	Theresa May faces long battle to overturn Abu Qatada deportation ruling	909	Express	SMIRKING ABU QATADA HAS MADE MUGS OF US ALL	768

Table 4-1 Headlines of the Qatada sub-corpus

⁵¹ The ‘token’ definition as used here excludes punctuation.

The Baby corpus was downloaded on the day the British future king, the son of Prince William and Kate Middleton, was born, 23 July, 2013. Table 4-2 presents the headlines of the selected articles.

Broadsheets	Headlines	size (tokens)	Tabloids	headlines	size (tokens)
Independent	Royal baby boy: 'We could not be happier', says the Duke of Cambridge after wife Kate gives birth	893	Sun	Kate gives birth to baby BOY	822
Telegraph	Duchess of Cambridge has given birth to baby boy	464	Mirror	Royal baby news: prince William and Kate Middleton "could not be happier" at birth of their son	602
Guardian	Duchess of Cambridge gives birth to baby boy, third in line to the throne	994	Express	The Royal Baby has arrived! The Duchess of Cambridge gives birth to a son and future king	1602

Table 4-2 Headlines of the Baby sub-corpus

In a simplified way, the Qatada sub-corpus can be seen as a corpus of 'bad news', while the Baby sub-corpus comprises 'good news'. Table 4-3 represents quantitative characteristics of the small corpus. Since the sub-corpora are not of the same size, normalised frequency (per 1,000 words) is used where the results from the tabloids and the broadsheets are compared. As the table below shows, there is a very small difference in the number of words between the tabloids and the broadsheets in the Qatada sub-corpus. The Baby sub-corpus shows almost a 700-word difference between the tabloids and broadsheets; therefore, normalised frequency is needed to obtain comparable results.

Sub-corpora	Tabloids (Σ words)⁵²	Broadsheets (Σ words)	Total (Σ words)
Qatada	2,007	2,104	4,111
Baby	3,026	2,351	5,377
Total	5,033	4,455	

Table 4-3 Quantitative characteristics of the small corpus (total number of words)

When conducting the small corpus analysis, the software *AntConc*⁵³ was used to help extract the data for the corpus supported research. The Keyword (KW) analysis was chosen as a starting point. "This method identifies items of unusual frequency in comparison with a

⁵² The words (tokens) were calculated by the software *AntConc*. The setting excluded punctuation from the token list.

⁵³ <http://www.laurenceanthony.net/software.html>

reference corpus of some suitable kind.” (Scott and Tribble, 2006: 55) In our study, the small tabloid corpus serves as a reference corpus for the broadsheet corpus, and vice versa. The criterion of homogeneity and comparability of the two small corpora was more relevant for the present study than the relative size of the study and the reference corpora. A keyword analysis⁵⁴ helps researchers identify key features in their corpora, which can then be compared with other findings. The output comprises three main classes of keywords: (1) **proper nouns**; (2) **lexical keywords** or **indicators of content**, often referred to as keywords of “**aboutness**”; and (3) **grammatical words** (ibid., cf. also Leško, 2013: 12). This classification of the key words can be problematic as some discourse markers are peripheral to syntax and it is difficult to include them in the above stated categories (Culpeper, 2009: 39). Lexical keywords can also cause problems because they can indicate the topic of the texts (in other words, aboutness), or else they may represent lexical items that appear in the corpus frequently. Culpeper (ibid.) suggests that the lexical key words that do not refer to the “aboutness” of the corpus should be included in grammatical key words. Leško (2013) sub-classifies lexical keywords into a) indicators of aboutness, and b) indicators of style. The b) class of lexical keywords thus complements the grammatical indicators of style.

The studies based on Keyword analysis focus on different aspects of language, including newspaper discourse and evaluative language, which this thesis deals with. For example, Bednarek (2008b) uses the British National Corpus and its sub-corpora (BRC – British Register Corpus) to identify key words in news discourse, and based on them she discusses emotion talk and emotional talk. Duguid (2010) works with key words in SiBol 1993 and SiBol 2005 corpora to analyse vagueness, hyperbole and informal evaluation in broadsheets.

Bednarek’s (2008c: 36-47) findings on most emotive lexical items in news discourse, which are relevant to the small corpus analysis, are shown in Table 4-4 below. These words are not only from tabloids but they represent broadsheets as well, as there is no representative corpus of tabloid newspapers.⁵⁵

⁵⁴ Keywords were identified using log likelihood statistics. Since the corpora are small, the critical value of log likelihood was set to 3.84, i.e. the keywords significant at the level of $p < 0.005$ were selected for further analysis.

⁵⁵ Bednarek (2006) and (2007b) uses a corpus of five broadsheet and five tabloid newspapers, whose total word count is 70,300 words, and tabloid newspapers represent 32,796 words. Bednarek (2008b: 19) created a ‘custom-made corpus’, which compiled various parts of the British National Corpus; she refers to it as the British Register Corpus (BRC). News reportage is represented by 2,613,399 words. Different categories of newspaper

Nouns	Adjectives	Verbs	Adverbs
fear	happy	love	happily
hope	prepared	enjoy	desperately
love	angry	worry	passionately
concern	worried	hate	cheerfully
surprise	concerned	care	furiously
shock	keen	admire	sadly
horror	proud	upset	miserably
feeling	sad	anger	gratefully
expectation	anxious	shock	blissfully
worry	surprised	surprise	

Table 4-4 Emotive key words in news discourse, adapted from Bednarek (2008b: 36-47)

Although the size and composition of the corpora used by Bednarek (2008b) are different from mine, her keyword-based approach can serve as an inspiration for the method adopted in the present thesis in the analysis of the small corpus. What is of particular relevance for the analysis of the small corpus is her finding that evaluative lexis was attested not only among adjectives but also among other word classes, namely verbs, nouns and adverbs, as shown in Table 4-4.

Firstly, the analysis of KWs in the small corpus was conducted on the Tabloid Qatada sub-corpus, with the corresponding broadsheet sub-corpus serving as the reference corpus. The identified KWs were further divided into proper nouns, lexical words, and grammatical words. Then, the KWs were closely examined using the concordance software AntConc. Thanks to that, collocational and grammar patterns were identified, which made it possible to find more implicit discourse features of evaluation. The evaluative adjectives, nouns, and verbs identified in the sub corpus were manually analysed for expressions of attitude, in this thesis divided into the categories of emotion and opinion. After that, conclusions for the Tabloid Qatada sub-corpus were drawn. The same process was applied to the Broadsheet Qatada sub-corpus with the corresponding tabloid sub corpus serving as the reference corpus. The Baby sub-corpus was analysed afterwards. However, the KWs analysis was not conducted, as it did not prove to be productive in identifying evaluation laden lexical expressions. Similarly to the Qatada sub-corpus, after the analysis of both the Tabloid and Broadsheet Baby sub-corpora, conclusions for the Baby sub-corpus were reached. Finally, all the findings were summarized and conclusions were drawn. Although the results confirmed the assumption that attitude was conveyed by various classes of lexical words, I decided to

sections are included, such as arts/cultural material, commerce/finance, home/foreign news, science, lifestyle/leisure/belief, etc.

focus on evaluation associated with adjectives in the analysis of the ‘large’ corpus. This choice was motivated mainly by the fact that evaluative patterns around adjectives seemed to emerge, which should make it possible to give a more general description of the local grammar of evaluation. In the case of nouns and verbs, the expression of attitude seems to be tied with the lexical meaning of the particular words to a much larger extent than in the case of adjectives.

4.2. The large corpus and methodology

The large corpus, which was used to conduct the comparison of evaluative adjective patterns, was newly designed. Table 4-5 shows, that the corpus consists of 741, mostly front page articles from six British online newspapers,⁵⁶ which are identical to the newspapers in the small corpus. The texts were collected between 18th September, 2011 and 8th October, 2012. There are 339 broadsheet newspaper articles and 402 from the tabloids. The reason why there is a higher number of the tabloid articles is because an iso-lexical approach⁵⁷ to the composition of the two sub-corpora was adopted to allow direct comparisons between the tabloids and the broadsheets. Since the tabloid articles tend to be shorter than the broadsheet ones, I had to collect more of them to reach a comparable number of word tokens. The total number of word tokens is 261,197 in the tabloids sub-corpus, and 273,014 in the broadsheets sub-corpus.

	Broadsheets	Tabloids	Total
Number of articles	339	402	741
Number of word tokens	273,014	261,197	534,211

Table 4-5 Quantitative description of the large corpus

The corpus and the tabloid sub-corpus in particular, is larger than other comparable corpora available on evaluative language.⁵⁸ The larger size of the corpus made it possible to give a more comprehensive description of the evaluative patterns, and point out their association with the expression of opinion or emotion. Furthermore, it allowed me to find alternations to Bednarek’s patterns, which will be mentioned in section 6.16.

⁵⁶ The list of analysed articles can be found in Appendix.

⁵⁷ An iso-lexical approach was introduced by David Oakey, who pointed out that when sub-corpora of different genres are to be compared, it has to be decided whether the comparison will be based on a similar number of texts (iso-textual approach) or a similar number of lexical items (iso-lexical approach). Both approaches have their advantages and disadvantages. The advantage of the iso-lexical approach is an easier calculation of quantitative results (Oakey, 2009). The iso-lexical approach could also be adopted in the compilation of the present corpus since the structure of the individual texts can be neglected.

⁵⁸ Compared to Bednarek (2007b, and 2006).

AntConc corpus analysis tools were used to detect the analysed patterns in the corpus. Since the patterns comprise both lexical items and word classes, the large corpus had to be morphologically tagged. The part-of-speech tagger *Q-Tag* was used.

The evaluative patterns described in Bednarek (2009) were chosen as the starting point for the formulation of the queries since the patterns given in Hunston and Sinclair (2000) proved too general for the task. The set of patterns listed in Bednarek (2009), however, was complemented by two additional Hunston and Sinclair's (2000) patterns: patterns with general nouns, and pseudo-cleft constructions. The range of patterns to be explored was further expanded to also include graded patterns, as listed in Bednarek (2007b) (for the list of patterns which were sought in the corpus see Table 3-40 and Table 3-41).

For each pattern, a specific query was written, which was used to search for potentially evaluative constructions with adjectives both in the tabloid and in the broadsheet corpus. Since the tagger does not distinguish copular verbs from other verb classes, specific copular verb lemmata were used in the queries. The copular verbs included *be*, *remain*, *prove*, *become*, *look*, *feel*, *seem*, *appear*, *turn*, *smell*, *taste*, *sound*, *prove*, and *turn out*. The representation of link verbs such as *prove*, *smell*, *taste*, and *turn out* in the given patterns in this corpus was minimal. The most frequent link verbs found in the corpus were *be*, *become* and *seem*.

The results of the queries were sorted manually in order to select those instances of each pattern which served evaluative functions. Similarly to Bednarek (2007b), all non-evaluative adjectives and some modal adjectives were excluded, for example *able to*, *bound to*, *allowed to*, *eligible to*, *liable to*, *due to*, *entitled to*, and *capable of* (ibid.: 6).

The manual selection yielded 1179 instances of evaluative patterns. The outcome for each pattern in the broadsheet and tabloid sub-corpora was further classified according to whether it expressed emotion or opinion. The type/token ratios were calculated and compared across sub-corpora where relevant. The tabloid and broadsheet sub-corpora were not only compared in terms of patterns, but also in terms of lexical items that are most frequently used in the sub-corpora and in the corpus as a whole. Correspondingly to the small corpus, when the results of the broadsheets and the tabloids were compared, normalised frequencies were used, in this case it was frequency per 10,000 words. The large corpus yielded 1179 instances of adjectives in evaluative patterns, which were represented by 277 types of adjectives.

The final transcription of the patterns used in the analysis is listed below.

Non-graded adjectival pattern

- 1a *it* v-link ADJ finite/non-finite clause
- 1b *it* v-link ADJ *for/of* n *to-inf*
- 1c V *it* ADJ finite/non-finite clause (*find/consider*)
- 1d *it* V *feel* V ADJ *to-inf*
- 1e V *it* as ADJ/ V *it* ADJ
- 2 *There* v-link *something/anything/nothing* ADJ *about/in* ing-clause/n
- 3a v-link ADJ *to-inf*
- 3b v-link ADJ *that*
- 4 v-link ADJ prep
- 5 Pseudo-cleft
- 6 Patterns with general nouns

Graded adjectival patterns

- (i) Adjective group with *too* or *enough*
- (ii) v-link ADJ-SUPERL
- (iii) v-link ADJ-COMPAR

Table 4-6 Transcription of the analysed patterns

Instead of the transcription of the patterns used by Hunston and Sinclair (2000) and Bednarek (2009) used in section Basic Patterns of Evaluation, section 3.3.4, I decided to rely on the transcription convention used by Hunston (2011), as it seems more efficient and transparent. Therefore, pattern 3a, for example, which was transcribed as ‘LINK VERB+ADJECTIVE GROUP+TO-INFINITIVE CLAUSE’ (Hunston and Sinclair, 2000: 98), was transcribed as ‘v-link ADJ *to-inf*’ in the analysis of the large corpus. The abbreviations in the transcription reflect general grammatical categories. A lexical item that is a part of a pattern transcription is used in italics e.g. *something/anything* in pattern 2. The abbreviations are described below.

v-link	stands for	copular verbs
ADJ	stands for	adjective group
<i>to-inf</i>	stands for	to infinitive
<i>that</i>	stands for	that clause
n	stands for	noun group
V	stands for	verbs
prep	stands for	prepositional phrase
SUPERL	stands for	the superlative form
COMPAR	stands for	the comparative form

The examples in the text are labelled with B as broadsheets, T as tabloids, an abbreviation of a given month, and day. As the collection started in September, 2011 and finished in October, 2012, some months are there twice, therefore, they are labelled e.g. Oct_11_04, i.e. that the information is from 4th October, 2011, Oct_12_04 means 4th October, 2012. Sometimes the same expression appears in both types of newspapers, on the same day, in which case the

abbreviation referencing the corpus starts with B/T, e.g. B/T_Apr_14 means in the broadsheets and the tabloids on 14th April.

5. Small corpus analysis

5.1. Tabloid Qatada sub-corpus

5.1.1. Key word analysis

Keywords (KWs) for the Tabloid Qatada sub-corpus were calculated on the basis of log-likelihood. The corresponding texts from the quality papers were used as the reference corpus. The KWs with the values of keyness higher than 3.84 are given in Table 5-1. The keyness of these words is significant at the level of $p < 0.05$ (5% level).

Rank	Frequency in the Tabloids	Keyness (log-likelihood)	Keyword
1	7	10.038	hate
2	6	8.604	banned
3	6	8.604	house
4	6	8.604	taxpayers
5	5	7.170	about
6	5	7.170	one
7	4	5.736	again
8	4	5.736	all
9	4	5.736	another
10	4	5.736	ex
11	4	5.736	me
12	4	5.736	stay
13	4	5.736	were
14	7	5.350	now
15	11	5.245	European
16	3	4.302	anger
17	3	4.302	benefits
18	3	4.302	fears
19	3	4.302	Hassaine
20	3	4.302	'm
21	3	4.302	my
22	3	4.302	surrounding
23	3	4.302	want
24	3	4.302	wear
25	3	4.302	when
26	6	4.202	children
27	8	4.144	yesterday

Table 5-1 Keywords in tabloid newspapers

Table 5-2 below shows the division of KWs in the Tabloid Qatada sub-corpus. This division proves Culpeper's observations (Culpeper 2009: 39) that most lexical KWs do not express "aboutness" of the text and that the category of grammatical words (the KWs in bold refer most to the topic of the texts) should be included in further analysis. Hassaine is the only

proper noun that appears among the first twenty-seven KWs; in the Tabloid Qatada sub-corpus, he is a key person in only one article, where the name appears three times.⁵⁹

proper nouns	lexical words	grammatical words
Hassaine	hate, banned, house, taxpayers, stay, European, anger, benefits, fears, surrounding, want, wear, ex	about, one, again, all, another, me, were, now, 'm, my, when

Table 5-2 Division of the tabloid key words

Further, Table 5-2 shows that KWs carrying evaluative meaning are few. The lexical words *hate*, *want*,⁶⁰ *anger*, and *fear* evoke some feelings - emotions, and based on Martin and White's taxonomy, they are considered as expressions that denote affect. The rest of the list, apart from *banned*, does not show that there would be any evaluation applied. The concordances of the individual KWs were, therefore, used for a more qualitative analysis.

Hate

Based on the Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary (OALD),⁶¹ the noun *hate*⁶² is described as an extremely strong dislike for somebody. Therefore, we can expect that the article was written to describe someone who is extremely negatively perceived in the society. All articles used this lexical item at the beginning of the article presumably to introduce the topic of the whole text. The Sun and the Express also use it at the end of the article. The Sun uses this item the most often.

HAS MADE MUGS OF US ALL	HATE	preacher Abu Qatada arrived
hand man in Europe". Videos of his	hate-	filled sermons were found in a flat
who helped track Abu Qatada scared	hate	preacher's followers want him dead
could assassinate him following the	hate	preacher's release from jail. Reda
smirks as he arrives home Preacher of	hate	goes free FREED fanatic Abu Qatada
to send him back to Jordan for trial.	Hate	preacher Qatada, 51, will cost
the late 1990s he has been linked to	hate	speeches. Qatada sermons

Figure 5-1 Collocation for *hate*, Tabloid Qatada sub-corpus

⁵⁹ The proper noun Qatada appears 32 times in the tabloids, but its keyness is 'only' 4.268; yet this proper noun reflects the "aboutness" of the articles.

⁶⁰ Bednarek (2008b: 35) excluded the verb *want* from her analysis (along with *like* and *sorry*) as they were the most frequent emotion words in her sub-corpus. However, the sheer size of my small corpus prohibits the option of excluding any emotive lexical items.

⁶¹ <http://www.oxfordlearnersdictionaries.com/>

⁶² http://www.oxfordlearnersdictionaries.com/definition/english/hate_2

The noun *hate* is always used as a modifier. This makes it possible to tie the evaluation closely to another noun. According to Bednarek (2008b: 110), the noun-noun pattern is characteristic of news discourse. Interestingly though, she found that the word *hate* does not appear often in news discourse, but if it does, it appears as a premodifier (ibid.: 111). *Hate preacher*⁶³ is the most frequent collocation; referring to Abu Qatada. The lexical expression is applied to create a negative feeling towards Abu Qatada, who is not liked in the UK for his sympathies with Al Qaeda. Further, *hate* is used as a premodifier in *hate-filled sermons* and *hate speeches*,⁶⁴ the sermons and speeches evaluated are those given by Abu Qatada (cf. *his hate-filled sermons; he has been linked to hate speeches*). It can be said that, via these expressions, Mr Qatada is indirectly associated with negative evaluation. In Bednarek's terms, *hate* falls into the EMOTIVITY parameter and all its applications force readers to share negative feelings towards this person/speeches/followers.

Banned

The past participle form of the verb *ban* is used mainly in the Mirror, which explains what Abu Qatada is not allowed to do, e.g. *Banned from using the internet and mobile phones; banned from meeting anyone....* The Sun uses a finite clause in the passive (*He is banned from using the internet and mobile phones.*), with the agent unexpressed. Consequently, the only participant mentioned is Qatada, and the evaluative meaning is tied to him. I believe it is used to express the ideology of the newspaper implying that finally the society can at least in some way judge Abu Qatada's life in the UK and the authorities can prohibit some of his activities. Another reason why the lexical item *ban* is used may be due to its shortness since newspapers, namely tabloids, tend to use monosyllabic words.

House/ Home

The lexical item *house*⁶⁵ does not appear to be evaluative; OALD does not give any information about evaluative meaning. The concordance of this item shows that it mainly appears in the collocation *his house*, which does not carry any evaluative load, see Figure 5-2.

⁶³ The collocation falls into the category 'judgement' in Martin and White's terms. In this thesis's terms it is classified as the expression of 'opinion'.

⁶⁴ These expressions are examples of appreciation, representing the category of 'opinion' in terms of this thesis.

⁶⁵ http://www.oxfordlearnersdictionaries.com/definition/english/house_1?q=house

protesters outside	his comfortable three-bedroom	
driven to the	house	in north London caused him to break
out' as he arrived at	the house	he shares with his wife and four
No one allowed in his	the rented house	which is paid for by benefits.
use one landline in	his house	without official approval
Qatada can only leave	his house.	Cannot start any new job,
	his house	between 8am and 4pm each day

Figure 5-2 Collocation for *house*, Tabloid Qatada sub-corpus

However, the modifiers of *house*, which appear in the concordance lines i.e. *comfortable three-bedroom, rented, paid for by benefits, he shares with his wife and four of his five children* may serve to invoke evaluation (envy or disagreement on the part of the readers).

Figure 5-3 shows concordance lines with the expression *home*.⁶⁶ Again, *home* is not evaluation laden, but the clusters *nice home/ home of a 9/11 terrorist and his family home at taxpayer's expense* convey judgemental evaluation. The expression *home* is also used in different situations such as *Home Office* and *Home secretary*, where it is used to refer to agents/ participants of the story; the tabloids show six instances of such usage out of twenty-one.

preacher Abu Qatada arrived back at his	taxpayer-funded home	yesterday after mocking British
carrier yesterday morning. He arrived	home	at about 1pm to a street
this man on a plane and send him	home	and worry about the European
, out, out" as the Muslim cleric arrived	home in north London	.Security service officials k
be confined to a small area surrounding	his home	.The bill is an estimated a
man in Europe, was allowed to go	home	to his wife and children in
to pack up my bags and leave	my home	He spoke out as anger grew
, 52, is getting 24-hour protection at	his family home"	at taxpayers' expense
Must wear electronic tag. Has to live at	home	and allowed out only from
, other than to his wife and children at	home	.Banned from all mosques.
suspect Abu Qatada smirks as he arrives	home	Preacher of hate goes free
fanatic Abu Qatada smirks as he arrives	home	yesterday after again dodging
yesterday and took him to	his London home	.The extremist cleric, wearing
paying for him to stay in	a nice home	."Prime Minister David
Qatada sermons were found in the	home	of a 9/11 terrorist. And he has

Figure 5-3 Collocation for *home*, Tabloid Qatada sub-corpus

⁶⁶ The lexical item *home* is also frequently repeated in the broadsheets Qatada sub-corpus. The collocations of *home* show that the description of Abu Qatada's home is much more neutral than in the tabloids, the most frequent expression is *his home*; the broadsheet newspapers do not aim to connect his home with the fact that the rent is paid by the taxpayers as they do in the tabloids. Similarly to the tabloids, the collocations *Home Office* and *Home Secretary* are used to refer to state representatives; such collocations appear thirteen times out of twenty-one concordance lines with *home*.

Taxpayers/All/ Benefits

The noun *taxpayer* is not inherently evaluative. However, in the context, *taxpayers* are mainly used in collocation with the verb *cost*, which evokes a negative feeling, as taxpayers suppose that their contribution to the state will be spent wisely, rather than on *a comfortable three-bedroom rented house for a hate-preacher*. Apart from the collocation mentioned above, the prepositional phrase *at taxpayer's expense* (see Figure 5-3) is also included; furthermore, the negative evaluation triggered by the lexical item *taxpayer* is supported by sums that are stated in the articles, which mention how many millions have been spent on the person discussed (cf. *5 million a year, ...the bill will grow to 13.4 million, will cost taxpayers £100,000 a week, etc.* – the use of numbers is an example of graduation, negative force). As the sums are vast, I believe they are applied to create a negative attitude towards Abu Qatada through graduation.

In addition, the Express includes a clause “*we are all paying for this*” – the quantifier *all* is used as a means of class inclusion to share the writer's ideology. Further, it evokes a judgmental feeling in readers; the lexical item *paying* supports the feeling that we are reluctant to cover unnecessary expenses. *All* is also used in the headline SMIRKING ABU QATADA HAS MADE MUGS OF US ALL. *All* is used here to include the whole readership into the issue; the negative perception of the whole issue is supported by the phrase *made mugs of...*⁶⁷ I presume the ideology of the article is to evoke a negative feeling towards Abu Qatada from the very beginning. This ideology is further supported by the phrase *...is free to walk in **our streets**...*; the possessive pronoun in bold again refers to class inclusion and construes the situation as an opposition between *us* and *him*.

Benefits is not an evaluative noun, but it is used in contrast to *taxpayers*, *cost*, and *at the expense* and it evokes negative judgement towards Abu Qatada, as he is given these benefits out of the taxpayers' pockets. In addition, the lexical item *benefits* appears in the text with high numbers e.g. £32,000, 33 million, 100,000 a week (which signal graduation); as a consequence, this co-occurrence intensifies the bewilderment of the reader about how much money is spent on an unwanted person. In Martin and White's terms, graduation in these instances is employed, as in the case of taxpayers.

⁶⁷ OALD states that this phrase is informal and a mug is “a person who is stupid and easy to trick.”
http://www.oxfordlearnersdictionaries.com/definition/english/mug_1

his wife and five children, he will now live on state	benefits	said to total £32,000 a month.
he arrived at the rented house, which is paid for by	benefits.	The case has fuelled anger
he has already totted up in legal aid fees,	benefits	, prison and security costs.

Figure 5-4 Collocation for *benefits*, Tabloid Qatada sub-corpus

Again/ Another

The evaluative meaning of the articles is also carried by adverbs which fall among the group of words that can intensify meaning, and represents graduation – force, see 3.1.2. In this article, *again* is used in the following cases:

smirks as he arrives home yesterday	after	again	dodging attempts to boot him out
But even then it is likely Qatada will appeal		again	. Mr Anderson said: "It's bad news.
yesterday after mocking British justice yet		again	. And the sight of angry protesters
terror suspect is now free to walk our streets		again	. David Cameron vented his "frustration"

Figure 5-5 Collocation for *again*, Tabloid Qatada sub-corpus

All four concordance lines are connected with negative judgement, which is intensified by the expression *again*. All the concordance lines also comprise other means of evaluation. In the first line, the disappointment is intensified by the co-play of lexical expressions used in the sentence, such as *smirks*, *dodging attempts*, *boot out*, and *fanatic*. The second line includes the evaluative phrase ‘*is likely*’, which in Bednarek’s terminology represents the parameter of RELIABILITY. The third line uses the word *mocking*,⁶⁸ and the adverb *yet* serves there to intensify graduation. The fourth line evokes negative evaluative stance through contrast (*terror – free, our streets* as discussed above in connection with *all*). Overall, the adverb *again* is used here to intensify the negative judgemental attitude towards Abu Qatada.

The pronoun *another* is applied with a function similar to *again*. As the examples in Figure 5-6 show, the pronoun *another* indicates semantic preference for expressions of duration and length (*lengthy, two years, 10-year battle*), which is an example of graduation - force, intensification. If the clusters in which this item is employed are viewed from the overall perspective of the entire article, it is clear that it is used to intensify negative attitude.

⁶⁸ which derives from the verb *to mock* - meaning “to laugh at somebody/something in an unkind way”
http://www.oxfordlearnersdictionaries.com/definition/english/mock_1?q=mock

ulian Knowles said: 'We've got	another	year's worth of UK litigation at least.
expert, warned that ministers face	another	lengthy court battle to send him back
and security costs. And if he stays here	another	two years the total bill will grow
s angry that he had chalked up	another	victory in his 10-year battle to avoid

Figure 5-6 Collocation for *another*, Tabloid Qatada sub-corpus

Ex-

The prefix *ex-* is not primarily associated with evaluative meaning, but in context it is used in the following situations:

'I'm living in fear':	Ex	- spy who helped track Abu Qatada scared
pposite view on Monday and said he could stay.	Ex	- Security Minister Baroness Neville Jones
pposed to be deported to Jordan. It's a disgrace.'	Ex	-soldier Aaron Baker, 31, protesting with
31, protesting with about 10 others, said: 'I'm	ex	military and I've been in some scary

Figure 5-7 Collocation for *ex-*, Tabloid Qatada sub-corpus

As seen in Figure 5-7, this prefix is used as a premodifier to job descriptions. It is used in expressing identification and evoking the seriousness of the problem discussed. If someone is an *ex-spy*, soldier, military or security minister, he or she must understand how dangerous the situation is and when these people are mentioned in the article, I believe it is done to evoke a feeling of serious danger. In addition, stating the news actors' *ex-occupation* plays a role in marking the source as trustworthy, as the above mentioned occupations fall into a group of respected jobs. Moreover, the reference to the *ex-* is an example of Martin and White's heteroglossic engagement, i.e. the utterances refer to other voices, see section Engagement.

Anger/Angry

Anger is an evaluative word, and in Martin and White's terminology it is an expression of affect as it evokes a negative feeling. Bednarek (2006: 131) considers it as a parameter of MENTAL STATE-EMOTION. The negative feeling is enhanced by the collocations it appears in. The first one is ...*trigger anger*... (see Figure 5-8). When the verb *trigger*⁶⁹ co-occurs with anger, it emphasises a negative evaluative force. The second collocation *fuel*⁷⁰ *anger* also intensifies the negative feeling as to *fuel* means to increase or strengthen a feeling or type of behaviour. We could say that graduation is applied here, as the verbs utilised intensify the overall meaning. This is proved by the third verb used in collocation with anger, namely *grew* in the expression *anger grew over European human rights laws*. Only one article, published in

⁶⁹ "to cause something bad to start", <http://dictionary.cambridge.org/dictionary/english/trigger>

⁷⁰ <http://dictionary.cambridge.org/dictionary/english/fuel>

the Mirror, uses these collocations. The Express, on the other hand, uses only the adjective *angry*. Once, it is used as an attributive premodifier of protesters and in the other instance it is used as a post modification of the word campaigners, see Figure 5-8.

<p>ht is back on him, and that alone could trigger my bags and leave my home.” He spoke out as is paid for by benefits. The case has fuelled</p>	<p>anger anger anger</p>	<p>among his followers. "I think they will want grew over the decision to allow Qatada to s over European human rights laws. Justice</p>
<p>British justice yet again. And the sight of about 1pm to a street protest by campaigners</p>	<p>angry angry</p>	<p>protesters outside his comfortable three- that he had chalked up another victory in</p>

Figure 5-8 Collocation for *angry* and *anger*, Tabloid Qatada sub-corpus

Fear

The expression *fear*, which is used only in the article in the Mirror, is employed to evoke a negative feeling. *Fear*, in Martin and White’s terminology, as well as in Bednarek’s, falls into the category affect/emotion, namely ‘insecurity’.

<p>'I'm living in The former MI5 undercover agent him. A former MI5 undercover agent before his arrest in 2001. Now he</p>	<p>fear fears fears fears</p>	<p>: Ex-spy who helped track Abu Qatada scared the massive publicity surrounding the latest twist Abu Qatada’s supporters could assassinate him the massive publicity surrounding the latest twist</p>
--	---	--

Figure 5-9 Collocation for *fear*, Tabloid Qatada sub-corpus

The verb is used at the beginning of the article, presumably to topicalize the article. The person who fears something is a reliable source (a former MI5 undercover agent), which helps the reader to identify with the ideology of the newspaper.

Out

Out does not rank among the first twenty-seven key words but it is used relatively frequently in the texts. According to Scott and Tribble (2006: 59), a threshold of a KW is usually set at two or three occurrences. In our texts, this lexical item is used in 15 lines (in one of the instances, it is repeated several times in a line; the recurrent expressions are counted as one instance of *out*. It should be noted, though, that repetition is a means of appraisal, expressing graduation, namely force and intensification). *Out* is an adverb or an adverbial particle in phrasal verbs. The instances below show how this word is used. Mostly, it is used as a part of multiple words such as *kick out*, *speak out*, *drive out* and *boot out*. The most frequent use is as an adverb in direct speech introduced by the verb *chant*, see Figure 5-10, where the adverb *out* is repeated and expresses what people want Qatada to do; they want him out of the

country. The lexical item *out*, in seven times out of fifteen lines, is followed by *our country/ Worcestershire/ the UK/ Britain*. Thereby it frequently supports the above-mentioned contrast between who live in Britain and Qatada who should not be allowed to.

comma of every single convention to get him	out	of our country. It is extremely
that we find ourselves in.’ Qatada was driven	out	of Worcestershire’s Long Lartin
in his 10-year battle to avoid being kicked	out	of the UK. On Monday, the Special
Get rid of Abu Qatada’ banner and chanted	out	out, out’ as the Muslim cleric arrived
but my heart was beating when he got	out	of that car. ‘We’re all paying for this a
up my bags and leave my home. He spoke	out	as anger grew over the decision to allo
d they could be powerless to kick Qatada	out	of the country for years to come, costin
four of their five children. Neighbours chanted	out	out, out’ as he arrived at the rented hou
electronic tag. Has to live at home and allowed	out	only from 8am to 4pm. Banned from tr
ay after again dodging attempts to boot him	out	of Britain. The terror suspect was freed
.back in Jordan. A van carrying Qatada sped	out	of the jail at 11am yesterday and took

Figure 5-10 Collocation for *out*, Tabloid Qatada sub-corpus

If we look at the top twenty-seven key words in the tabloids in my corpus and Bednarek’s findings on emotional words in BRC,⁷¹ we can see that *hate*, *anger* and *fear* were also identified by her, see Table 4-4.

5.1.2. Attitudinal categories

As the KW analysis did not prove to be very productive in detecting attitudinal expression, it was decided to complement it by a manual search for lexis that expresses attitude, namely the dimensions of emotion and opinion. The KWs analysis, however, pointed out that the most frequent word classes that are associated with evaluation are adjectives, nouns, and verbs, which is why these word classes were searched for. The following analysis is divided into the emotion and opinion sections.

5.1.2.1. Emotion

Table 5-3 shows the remarkable fact that the tabloids tend to rely on verbs to express emotion, rather than on adjectives or nouns. Adjectives are considered the most evaluation-laden lexical means (Hunston and Sinclair, 2000), therefore, it was expected that the analysis would find adjectives to be the most frequent word class; however, the reality is different. Verbs outnumber nouns and adjectives.

⁷¹ Bednarek (2008b: 36-47)

Tabloid Qatada - emotion	Raw frequency	Per 1,000 words
Adjectives	6	3
Nouns	8	4
Verbs	16	8
Total	30	15

Table 5-3 Realization of emotion, Tabloid Qatada sub-corpus

Adjectives

Looking closely at the adjectives in the tabloids, it was found that the tabloids predominantly use negative adjectives in a predicative role. The emotive adjectives (types + tokens) found in the Tabloid Qatada sub-corpus are shown in Table 5-4 and examples (37- 40) display the context the adjectives appear in.

Sub-corpus Qatada	Adjectives
Tabloids	fed up(2), scared(2), angry(1), determined(1)

Table 5-4 Adjectives conveying emotion, Tabloid Qatada sub-corpus

All the adjectives used are typically connected with some form of graduation. A closer analysis shows that, for example, the adjective *fed up*, an already intensified adjective, is pre-modified by the adverb *completely*, see example (37). The evaluation is stronger due to the fact that it is the Prime Minister who is *completely fed up*, and what's more, the quotation shows authorial affect,⁷² which is always stronger than non-authorial. The graduation of the emotion expressed is supported by the following sentence including the adjective *determined*, which construes strong inclination, and which is also pronounced by a state representative, see example (38). Example (38) displays the emotive adjective *scared*, in which insecurity is built up by the accumulation of the negative evaluative expressions. This negativity stands in contrast to the subject of the sentence, viz. an *Ex-spy* who is considered a positive person in the context. The composition of the sentence aims to evoke a negative attitude towards Abu Qatada. Example (40) shows the adjective *angry* and the co-play of positive (*chalk up another victory*) and negative lexical means (*kick out*) to create a negative attitude toward Abu Qatada.

(37) The PM said: 'I am completely **fed up** with the fact that this man is still at large in our...(Q-Tab)⁷³

(38) We're absolutely **determined** to see Abu Qatada get on a plane and go back to Jordan.(Q-Tab)

(39) I'm living in **fear**: Ex-spy who helped track Abu Qatada **scared hate** preacher's

⁷² See section on authorial attitude.

⁷³ Q-Tab refers to Qatada Tabloid sub-corpus, Q-Tab later on refers to Qatada Broadsheet sub-corpus.

followers **want** him **dead**. (Q-Tab)

(40) He arrived home at about 1pm to a street protest by campaigners **angry** that he had **chalked up** another victory in his 10-year battle to avoid being **kicked out** of the UK.
(Q-Tab)

Verbs

As mentioned at the beginning of the Emotion section, the finding that verbs play the most important role in expressing emotion is notable. There are sixteen tokens of verbs conveying emotional evaluation in tabloids. The verbs used in the Tabloid Qatada sub-corpus are shown in Table 5-5.

Sub-corpus Qatada	Verbs
Tabloids	want(5), fear(3), incite(2), get rid of(2), fume(1), vent(1), worry(1), satisfy(1)

Table 5-5 Verbs conveying emotion, Tabloid Qatada sub-corpus

Most of the verbs carry negative meaning and do not appear in isolation; the emotion is further intensified by the co-play of intensifiers, evaluative nouns or adjectives; see examples (41) and (39).

(41) “It’s bad news. Almost everybody **wants** to see him back in Jordan.” (Q-Tab)

The verb *want*, which is the most frequent verb in the Tabloid Qatada sub-corpus, in Martin and White’s Appraisal Theory falls into the category of inclination, presumably positive. But the examples above show that *want*, while considered positive in example (41), can change into a negative one under the influence of the context, as in example (39). Therefore, again, it has to be noted that evaluative language is highly context-dependent and it is difficult to classify it based on individual lexis. The second most frequent verb *fear* and its context have already been described in section 5.1.1. The verb *incite* reappears twice in the same article, which is due to the fact that the information is recycled, and graduation is applied via repetition, see example (42). The verb *fume* appears only once, however, it conveys strong ‘insecurity’ as the word means “to be very angry.”⁷⁴ The co-text contributes to the intensification of the meaning of the verb; the co-text was partly described in the section on KWs, e.g. *taxpayers* and *home*, and some will be discussed further in the section on nouns and opinion, see example (43).

⁷⁴ <http://www.oxfordlearnersdictionaries.com/definition/english/fume?q=fume>

(42) The former MI5 undercover agent **fears** the massive publicity surrounding the latest twist in the case could **incite** extremists to kill him. (Q-Tab)

(43) Local people held up a banner reading: “**Get rid of** Abu Qatada”. Labourer Stephen Ellerton, 54, **blasted**: “We **don’t want terrorists** in our community. **Taxpayers** are paying for him to stay in a **nice home**.” Prime Minister David Cameron **fumed**: “This man has **no right** to be in our country. We believe he is **a threat**. I share the British people’s **frustration**.” (Q-Tab)

Nouns

Nouns are the second most frequent tool to express emotion in the Tabloid Qatada sub-corpus. Table 5-3 shows there are not too many tokens for them in the sub-corpus, but if they appear, they carry negative evaluation. The only 4 types used in the articles are presented in Table 5-6.

Sub-corpus Qatada	Nouns
Tabloids	anger(3), frustration(3), fear(1), grudge(1)

Table 5-6 Nouns conveying emotion, Tabloid Qatada sub-corpus

After a close analysis, it was discovered that the noun *anger* seems to display a semantic preference for verbs indicating an increasing tendency, see Figure 5-8.

Further, an interesting point could be seen in the expression “*David Cameron vented his frustration*”...” The combination of the noun *frustration* and the verb *vent* co-play in creating a strong feeling of disappointment about the whole situation described in the text, in other words this collocation could also be judged as an example of graduation, namely force, intensification.

5.1.2.2. Opinion

Table 5-7 shows the instances of opinion in the tabloids; compared to the emotion section, there is a notable increase in all dimensions of opinion, but the highest increase is in nouns. An interesting fact is the almost equal occurrence of adjectives and verbs.

Tabloid Qatada - opinion	Raw frequency	Per 1,000words
Adjectives	32	16
Nouns	47	23
Verbs	31	15
Total	110	55

Table 5-7 Realization of opinion, Tabloid Qatada sub-corpus

Adjectives

Table 5-8 presents the types of adjectives used. All 24 types of adjectives highlight the fact that the expression of opinion is more variable than emotion in the Tabloid Qatada sub-corpus. Notably, the majority of the adjectives conveying opinion are used in the attributive role.

Sub-corpus Qatada	Adjectives
Tabloids	fair(3) , undercover(2), maximum(2), massive(2), major(2), free(2), dangerous(2), terrorist(1), scary(1), ridiculous(1), powerless(1), nice(1), lengthy(1), humiliating(1), grey-bearded(1), frustrating(1), false(1), extremist(1), dodging(1), difficult(1), comfortable(1), bad(1), angry(1), taxpayer-funded (1) ⁷⁵

Table 5-8 Adjectives conveying opinion, Tabloid Qatada sub-corpus

Compared to the emotion section, apart from negative adjectives, some positive adjectives, such as *nice*, *comfortable*, and *fair*, are employed as well. Based on the texts, it is believed that such positive adjectives are used to create contrast. The positive lexical expressions in the examples given below are in bold, and they are surrounded by a very negative context, which evokes negative feelings towards the main actor, Abu Qatada. Examples (45) and (44) have already been discussed in the KW analysis (section 5.1.1.). Example (46) shows how the positive adjective *fair*⁷⁶ is negated by the verbal group.

(44) And the sight of angry protesters outside his **comfortable** three-bedroom house in north London caused him to break into a grin. (Q-Tab)

(45) Labourer Stephen Ellerton, 54, blasted: “We don’t want terrorists in our community. Taxpayers are paying for him to stay in a **nice** home.” (Q-Tab)

(46) ... because he might not get a **fair** trial in Jordan,.. (Q-Tab)

The main actor of the news (Abu Qatada) is portrayed negatively by a negative, intensified premodification, see (47); also, example (48) shows the employment of the intensified adjective *dangerous*, following the stereotyping characterisation *the grey-bearded cleric*. The adjective *grey-bearded* does not normally carry evaluation, but in this context it conveys negative judgement. There are two explanations for the adjective *grey-bearded*: either it can

⁷⁵ *Tax-payer founded* is not primarily an evaluation loaded adjective, but when analyzed in context it was discovered to evoke judgemental opinion, see section Taxpayers/All/ Benefits.

⁷⁶ the most frequent adjective in the Tabloid Qatada sub corpus.

mean an old person,⁷⁷ or, I think, in this context, it refers to the fact that Abu Qatada is a Muslim and the British society tends to perceive bearded Muslim clerics as a threat due to the current political situation in the world. The article in the Express amplifies the threat by employing the adjective group *so dangerous*. Example (49) also implies that the person is dangerous by the co-occurrence of the expressions *extremist cleric, robes and Islamic headdress*. The negative perception of the information could be strengthened by the verb *refuse*.

(47) Eight years ago SIAC called Qatada ‘an extremely **dangerous** individual’. (Q-Tab)

(48) The **grey-bearded** cleric is deemed to be so **dangerous** he will be placed under round the clock surveillance,... (Q-Tab)

(49) The **extremist** cleric, wearing **robes** and **Islamic headdress**, refused to answer questions. (Q-Tab)

Verbs

The tabloids use 19 types and 31 tokens of verbs to express opinion. They are all presented in Table 5-9.

Sub-corpus Qatada	Verbs
Tabloids	ban (6), smirk(3), breach(2), chant(2), kick out(2) back(2), warn(2), blast(1), boot out(1), fail(1), force(1), get out(1), hope(1), chalk up(1), mock(1), win(1), wriggle(1), speed out(1), kow-tow(1)

Table 5-9 Verbs conveying opinion, Tabloid Qatada sub-corpus

Most of these judgemental verbs convey negative meaning, which proves the assumption that the newspapers prefer to use negative information to create news, and that the Tabloid Qatada sub-corpus texts are mainly of a negative nature. The tabloids have a tendency to use informal verbs, such as *smirk*, *mock* and *blast*, as shown in the examples below.

(50) FREED fanatic Abu Qatada **smirks** as he arrives home yesterday after again dodging attempts to boot him out of Britain. (Q-Tab)

(51) HATE preacher Abu Qatada arrived back at his taxpayer-funded home yesterday after **mocking** British justice yet again. (Q-Tab)

(52) Labourer Stephen Ellerton, 54, **blasted**: ‘We don’t want terrorists in our community. (Q-Tab)

⁷⁷ <http://www.oxfordlearnersdictionaries.com/definition/english/greybeard?q=greybeard>

Nouns

Nouns are a group of lexical means that are frequently employed to express opinion in the news analysed. Table 5-10 displays their types and tokens.

Sub-corpus Qatada	Nouns
Tabloids	hate(7), terror(6), taxpayers(6), right(3), threat(3), home(3), house(3), benefits(3), extremists(2), atrocities(1), defeat(1), disgrace(1), fanatic(1), grin(1), mickey mouse(1), monkey(1), mugs(1), terror(1), torture(1), victory(1)

Table 5-10 Nouns conveying opinion, Tabloid Qatada sub-corpus⁷⁸

The most frequently repeated noun in the tabloids is *hate*, which is discussed in detail in the keyword analysis. The tabloids further use the nouns *terror*, *threat* and *right*, see examples (53) and (54). Notably, they also employ nouns which are part of multiple word expressions, often informal, and do not carry inscribed seriousness. They rather point to the fact concerning how the main actor Abu Qatada “plays” with Britain and the newspapers try to imply a negative attitude towards the main actor (examples (55)-(57)).

(53) The **terror** suspect was freed from jail after winning an appeal against deportation.

(Q-Tab)

(54) Mr Cameron added: ‘He has no right to be there. We believe he is a **threat** to our

country. (Q-Tab)

(55) Smirking Abu Qatada has **made mugs** of us all. (Q-Tab)

(56) “The system is being **made a monkey of**.” (Q-Tab)

(57) And the sight of **angry** protesters outside his **comfortable three-bedroom house** in

north London caused him to break into a **grin**. (Q-Tab)

An interesting expression is *Mickey Mouse*, as in “*We should not be kow-towing to this Mickey Mouse European court. The Supreme Court should be the ultimate court.*” Two things are put in contrast here. Firstly, the European Court as an authority is presumed to be highly respected but the noun phrase *Mickey Mouse* diminishes this respect. What is more, this expression follows the verb *kow-tow* (see section on verb-opinion), which disapproves of certain human behaviour. All in all, this disapproval is strengthened by the noun phrase

⁷⁸Lexical items such as *home*, *benefits*, *taxpayers* are not intrinsically evaluation loaded, but they become evaluation loaded in certain collocations, or when used as contrast to other lexical means. See section KWs.

Mickey Mouse. Both these lexical expressions are informal. The definition of *kow-tow*⁷⁹ is to show somebody in authority too much respect and be willing to obey them, so I believe that the strong verb of respect counter-plays the noun expression. Further, this play of a noun phrase and the verb is used in direct speech to strengthen the impact of the ideology played. The next sentence in the article emphasises the most important court for the British - the Supreme Court, where the adjective *ultimate*⁸⁰ (the best and the most important) is used. To sum up, the European court is labelled as *Mickey Mouse* and the Supreme Court is *ultimate*; I believe the reader is given an ideological prod to trust the British system and not the European. The hypothetical question is whether these sentences represent a rare criticism of the EU's authorities or whether they build on the more profound and long term ideology against the EU that Great Britain is known for.

5.2. Broadsheet Qatada sub-corpus

The same method of analysis applied in the tabloids was used for the corpus of the broadsheets.

5.2.1. Keyword analysis

Table 5-11 displays keywords for the Broadsheet Qatada sub-corpus (with the Tabloid Qatada sub-corpus used as the reference corpus). The KWs significant at the level of $p < 0.05$ (5% level), i.e. those with the values of keyness higher than 3.84 are listed and will be analysed below. Twenty-one key words were found in the Broadsheet Qatada sub-corpus.

Rank	Frequency in the Tabloids	Keyness (log-likelihood)	Keyword
1	33	8.074	that
2	5	6.698	next
3	16	5.552	by
4	21	5.443	with
5	4	5.359	high
6	4	5.359	sent
7	114	4.838	the
8	7	4.783	before
9	3	4.019	ban
10	3	4.019	faces
11	3	4.019	important
12	3	4.019	Jordanians
13	3	4.019	level

⁷⁹ <http://www.oxfordlearnersdictionaries.com/definition/english/kowtow?q=kowtow>

⁸⁰ http://www.oxfordlearnersdictionaries.com/definition/english/ultimate_1?q=ultimate

14	3	4.019	obtained
15	3	4.019	officers
16	3	4.019	option
17	3	4.019	order
18	3	4.019	retrial
19	3	4.019	risk
20	3	4.019	terrorism
21	3	4.019	time

Table 5-11 Keywords analysis, Broadsheet Qatada sub-corpus

The division of the Qatada broadsheet newspapers' KWs is presented in Table 5-12. Jordanians is the only proper noun used in the broadsheet sub-corpus key words. In addition, there are fourteen lexical items used, but most of them do not seem to be evaluation loaded; there are fewer grammatical words used than in the tabloids (the tabloids use eleven of them and the broadsheets six). Interestingly, the tabloids' grammatical words are frequently connected with the first person singular e.g. *me*, *my* and *'m*, whereas, the broadsheets mainly use prepositions, articles, pronouns, and conjunctions. This could point to the fact that grammatical key words could be style indicators.

proper nouns	lexical words	grammatical words
Jordanians	high, sent, ban , faces, important , level, next, obtained, officers, option, order, retrial, risk , terrorism , time	that, by, with, the, before

Table 5-12 Division of key words, Broadsheet Qatada sub-corpus

It is well known that broadsheets are not as susceptible to evaluative language as tabloids (Bednarek, 2006); the first twenty-one words prove this fact. Except for the word *important*, there are no other words with inherent evaluative lexical meaning among the twenty-one key words. However, as could be seen in the tabloids, evaluation can be embedded in the context, therefore, the words presented in Table 5-11 must be thoroughly analysed to see more details. Words, where no evaluative meaning was found, are disregarded and only those which indicate evaluation are described further below.

High

happy as he was driven away from Long Lartin	high	security jail in acute contrast to outrage at
happy as he was driven away from Long Lartin	high	security jail in acute contrast to outrage at
ed by the security services as having wide and	high-	level support among Islamist extremists.
nitored constantly. He was released from Long	high	security prison on yesterday after the the S

Figure 5-11 Collocation for *high*, Broadsheet Qatada sub-corpus

The gradable adjective *high*⁸¹ means greater than normal and in the text it refers to the jail where dangerous individuals serve their punishment; this is an example of graduation. The repetition of the full name of the jail increases the feeling that the person discussed is dangerous; therefore, all the measures taken have to be anticipated seriously. The name of the jail is repeated twice in the Independent, whereas, in other newspapers it is used only once. The repeated, more or less identical sentence employs graduation by creating contrast between several lexical items, which are in bold; see example (58).

(58) The **controversial** preacher looked **relaxed and happy** as he was driven away from Long Lartin high security jail in acute contrast to **outrage** at both local and national level (Q-Broad)

Ban

Ban,⁸² expresses “an official rule that says that something is not allowed”, this evaluation can be tied to judgement (see also the tabloids’ KW *banned*).

Face

Figure 5-12 shows that Abu Qatada mainly *faces*⁸³ *a trial/ battle/ a fair trial*, which evokes neutral/positive evaluation. The Home Secretary, on the other hand, faces *a long/lengthy battle*, which imposes a negative and unpleasant situation. The difference in the premodification could point out that the trial is nothing stressful for Abu Qatada but very stressful for the government. This may lead the readers to sympathise with the government and despise Abu Qatada.

Involvement in terror attacks. He would	face	a retrial if returned. In January judges at t
Theresa May	faces	long battle to overturn Abu Qatada deportati
ffort to assure courts that terror suspect will	face	fair trial if sent back The home secretary,
The home secretary, Theresa May,	faces	a lengthy legal battle to overturn this week
Qatada should not be sent back to Jordan to	face	trial. The terror suspect was driven back to
top security prison in Worcestershire to	face	a 16-hour curfew enforced between 4pm
and secured assurances that he would not	face	a trial for bomb plot offences dating back to
ngthen their assurances that Abu Qatada will	face	a fair trial if he is sent back. The issue is
to be lifted. The home secretary will then be	faced	with the option of whether or not to impose

⁸¹ http://www.oxfordlearnersdictionaries.com/definition/english/high_1?q=high

⁸² http://www.oxfordlearnersdictionaries.com/definition/english/ban_2

⁸³ To *face* means that one has to deal with somebody or something difficult.
http://www.oxfordlearnersdictionaries.com/definition/english/face_2

blocked his deportation to Jordan, where he faces terror charges. Senior immigration judge Mr
 ment had failed to satisfy him that he would face a fair trial in Jordan. David Cameron, the Pr

Figure 5-12 Collocation for *face*, Broadsheet Qatada sub-corpus

Important

The adjective *important* is an evaluative adjective.⁸⁴ It is interesting that it appears mainly in the pattern *it v-link ADJ to-inf* which, according to Hunston and Sinclair (2000), embeds evaluative meaning, see sections Basic patterns of Evaluation.

nce, has welcomed the Siac ruling, saying: "It is important to reaffirm this country's pos
 d. "We clearly agree with the decision, but it is important to emphasise the fundamental
 f law that we subscribe to. To that extent, it is important for other cases, not just for

Figure 5-13 Collocation for *important*, Broadsheet Qatada sub-corpus

Obtain (and torture)

The verb means to get something, especially by making an effort;⁸⁵ therefore, it can be interpreted as expressing evaluation, namely judgement. The evaluation carried by the verb is intensified by the prepositional phrase *by torture*, which indicates that the effort to get the evidence was intensive (or even illegal).

there remains a real risk that evidence obtained by torture will be used against him
 offences dating back to 1998 on evidence obtained by torture. But the he's special immigration
 that the evidence had not been obtained by torture. The Judicial Communications

Figure 5-14 Collocation for *obtain*, Broadsheet Qatada sub-corpus

With the keyness value of 3.73, the word *torture* does not meet the significance level set for KWs here. It, however, intrinsically carries negative meaning, as it implies that some evidence can be obtained painfully, which is not in compliance with Britain's Code of Conduct; in other words, the country is presented here as torture-free, i.e. positively, while Abu Qatada is portrayed negatively via negative reference (e.g. *terror suspect*). *Torture* appears as a head noun but also as a pre modifier.

ences dating back to 1998 on evidence torture. But the special immigration appeals
 the assurances, there remained a real risk that torture-based evidence would be used against him.
 that the evidence had not been obtained by torture. The Judicial Communications Office

⁸⁴ <http://www.oxfordlearnersdictionaries.com/definition/english/important?q=important>

⁸⁵ <http://www.oxfordlearnersdictionaries.com/definition/english/obtain?q=obtain>

's position that we abhor the use of	torture	and a case that was predicated upon
al risk that statement statements procured by	torture	would be admitted in a retrial. Home
remains a real risk that evidence obtained by	torture	will be used against him. Today

Figure 5-15 Collocation for *torture*, Broadsheet Qatada sub-corpus

Risk/that

The word *risk*⁸⁶ is intensified by the adjective *real*, which serves as a means of graduation in Martin and White's terms. Moreover, the repetition of *r* (alliteration) may further increase emotion, as suggested by Reah (1998).

code of conduct, which led to the real	risk	that statement statements procured
be deported while there remains a real	risk	that evidence obtained by torture will be use
the assurances, there remained a real	risk	that torture-based evidence would be used

Figure 5-16 Collocation for *risk*, Broadsheet Qatada sub-corpus

Terrorism/terror

The word *terrorism* intrinsically carries negative meaning. In the Qatada broadsheet sub-corpus, the word *terrorism* appears three times. It is interesting that, in all the three instances, *terrorism* is used as a premodifier co-occurring with the nouns *legislation/prevention* and *laws*. Thereby, a link is established between *terrorism* and the government's effort to handle the issue. Apart from the word *terrorism*, the word *terror* is used in the broadsheet articles in collocation with *suspect/charges* and *attacks*. I find it interesting that the word *terrorism* is not used in the tabloids. The tabloids used *terror* in the same collocations as the broadsheets, and add one more: *terror law watchdog David Anderson*. In Martin and White's terminology, the word *terror* can express judgement e.g. *terror suspect*, and appreciation e.g. *terror charges*; all these instances fall into the dimension of opinion.

ced with the option of whether or not to impose a	terrorism	prevention and invest
ay David Anderson QC, the Independent Reviewer of	Terrorism	Legislation, said the
." David Anderson QC, the independent reviewer of	terrorism	laws, has warned it

Figure 5-17 Collocation for *terrorism*, Broadsheet Qatada sub-corpus

ressure on Jordan in effort to assure courts that	terror	suspect will face fair trial if
uld not be sent back to Jordan to face trial. The	terror	suspect was driven back to
was first detained in Britain as an international	terror	suspect in 2002 and has be
..... on the basis that he is an international	terror	suspect. The Tpim can last a

⁸⁶ http://www.oxfordlearnersdictionaries.com/definition/english/risk_1?q=risk, a situation that could be dangerous or have a bad result

Prime Minister 'completely fed up' as being convicted in his absence of involvement in blocked his deportation to Jordan, where he faces	terror terror terror	suspect Abu Qatada walks attacks. He would face a charges. Senior immigration
--	----------------------------	---

Figure 5-18 Collocation for *terror*, Broadsheet Qatada sub-corpus

5.2.2. Attitudinal categories

The next part of the analysis is the analysis that analyses the realization of emotion and opinion in the Broadsheet Qatada sub-corpus.

5.2.2.1. Emotion

The realization of emotion in the broadsheets differs from the tabloids. Table 5-13 shows the numerical representation of the means. When expressing negative emotion, the broadsheets rely mainly on adjectives, nouns and verbs are used scarcely.

Broadsheets Qatada - emotion	Raw frequency	Per 1,000words
Adjectives	11	5
Nouns	5	2
Verbs	1	0.5
Total	17	8

Table 5-13 Realization of emotion, Broadsheet Qatada sub-corpus

Adjectives

Adjectives are the most frequent means to convey emotion in the broadsheets. Table 5-14 displays the types of adjectives used along with the number of tokens.

Sub-corpus Qatada	Adjectives
Broadsheets	fed up(5), happy(2), relaxed(2), determined(1), satisfied(1)

Table 5-14 Adjectives conveying emotion, Broadsheet Qatada sub-corpus

Similarly to the tabloids the adjective *fed up* is the most frequent adjective (due to a quotation printed in all the newspapers); moreover it is also premodified by the adverb *completely* to intensify the information transmitted, in one case the adjective *determined* co-plays in graduation as in the tabloids. *Fed up* is often used in expressions expressing authorial affect; see section 3.1.1.1 and example (59).

(59) "I am completely **fed up** with the fact that this man is still at large in our country. (Q – Broad)

The cluster *happy and relaxed* which appears twice in one article seems to express Abu Qatada's positive feelings when driven away from a prison, but these two positive adjectives

are put into a contrast with the feeling of being *completely fed up* expressed by the Prime Minister, who lets the citizens know how frustrated he is with Abu Qatada’s stay in Great Britain, see example (60). This co-play of positive and negative adjectives polarising the perception of the state representative and the ‘bad guy’ surely evokes some evaluative reaction in the readers.

Nouns

The second most common realisation of emotion is a noun phrase. There are three types used, and five tokens, see Table 5-15.

Sub-corpus Qatada	Nouns
Broadsheets	outrage(2), frustration(2), fiasco(1)

Table 5-15 Nouns conveying emotion in Broadsheet Qatada sub-corpus

These three types are of a negative meaning. As example (60) shows the noun *outrage* is put into contrast with the already discussed cluster *happy and relaxed*, therefore the information given in the previous section could be applied. *Frustration* is intensified by the co-occurrence with the intensified adjective *frustrating*, see example (61).

- (60) The controversial preacher looked **relaxed** and **happy** as he was driven away from Long Lartin high security jail in acute contrast to **outrage** at both local and national level. (Q-Broad)
- (61) “It is extremely **frustrating** and I share the British people's **frustration** with the situation we find ourselves in.” (Q-Broad)
- (62) Chris Grayling, the Justice Secretary, said the **fiasco** showed human rights laws needed to be overhauled. (Q-Broad)

Verbs

There is only one verb to use emotion in the Broadsheet Qatada sub-corpus, see Table 5-16 and example (63).

Sub-corpus Qatada	Verbs
Broadsheets	want(1)

Table 5-16 Verbs conveying emotion, Broadsheet Qatada sub-corpus

- (63) Siac said it **wanted** to see Jordan's code on criminal procedure amended... (Q-Broad)

5.2.2.2. Opinion

Opinion, similarly to the tabloids, is expressed in the broadsheets more frequently than emotion. Table 5-17 shows the numerical representation of the most important realizations that construe opinion. Nouns are the most frequent, followed by adjectives; verbs are not so frequently employed as in the tabloids.

Broadsheets Qatada - opinion	Raw frequency	Per 1,000words
Adjectives	26	12
Nouns	34	16
Verbs	19	9
Total	79	38

Table 5-17 Realization of opinion, Broadsheet Qatada sub-corpus

Adjectives

Adjectives are the most frequent means that expresses opinion in the Broadsheet Qatada sub-corpus. Table 5-18 shows the variety of types of adjective. All in all, there are 26 tokens of adjectives used.

Sub-corpus Qatada	Adjectives
Broadsheets	fair(4), frustrating(3), important(3), radical(2), strict(2), controversial(2), extremist(1), lengthy(1), massive(1), possible(1) stringent(1), undercover(1), unlikely(1), wrong(1), angry(1), free(1)

Table 5-18 Adjectives conveying opinion, Broadsheet Qatada sub-corpus

The adjective *fair* appears mainly in the cluster *face a fair trial*, which suggests that though hated and unwanted in Britain, Abu Qatada will be treated according to law, see examples (64) and (64). *Frustrating* is mainly used in sentences with *frustration* as mentioned in example (61). *Important* is discussed in 5.2.1. A notable fact is that apart from *unlikely*, *wrong*, *frustrating*, *important* and *possible*, all adjectives are used in attributive roles; see example (66), establishing a close tie between the evaluative adjective and the object evaluated.

(64) Theresa May to put fresh pressure on Jordan in effort to assure courts that the terror suspect will **face fair trial** if sent back (Q-Broad)

(65) Senior immigration judge Mr Justice Mitting ordered his release after concluding the Government had failed to satisfy him that he would **face a fair trial** in Jordan. (Q-Broad)

(66) the **radical** cleric, the **radical** Islamist cleric Abu Qatada, **strict** restrictions, **strict** bail conditions, The **controversial** preacher, The **extremist** cleric, the **massive** surveillance operation, his **stringent** bail conditions, a **free** man, **undercover** officers, a **lengthy** legal battle, a **lengthy** legal battle. (Q-Broad)

Nouns

Table 5-19 shows that the most frequently repeated evaluative nouns in the broadsheets are *terror*, *torture*, *threat*, *risk*, and *right*; this is an interesting fact as all these nouns contain the phoneme “r” which even increases the seriousness of the words (Reah, 1998). *Terror*, *risk* and *torture* were described in detail in the key word lists, see section 5.2.1. The nouns *right* and *threat* co-appear in quotations. *Right* is negated by the particle *no* and, further, the negative evaluation is supported by the noun *threat*. See example (67).

Sub-corpus Qatada	Nouns
Broadsheets	terror(7), torture(6), right(3), threat(3), risk(3), terrorism(3), pressure(2), effort(2), setback(1), extremists(1), disgrace(1), fiasco(1), loser(1)

Table 5-19 Nouns conveying opinion, Broadsheet Qatada sub-corpus

(67) “He has **no right** to be there, we believe he is a **threat** to our country,” (Q-Broad)

Verbs

There is a higher number of verbs used in the broadsheets to express opinion than in the emotion section. The most frequent is *get out*, followed by *torture* and *warn*. Compared to the tabloids, the variety is relatively limited, as the tabloids also rely on informal language. For example, instead of *get out*, which is used in the broadsheets, the tabloids use *kick out*, *boot out*, see examples (68) and (69).

Sub-corpus Qatada	Verbs
Broadsheets	get out(5), warn(3), torture(2), put pressure on(2), walk free(2), fail(1), vow(1), welcome(1), win(1), roam(1)

Table 5-20 Verbs conveying opinion, Broadsheet Qatada sub-corpus

(68) A small group of protesters greeted his arrival by shouting: “**get him out**”; ... and comma of every single convention to **get him out** of our country. (Q-Broad)

(69) ... he had chalked up another victory in his 10-year battle to avoid being **kicked out** of the UK. ...after again dodging attempts to **boot him out** of Britain. (Q-Tab)

The verb *warn* is associated with experts or prominent state representatives who strengthen the importance of the warning, see example (70) for all the occurrences in the broadsheets.

(70) **Human rights expert** Julian Knowles **warned** there was a long legal route ahead:..., **David Anderson QC, the independent reviewer of terrorism laws**, has **warned**..., **experts warned** it could be months, even years before he leaves British soil. (Q-Broad)

To *put pressure on*⁸⁷ expresses the government's positively evaluated effort but the verb *fail* could evoke dissatisfaction with the action taken as the government has not been successful. To *roam*⁸⁸ carries a neutral meaning, but Channell (2000: 39-55) found out, based on her corpus research, that to *roam* actually carries a negative meaning. In the texts, Abu Qatada is free to roam the streets; therefore the reader should be worried. *Walk free* was added despite the fact that syntactically it is a verb and a complement, the expression evokes a positive attitude but when put into a context with the negative portrayal of the actor, it actually evokes danger. For all the lexical items discussed in this paragraph see examples (71)-(74).

(71) Prime Minister 'completely fed up' as terror suspect Abu Qatada **walks free** from prison. (Q-Broad)

(72) Despite tight bail conditions, Qatada is allowed to **roam** the streets for eight hours a day...(Q-Broad)

(73) The home secretary is making preparations to **put fresh pressure on** the Jordanian authorities to strengthen their assurances. (Q-Broad)

(74) ...the Government had failed to satisfy him that he would face a fair trial in Jordan. (Q-Broad)

5.2.3. Conclusions - Qatada sub-corpus

The initial analysis of the “negative” Qatada sub-corpus has shown that the keyword analysis is not an optimal method to detect evaluative lexis in news discourse as not many lexical words among the keywords are evaluation laden, moreover, there is a high number of grammatical words, and therefore, the research cannot dependably rely on finding evaluative lexis with the help of keyness. The KW analysis has also pointed out that it is important to see a lexical item in context, as assumingly non-evaluative lexis (e.g. *taxpayers, home*) can become evaluation laden due to the surrounding context. The analysis of the key words also indicates that, in Martin and White's terminology, graduation plays a very important role in

⁸⁷ http://www.oxfordlearnersdictionaries.com/definition/english/pressure_1#pressure_1__274

⁸⁸ <http://www.oxfordlearnersdictionaries.com/definition/english/roam?q=roam>

creating attitudes in news discourse especially by means of creating contrast, using negative and amplified lexis, as well as employing repetition.

The quantitative summary of evaluation in the Qatada sub-corpus is shown in Table 5-21. It is notable that opinion is expressed more frequently in both types of newspapers. Despite the expectations, the tabloids present opinion more frequently than the broadsheets (i.e. 55 times per 1,000 words in the tabloids, 38 times in the broadsheets, see Table 5-21). Opinion in the tabloids is construed most frequently by nouns, and then more or less equally by adjectives and verbs. The broadsheets also mainly employ nouns, and then adjectives. Verbs in the broadsheet sub-corpus are not used as much as in the tabloid sub-corpus. Emotion is more frequently expressed in the tabloids; notably, adjectives are not the most prominent means that convey emotion, but it is verbs – three⁸⁹ emotion laden adjectival expressions vs eight emotion laden verbs per 1,000 words. Verbs appear almost three times more often than adjectives. Nouns are the second most frequent word class to construe emotion in the tabloids. Noticeably, nouns are not used in an attribute role as premodifiers but they are primarily used in the ‘V n’ pattern. The main means used to express emotion in the broadsheets is adjectives. Other means are used to a lesser extent, in fact, it can be said that emotion laden verbs in the broadsheets are scarcely used.

	Tabloids		Broadsheets	
	<i>Raw frequency</i>	<i>Per 1,000 words</i>	<i>Raw frequency</i>	<i>Per 1,000 words</i>
Qatada - emotion				
Adjectives	6	3	11	5
Nouns	8	4	5	2
Verbs	16	8	1	0.5
Total	30	15	17	8
Qatada - opinion				
Adjectives	32	16	26	12
Nouns	47	23	34	16
Verbs	31	15	19	9
Total	110	55	79	38
Grand total	140	70	96	46

Table 5-21 Means of expressing opinion and emotion, Qatada sub-corpus. Qatada sub-corpus results referring to emotion are in orange, Qatada sub-corpus results referring to opinion are in green, Grand total results of the Qatada sub-corpus are in blue.

⁸⁹ Occurrence per 1,000 words

Figure 5-19 and Figure 5-20 show the graphical distribution of adjectives, nouns, and verbs in the Qatada sub-corpus, in both opinion and emotion dimensions. Once more, the plentiful employment of emotive verbs in the tabloids is remarkable.

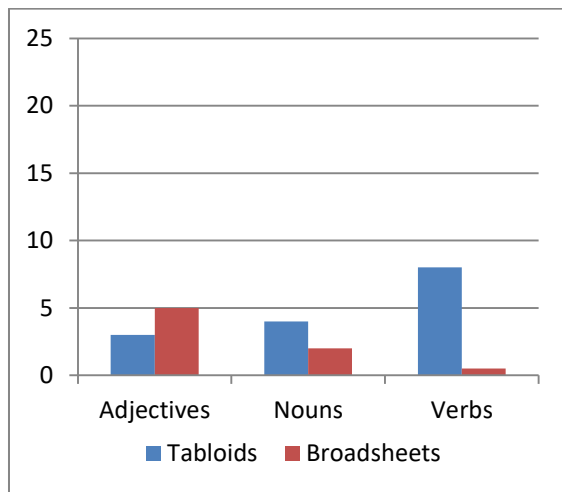


Figure 5-19 Realization of emotion, Qatada sub-corpus (per 1,000 words)

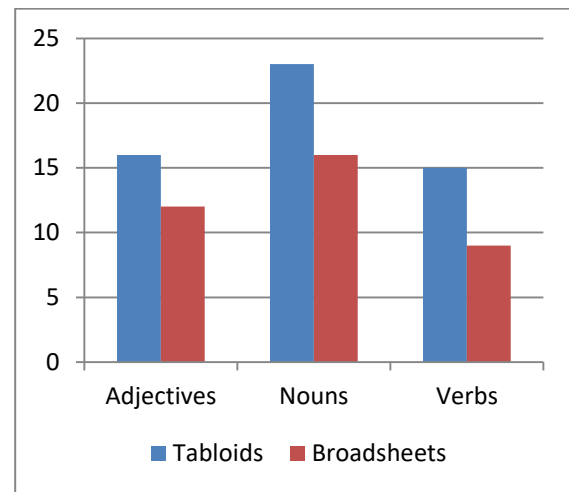


Figure 5-20 Realization of opinion, Qatada sub-corpus (per 1,000 words)

Table 5-22 shows the occurrence of emotion and opinion in the Qatada sub-corpus per 1,000 words. Concerning emotion, the tabloids, in Martin and White's terms tend to display 'dissatisfaction' via e.g. *fed up*, *fume*, *frustration*, 'insecurity' via *scared*, *worry*, *fear* and 'inclination' via *determined*, *get rid of*. The broadsheets, express mainly 'dissatisfaction' via e.g. *fed up*, *outrage*, or *frustration*. As mentioned earlier, opinion prevails in the Qatada sub-corpus, but Table 5-22 shows that there is a more significant difference between expressing emotion and opinion in the broadsheets than in the tabloids. The opinion and emotion ratio in the tabloids is approximately 3:1 while in broadsheets it is more than 4:1. In addition, it is notable that the tabloids surpass the broadsheets in expressing both categories (i.e. opinion and emotion).

Corpus	Category	Tabloids	Broadsheets
Qatada	Emotion	15	8
	Opinion	55	38

Table 5-22 Emotion and opinion occurrences (per 1,000 words), Qatada sub-corpus

5.3. Tabloid Baby sub-corpus

As the KW analysis has not proved to be very helpful in detecting evaluation laden lexis, it was decided not to be used it in the “positive” Baby sub-corpus; manual analysis was employed to search for attitudinal lexis as in sections 5.1.2. and 5.2.2.

5.3.1. Attitudinal categories

5.3.1.1. Emotion

Table 5-23 presents the numerical findings concerning the realization of emotion in the Tabloid Baby sub-corpus. The most frequent means is adjectives, followed by verbs. Nouns are used scarcely.

Tabloid Baby - emotion	Raw frequency	Per 1,000words
Adjectives	27	9
Nouns	4	1
Verbs	12	4
Total	43	14

Table 5-23 Realization of emotion, Tabloid Baby sub-corpus

Adjectives

The adjectives exploited in the tabloids were of a positive nature, such as *delighted*, *proud*, *overjoyed*, *excited*, *thrilled*, *happier* etc. Table 5-24 displays all the adjectives used.

Sub-corpus Baby	Adjectives
Tabloids	happy/ier(9), proud(5), delighted(6), thrilled(2), overjoyed(2), afraid(1), excited(1), joyous(1)

Table 5-24 Adjectives conveying emotion, Tabloid Baby sub-corpus

The most frequent adjective *happy*, which appears four times in a cluster *proud and happy* is premodified by the amplified adverb *enormously*, see example (76). This positive emotion is quoted by all the newspapers and three times it expresses authorial affect, see section 3.1.1.1. In context, the expression *extremely proud and happy* is strengthened by the co-occurring sentence *we are eagerly looking forward to seeing the baby*. Graduation is applied here via intensified repetition of positive lexis. The graded adjective *happier*, which was detected four times, also expresses positive emotion, but in this case the positive evaluation is supported by negation of the modal auxiliary before the adjective, see the example (75). Example (76) shows how a co-play of lexis, including the one which expresses opinion, can create a strong emotional attitude and that evaluative lexis hardly ever appears in isolation; the expressions in bold strengthen the positive feeling of the given information.

(75) "We could not be **happier**." (B-Tab)

(76) Prince Charles said he was "enormously **proud and happy** to be a grandfather for the first time", adding that it was "an incredibly **special moment** for William and Catherine". He added: "Grandparenthood is a **unique moment** in anyone's life, as countless **kind people** have told me in recent months, so I am enormously **proud and happy** to be a grandfather for the first time and we are eagerly **looking forward to** seeing the baby in the near future." In a short statement new father the Duke of Cambridge said: "We **could not be happier**." (Q-Broad)

Nouns

Evaluative nouns are not exploited much in the positive sub-corpus, only four tokens and two types are used in the Tabloid Baby sub-corpus. Table 5-25 shows the occurrences of nouns conveying emotion in the positive sub-corpus. Examples (77) and (78) show how these lexical items appear in the texts.

Sub-corpus Baby	Nouns
Tabloids	excitement(2), joy(2)

Table 5-25 Nouns conveying emotion, Tabloid Baby sub-corpus

(77) Anyway, the boy arrived, great **excitement** (B-Tab)

(78) Prince Charles shared his **joy** at becoming a grandfather (B-Tab)

Verbs

Again a surprisingly high number of verb tokens was employed in the Tabloid Baby sub-corpus, altogether there are twelve tokens of verbs expressing emotion, the Qatada sub-corpus showed sixteen tokens, yet when counted per 1,000 words, the employment of verbs in the negative tabloid sub-corpus is twice as frequent. Table 5-26 presents the findings concerning the verbs conveying emotion.

Sub-corpus Baby	Verbs
Tabloids	want (4), look forward to (3), hope(2), wish(2), would like(1)

Table 5-26 Verbs conveying emotion, Tabloid Baby sub-corpus

The verb *look forward to* appears in all the tabloid newspapers, as the newspapers use quotation and cite the grandparents of the future king, see example (76).

5.3.1.2. Opinion

It is clear that adjectives are the main means used to express positive opinion in this sub-corpus. Other word classes are represented to a much lesser extent. Additionally, verbs are not employed as much as for emotion in this sub-corpus or in the whole Qatada corpus. See Table 5-27.

Tabloid Baby - opinion	Raw frequency	Per 1,000words
Adjectives	41	14
Nouns	2	1
Verbs	5	2
Total	48	16

Table 5-27 Realization of opinion, Tabloid Baby sub-corpus

Adjectives

Table 5-28 lists all the adjectives used to express positive opinion in the tabloids; the table shows a wide variety of adjectives used. Notably, the tabloids use adjectives mainly as premodifiers of nouns referring to people and situations that are connected with the new-born baby, see example (76). The most frequent adjective *wonderful* is used as a premodifier to nouns *moment*, *baby*, *news* as shown in example (79). Other more frequently used adjectives such as *important*, *kind*, *unique*, and *special* can also be seen in example (76).

Sub-corpus Baby	Adjectives
Tabloids	wonderful(5), important(3), special(3), kind(3), unique(3), loving(2), warm(2), bad (1), beautiful(1), big(1), bored(1), difficult(1), exciting(1), extraordinary(1), famous(1), favourite(1), great(1), incredible(1), little(1), magnificent(1), remarkable(1), rocky(1), severe(1), smiling(1), unbearable(1), happy(1), proud(1)

Table 5-28 Adjectives conveying opinion, Tabloid Baby sub-corpus

(79) It is **wonderful** news...; it is a **wonderful** moment...; a "**wonderful** baby, **beautiful** baby"; (B-Tab)

Nouns

As mentioned earlier in this section on the Baby sub-corpus, nouns are not used often to express opinion; the only two instances are shown in Table 5-29. The two nouns are presented in (80).

Sub-corpus Baby	Nouns
Tabloids	pressure(1), rumours(1)

Table 5-29 Nouns conveying opinion, Tabloid Baby sub-corpus

(80) Diana told how the **pressure** from the media and public forced her into being induced; after **rumours** she had been spotted began circulating. (B-Tab)

Verbs

Similarly to nouns, verbs are also used to a lesser extent in the Tabloid Baby sub-corpus as a means of expressing opinion, than in the Qatada sub-corpus; see Table 5-30 and the example below.

Sub-corpus Baby	Verbs
Tabloids	believe(1), confess (1), scream(1), welcome(2)

Table 5-30 Verbs conveying opinion, Tabloid Baby sub-corpus

(81) Many punters **believe** William and Kate will have a girl... (B-Tab)

5.4. Broadsheet Baby sub-corpus

The KW analysis was not conducted in this sub-corpus for the same reasons as those mentioned in section 5.3.

5.4.1. Attitudinal categories

5.4.1.1. Emotion

Interestingly, the broadsheets express very little positive emotion in their news. Compared to the tabloids the number of adjective tokens expressing emotion is very low, as is the number of nouns and verbs, see Table 5-31 and Table 5-23 for comparison.

Broadsheet Baby - emotion	Raw frequency	Per 1,000words
Adjectives	7	3
Nouns	3	1
Verbs	4	2
Total	14	6

Table 5-31 Realization of emotion, Broadsheet Baby sub-corpus

Adjectives

The adjectives exploited in the broadsheets (Table 5-32) were of a positive nature but their frequency and variety is much lower than in the tabloids (cf. Table 5-24). For example, the most frequent adjective *happy/ier* expressing happiness in Martin and White's terms appears

only once in the broadsheets, in the quotation that was also given by the tabloids. The adjective *delighted* is relatively frequent both in the tabloids and the broadsheets, see (82).

Sub-corpus Baby	Adjectives
Broadsheets	delighted(3), grateful(1), happy/ier(1), overjoyed(1), proud(1)

Table 5-32 Adjectives conveying emotion, Broadsheet Baby sub-corpus

(82) Prince Harry and members of both families have been informed and are **delighted** with the news. (B-Broad)

Nouns

Nouns are used to convey emotion only three times, see Table 5-33 and example (83).

Sub-corpus Baby	Nouns
Broadsheets	happiness (1),nuisance(1),relief(1)

Table 5-33 Nouns conveying emotion, Broadsheet Baby sub-corpus

(83) ...”I wish them and their son all **happiness** and good health (B-Broad)

Verbs

Four types of verbs express emotion in the broadsheets, the verbs used are different from those used in the tabloids (apart from *want*), see Table 5-34. The verb *want* does not convey the positive flow of the article; it is used negatively in contrast with the overall positive tone of the article, see example (84).

Sub-corpus Baby	Verbs
Broadsheets	delight(1), enjoy(1), want(1), wish(1)

Table 5-34 Verbs conveying emotion, Broadsheet Baby sub-corpus

(84) “I just **want** people to question whether this person being born is any more special than the rest of us. Why are we making all this fuss and spending all this money when disabled people are having their benefits taken away.” (B-Broad)

5.4.1.2. Opinion

Similarly to the tabloids (cf. Table 5-27), it is clear that adjectives are the main means used to express positive opinion in this sub-corpus. Other word classes are presented less frequently. It was expected that nominalisation would be applied in the broadsheets to a larger extent, but findings do not prove this expectation. Moreover, verbs are not employed as much for expressing emotion in this corpus or in the whole Qatada sub-corpus, see Table 5-35.

Baby broadsheet - opinion	Raw frequency	Per 1,000words
Adjectives	16	7
Nouns	3	1
Verbs	3	1
Total	22	9

Table 5-35 Realization of opinion, Broadsheet Baby sub-corpus

Adjectives

Some of the adjectives that are used to convey opinion in the Broadsheet Baby sub-corpus are identical to the adjectives found in the tabloids, e.g. *kind*, *unique*, *wonderful*, *special*, and *important*, see Table 5-36. *Kind* and *unique* are used in the same quotation as in the tabloids, see example (85). *Wonderful*, *special*, *important* can be seen in different patterns, see examples (86)-(88).

Sub-corpus Baby	Adjectives
Broadsheets	sweltering(2), kind(2), important(1), outstanding(1), blistering(1), favourite(1), febrile(1), sexist(1), terse(1), special(1), good(1)sufficient(1), unique(1), wonderful(1),

Table 5-36 Adjectives conveying opinion, Broadsheet Baby sub-corpus

- (85) “Grandparenthood is a unique moment in anyone’s life, as countless **kind** people have told me in recent months,...” (B-Broad)
- (86) ... this person being born is any more **special** than the rest of us. (B-Broad)
- (87) ...the Duke and Duchess will make **wonderful** parents...(B-Broad)
- (88) ...carrying the **all-important** piece of paper at 8.36pm. (B-Broad)

The rest of the adjectives are not, surprisingly, used in connection with the baby and its parents, but with the weather in which the media/journalists had to work, or the adjectives express judgement on the media/journalists, see the examples (89) - (91). It seems that the broadsheets fulfilled their role to announce the positive news, yet with very little emotion, but on the other hand they judgementally dwelled on what hard work the media do.

- (89) The combination of **sweltering** conditions and crowded pavements tested the patience...(B-Broad)
- (90) Under the **blistering** heat of the hottest July day since 2006, representatives of 150 television stations(B-Broad)
- (91) ...ended a day of increasingly **febrile** media reporting...(B-Broad)

Nouns

Only three nouns were found to express opinion in the Broadsheet Baby sub-corpus. The nouns are shown in Table 5-37. The examples can be found below the table.

Sub-corpus Baby	Nouns
Broadsheets	dignity(1), flutter(1), fuss(1)

Table 5-37 Nouns conveying opinion, Broadsheet Baby sub-corpus

(92) ...title and attribute of royal highness with the titular **dignity** of prince or princess...(B-Broad)

(93) Punters who have had a **flutter** on the royal name...(B-Broad)

(94) Why are we making all this **fuss** and spending...(B-Broad)

Verbs

Only three types of verbs are used to express opinion, see Table 5-38.

Sub-corpus Baby	Verbs
Broadsheets	shout(1), pipe up(1), warn(1)

Table 5-38 Verbs conveying opinion, Broadsheet Baby sub-corpus

(95) As crowds **shouted** congratulations, and one joker **piped up** "It's triplets" (B-Broad)

(96) proceeded to broadcast his views before being **warned** by police that he might be creating a public nuisance (B-Broad)

5.4.2. Conclusions – Baby sub-corpus

The quantitative summary of the Baby sub-corpus is shown in Table 5-39. When the tabloids and the broadsheets are compared, we can see that tabloids have a greater tendency to portray positive news than the broadsheets (the tabloids show 30 instances of evaluative items per 1,000 words and the broadsheets only 15). Regarding emotion, the tabloids exploit mainly adjectives and, to a much lesser extent, verbs to express it, while the broadsheets rely on adjectives. However, the occurrences of the analysed word classes per 1,000 words are really low since the broadsheets seem to be reluctant to construe positive emotion. The same pattern appears in the expression of opinion. The tabloids express opinion almost twice as frequently as do the broadsheets, and they do so mainly via adjectives. Similarly to conveying emotion, the broadsheets seem to be reluctant to express positive opinion. Positive opinion is not construed by verbs as frequently as in the negative sub-corpus. One of the most interesting findings is that nouns do not play an important role in expressing positive news. The

assumption that adjectives are the most productive word class to construe evaluation (Hunston and Sinclair, 2000) has been proved here.

	Tabloids		Broadsheets	
	<i>Raw frequency</i>	<i>Per 1,000 words</i>	<i>Raw frequency</i>	<i>Per 1,000 words</i>
Baby - emotion				
Adjectives	27	9	7	3
Nouns	4	1	3	1
Verbs	12	4	4	2
Total	43	14	14	6
Baby - opinion				
Adjectives	41	14	16	7
Nouns	2	1	3	2
Verbs	5	2	3	1
Total	48	16	22	9
Grand total	91	30	36	15

Table 5-39 Means expressing opinion and emotion, Baby sub-corpus. Baby sub-corpus results referring to emotion are in orange, Baby sub-corpus results referring to opinion are in green. Grand total results of the Baby sub-corpus are in blue.

Figure 5-21 and Figure 5-22 show the distribution of adjectives, nouns, and verbs both in the emotion and opinion dimensions, in the Baby sub-corpus.

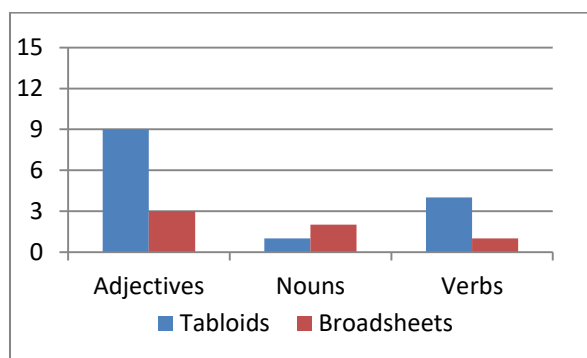


Figure 5-21 Realization of emotion, Baby sub-corpus (per 1,000 words)

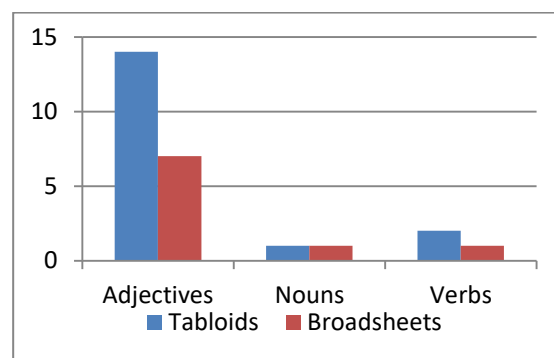


Figure 5-22 Realization of opinion, Baby sub-corpus (per 1,000 words)

Table 5-40 shows the occurrence of expressions conveying emotion and opinion in the Baby sub-corpus per 1,000 words. The difference between the two kinds of newspaper is remarkable. The analysis has pointed out that the broadsheets are reluctant to express positive attitude in either way (emotion or opinion). The tabloids have a much higher inclination to

show positive news than the broadsheets (the ‘emotion’ ratio between the tabloids and the broadsheets is 2.5:1, and the ‘opinion’ ratio is 1.7:1). The table below shows that the difference between the representation of emotion and opinion in the tabloids is almost non-existent. This phenomenon has not been seen so far. In other words, positive emotion and opinion is expressed more or less equally in the tabloids, while the broadsheets, if they express positive news, are more prone to construe it as opinion. However, one cannot be surprised as the role of broadsheet newspapers is to present facts. When emotion is expressed, both kinds of newspapers construe ‘satisfaction’ and ‘happiness’ via *happy/ier, delight/delighted, proud, wonderful, etc.*

Corpus	Category	Tabloids	Broadsheets
Baby	Emotion	14	6
	Opinion	16	9

Table 5-40 Emotion and opinion occurrences (per 1,000 words), Baby sub-corpus

5.5. Conclusions - the small corpus

The aim of the small corpus analysis was to establish what means British online newspapers use to express attitude, and whether there is more opinion or emotion portrayed. As the partial conclusions of each sub-corpus were described in respective sections, see 5.2.3. and 5.4.2., this summary will comment on the comparison of the two sub-corpora – the “negative” Qatada and the “positive” Baby, and on the comparison of the tabloids and the broadsheets in terms of expressing opinion and emotion within the terms of the small corpus.

It must be mentioned that although the corpus is small, it does not need to be a drawback; on the contrary, it allows a detailed analysis of attitudinal expressions in context. The study has proved that the interpretation of such expressions is context-dependent. One of the most important findings is that evaluative lexis creates clusters, and in the context of clusters, expressions, which in isolation are neutral or positive, can be assessed as expressions carrying negative attitude. A drawback could be the fact that this analysis derives from Martin and White’s Appraisal Theory, and sometimes it is difficult to distinguish whether a certain lexical item should be included in the category of graduation or attitude, as these dimensions are so closely interwoven.

Altogether 363⁹⁰ tokens of attitudinal lexis were found in the small corpus, 231 in the tabloids, and 132 in the broadsheets. The Qatada sub-corpus comprises 140⁹¹ tokens in the tabloids and 96 in the broadsheets. The Baby sub-corpus includes 91⁹² tokens in the tabloids and 36 in the broadsheets. Based on the normalised frequency per 1,000 words, it can be concluded that negative news is more frequently emotion and opinion loaded than the positive news. Table 5-41 presents the quantitative summary of the findings.

	Tabloids		Broadsheets	
	raw frequency	per 1,000 words	raw frequency	per 1,000 words
Qatada - emotion				
Adjectives	6	3	11	5
Nouns	8	4	5	2
Verbs	16	8	1	0.5
Total	30	15	17	8
Qatada - opinion				
Adjectives	32	16	26	12
Nouns	47	23	34	16
Verbs	31	15	19	9
Total	110	55	79	38
Qatada total	140	70	96	46
Baby - emotion				
Adjectives	27	9	7	3
Nouns	4	1	3	1
Verbs	12	4	4	2
Total	43	14	14	6
Baby - opinion				
Adjectives	41	14	16	7
Nouns	2	1	3	1
Verbs	5	2	3	1
Total	48	16	22	9
Baby total	91	30	36	15
Small corpus total	231	46	132	30

Table 5-41 Summary of emotion and opinion realizations in the small corpus. The overall findings of the small corpus are highlighted in blue, the total Qatada sub-corpus findings are in orange, the total Baby sub-corpus findings are in green.

⁹⁰ Highlighted in blue.

⁹¹ Highlighted in orange.

⁹² Highlighted in green.

Further, the detailed research revealed differences in expressing attitude between the tabloids and the broadsheets and the types of news, i.e. whether the news is positive or negative. The study showed that attitude is portrayed more frequently via opinion than emotion in both types of newspapers, particularly when negative news is reported; see Table 5-42 and Figure 5-23. The table below shows that the most balanced ratio between conveying opinion and emotion is in the Tabloid Baby sub-corpus. The Broadsheet Baby sub-corpus shows a slightly wider gap between expressing the dimensions of opinion and emotion, and opinion prevails. The Qatada sub-corpus exhibits much wider discrepancies. The Tabloid Qatada sub-corpus outnumbers the Broadsheets Qatada sub-corpus in all dimensions; in addition, the broadsheets stand out in the opinion/emotion ratio, which is 4:1 (it is 3:1 in the tabloids).

Corpus	Category	Tabloids	Broadsheets
Qatada - sub-corpus	Emotion	15	8
	Opinion	55	38
Baby - sub-corpus	Emotion	14	6
	Opinion	16	9

Table 5-42 Comparison of emotion and opinion in the small corpus (frequency per 1,000 words)

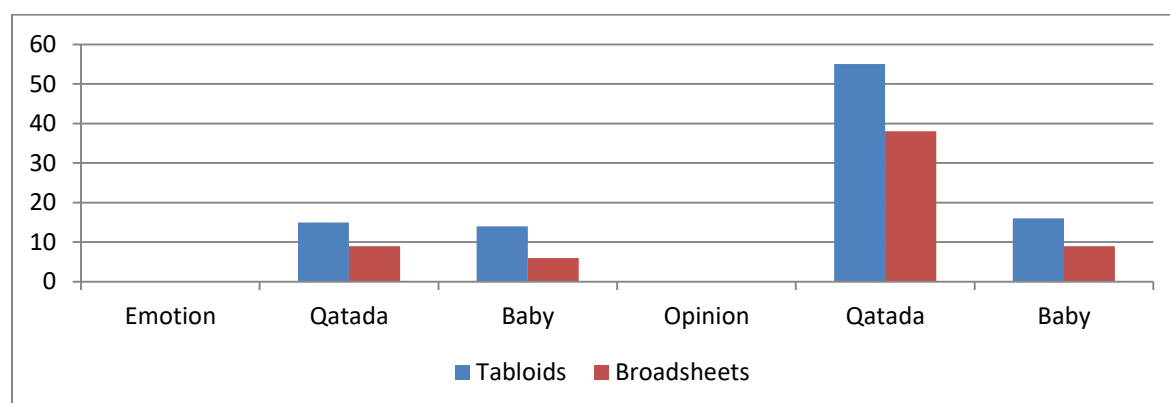


Figure 5-23 Frequency of expressions conveying emotion and opinion in each sub-corpus (per 1,000 words)

Figure 5-23 presents the comparison of the discrepancies. For example, the broadsheets show less emotion in the Baby sub-corpus than in the Qatada sub-corpus. The difference in the tabloids is marginal; both the Tabloid Qatada and Tabloid Baby sub-corpora show almost the same number of expressions conveying emotion. There is a remarkable difference in expressing the dimension of opinion. Opinion is displayed most frequently in the Qatada sub-corpus; the number of instances is approximately three times higher than in the Baby sub-corpus. It can be said that the Baby sub-corpus emotion and opinion-loaded expressions ratio

is more balanced in both kinds of newspapers than in the Qatada sub-corpus, see Table 5-42. Therefore, positive news appears to be expressed equally in terms of emotion and opinion, while negative news mainly relies on opinion.⁹³

As regards the main means expressing the dimensions of emotion and opinion, the individual sub-corpora pointed to the probably most important fact that verbs play a key role in expressing emotion, especially in the tabloid negative sub-corpus. The overall findings prove that verbs should be considered a word class that can be relied on when expressing negative emotion, along with the adjectives, especially in the tabloids. The broadsheets traditionally rely on emotion – laden adjectives, see Figure 5-24. The sub-corpora further show that positive emotion, which is expressed more reluctantly, relies on adjectives. The dimension of opinion, confirms the well-known fact that adjectives are the main word class used to express it. However, the Tabloid Qatada sub-corpus highlights the importance of negative nouns, which often appear in ‘V n’ and ‘n N’ patterns. Individual representation of word classes found in the dimensions of emotion and opinion are shown in Figures 5-24 and 5-25.

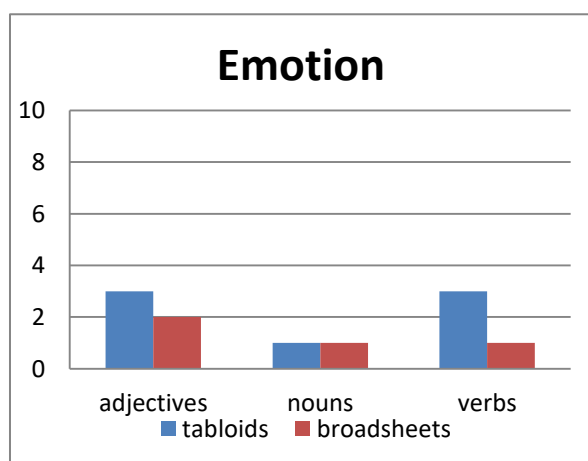


Figure 5-24 Main means expressing emotion in the small corpus (per 1,000 words)

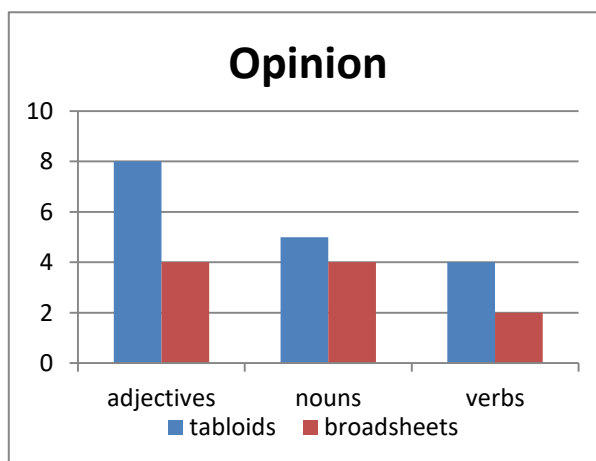


Figure 5-25 Main means expressing opinion in the small corpus (per 1,000 words)

Moreover on the issue concerning the main means expressing attitude, Figure 5-26 shows that in the whole small corpus, the main lexical means used to express both emotion and opinion is adjectives, which represent 45.7 per cent of all attitudinal expressions (tokens) found in the small corpus, followed by nouns (29.2 per cent), and evaluation-laden verbs (25.1 per cent).

⁹³ Bednarek (2006: 16) points out that negative news is more attractive for the readers than positive news. According to Bednarek and Caple (2012: 48) negative news frequently creates the value of Impact.

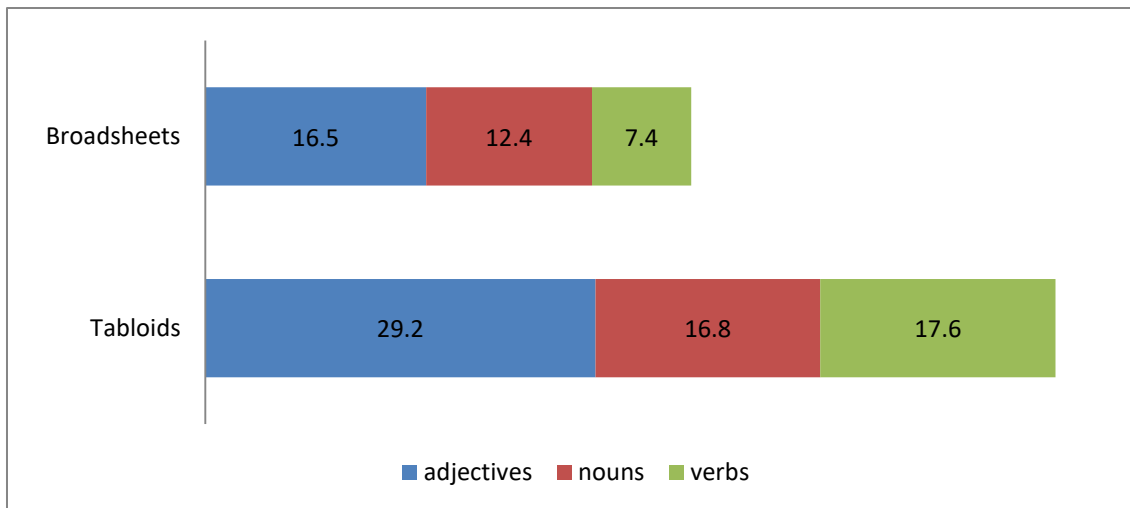


Figure 5-26 Distribution of all important attitudinal means in the small corpus (percentage)

The present research findings prove Hunston and Sinclair's (2000) observations that adjectives are the most prone word category to construe evaluation (in my terms the dimensions of opinion and emotion). However limited, the research also indicates possible directions of future research; verbs in news deserve a closer analysis (i.e. in a bigger corpus) to see whether they appear in certain patterns. Hunston and Francis (2000) already started this but used verbs in general discourse, not news. In addition, patterns of nouns could be studied in the news discourse to see to what extent they are associated with local grammar of evaluation and what types of evaluation they construe. Adjectives, the most frequent attitudinal means, have already been explored in detail, though not thoroughly in news discourse. That is why the following part of this thesis focuses on evaluative patterns with an adjectival core.

6. Pattern Analysis

6.1. Non-graded adjectival patterns

Table 6-1 summarizes the non-graded adjectival patterns that make up a ‘local grammar of evaluation’ (Hunston and Sinclair, 2000) conveyed by adjectives in the broadsheet and the tabloid newspapers, which were identified in my corpus. The transcription of the non-graded patterns is complemented by illustrative examples; more examples will be provided in the text. The patterns are examined in detail below, including the discourse functions of the elements of the particular pattern and lists of evaluative adjectives which occur in the pattern.

Pattern	Transcription	Example	Source
1a	<i>it</i> v-link ADJ finite/non-finite clause	<i>It is unclear what Scott was doing...</i> <i>It was wrong that many young people in work had to stay at home...</i>	B_Dec_09 B_Jun_25
1b	<i>it</i> v-link ADJ <i>for/of</i> n <i>to</i> -inf	<i>It is very important for us to try to resolve this without recourse to outside military intervention.</i> <i>It must be wonderful for them to come to their dream home.</i>	B_Feb_07 T_Feb_03
1c	V <i>it</i> ADJ finite/non-finite clause (<i>find/consider</i>)	<i>I was still finding it hard to comprehend what had happened</i>	T_May_03
1d	<i>it</i> V n <i>feel</i> ADJ <i>to</i> -inf ⁹⁴	<i>It makes me feel sick to think where she could be now.</i>	T_Oct_12_03
1e	V <i>it</i> as ADJ/ V <i>it</i> ADJ	<i>...the public will find it unacceptable...</i>	B_May_03
2	<i>There</i> v-link <i>something/anything/nothing</i> ADJ <i>about/in/with</i> <i>ing</i> -clause/n	<i>There is nothing wrong with people planning their tax affairs...</i> <i>There is nothing new about this.</i>	B/T_Jun_21 B_Apr_02
3a	v-link ADJ <i>to</i> -inf	<i>...he had been right to campaign ferociously...</i> <i>I'm happy to apologise alongside them</i>	B_Ap_23 T_Dec_01

⁹⁴ Bednarek (2009) presents pattern 1d as ‘*it* V n ADJ *that*’, however, her precise pattern was not attested in the corpus, therefore our modification is included. More details on pattern 1d are presented in section 6.1.4.

3b	v-link ADJ <i>that</i>	<i>...she was very satisfied that we took good decisions on growth.</i> <i>We are not confident that we have recovered all the grenades...</i>	B_Jun_29 T_Sep_12_20
4	v-link ADJ prep	<i>...he was responsible for all the postings made on October 3 and 4.</i> <i>... to be very embarrassing for the Metropolitan police...</i>	T_Oct_12_08 B_Apr_12
5	Pseudo-cleft <i>what</i> v-link ADJ prep v-link <i>that</i> clause/n <i>what</i> v-link ADJ v-link clause/n <i>what</i> n V ADJ v-link clause/n	<i>What I think is wrong is pay going up...</i> <i>What is certain is that they wanted to kill him.</i>	B_Jan_08 T_Sep_12_07
6	Patterns with general nouns ADJ n <i>about</i> n v-link clause/n ADJ n v-link clause/n	<i>The hard truth is that we still have a system...</i> <i>The critical thing is that when events change...</i>	B_Sep_11_27 B_Oct_11_25

Table 6-1 List of non-graded patterns with examples

Table 6-2 then represents quantitative results of the analysis, along with relative occurrence per 10,000 words. It shows that the total number of patterns (tokens) found in the corpus is 907. There is not a marked difference in the overall number of patterns between the broadsheets (480) and the tabloids (427), yet the partial results are different. The individual patterns with a detailed analysis are discussed below.

Pattern ⁹⁵		Broadsheets		Tabloids		Total	
		<i>raw freq</i>	<i>per 10,000 words</i>	<i>raw freq</i>	<i>per 10,000 words</i>	<i>raw freq</i>	<i>per 10,000 words</i>
1a	<i>it v-link ADJ finite/non-finite clause</i>	147	5.4	97	3.7	244	4.6
1b	<i>it v-link ADJ for n to-inf</i>	18	0.7	12	0.5	30	0.6
1c	<i>V it ADJ finite/non-finite clause (find/believe/think)</i>	8	0.3	9	0.3	17	0.3
1d	<i>it V n feel ADJ to-inf</i>	0	0.0	1	0.0	1	0.0
1e	<i>V it ADJ</i>	1	0.0	1	0.0	2	0.0
2	<i>there v-link something/anything/nothing ADJ about/in/with ing-clause/n</i>	3	0.1	3	0.1	6	0.1
3a	<i>v-link ADJ to-inf</i>	130	4.8	106	4.1	236	4.4
3b	<i>v-link ADJ that</i>	47	1.7	31	1.1	78	1.5
4	<i>v-link ADJ prep</i>	109	4.0	156	6.0	265	5.0
5	<i>Pseudo-cleft</i>	5	0.2	5	0.2	10	0.2
6	<i>Patterns with general nouns</i>	12	0.4	6	0.2	18	0.3
	Total	480	17.6	427	16.3	907	17.0

Table 6-2 Representation of non-graded adjectival patterns in the tabloids and the broadsheets

6.1.1. Pattern 1a *it v-link ADJ finite / non-finite clause*

Pattern 1a is the most general evaluative adjectival pattern described by Bednarek (2009) and Hunston and Sinclair (2000). It is also one of the most frequent patterns in my corpus (see Table 6-2).

		<i>Evaluative category</i>	<i>Thing evaluated</i> ⁹⁶	No. ⁹⁷	Source
it ⁹⁸	v-link	adjective group	finite or non-finite clause		
it	was	essential	that Greek unity government restored confidence in the markets...	117	B_Nov_06
it	is	useless	to persist.	107	B_Nov_07
it	is	unclear	whether the handshake ...will be in private...	7	B_Jun_22
it	is	unclear	if the same will happen today.	2	B_Jun_22
it	is	unclear	how Italy is going to refinance £300bn next year	4	B_Nov_06
it	is	unclear	what will happen to those...	5	B_Jun_22
it	was	difficult	telling Sarah what to do.	2	T_Jan_01

Table 6-3 Pattern 1a - form and function, different kinds of complementation

⁹⁵ The transcription of the patterns in this table has been modified based on our findings.

⁹⁶ *Thing evaluated* plus other categories in italic indicated in the following tables express discourse functions in the pattern. The category labels are based on Bednarek (2007b) and Hunston and Sinclair (2000).

⁹⁷ The number of occurrences of the various dependent clauses includes both the tabloids and the broadsheets.

⁹⁸ The transcription '*it v-link ADJ finite/ non-finite clause*' describes the form of the pattern.

Pattern 1a expresses only opinion. The ‘thing evaluated’ (in Hunston and Sinclair’s (2000) terms) in this pattern is a finite or non-finite clause represented by a *that*-clause, *to*-infinitive clause, *wh*-clause, *if/whether* clause, *how*-clause, or *ing*-clause. Table 6-3 displays all the types of complementation in pattern 1a and their quantitative representation in the corpus.

Syntactically, the dependent clause can be characterized as a subject content clause in extraposition, anticipated by the *it* subject. As expected, the adjective group, in this pattern, is most frequently followed by *that* or *to*-infinitive clauses. These unmarked clauses will be closely described later. The analysis will begin with the other above-mentioned types of clauses, which display some specific features.

Dependent clauses

Firstly, the *if/whether* and *wh*-clauses occur only in the broadsheets. Secondly, in addition to Bednarek’s (2009) pattern description (see Table 3-40) my corpus also shows four instances of *how*-clauses, which also appear only in the broadsheets (see Figure 6-1 below). Thirdly, and most interestingly, the interrogative dependent clauses follow only the adjective *unclear* or negated adjective *clear*. There are no other adjectives used with these dependent clauses in my corpus. This finding reveals typical pattern behaviour – the lexico-grammatical connection, i.e. the closely interwoven choice of an adjective and a dependent clause.

it	is	unclear	what	Scott was doing that night and sadly the only person
it	is	unclear	if	Russia will abstain or use its veto. Moscow has opposed
it	is	unclear	how	long he had been based in the region, or whether
it	remains	unclear	how	much of the 100bn Spain would need,
it	is	unclear	whether	the handshake on Wednesday morning will be in private
it	is	unclear	if	the same will happen today. although NatWest has said
it	is	unclear	what	will happen to those who do not bank with it that have
it	was	unclear	whether	the panjwayi killings would prompt similar violence.
it	was	unclear	how	Italy is going to refinance 300bn next year, though
it	was	unclear	how	much of Obama’s tough rhetoric was, at least in part,
it	was	unclear	who	had killed Meredith. "it's still very difficult to s
it	is not yet	clear	whether	the inquiry will be asking figures such as the isaf
it	is not	clear	whether	this would trigger the government's stated commitment
it	is	not clear	what	had prompted Syrian forces to launch
	immediately			

Figure 6-1 Pattern 1a - complementation with interrogative dependent clauses

Fourthly, the gerund *ing*-complementation⁹⁹ occurs just twice in the corpus, once in each sub-corpus, see examples (97) and (98).

(97) It was difficult telling Sarah what to do. (T_Jan_01)

(98) It was fascinating watching the Conservatives ... (B_Oct_11_24)

Fifthly, when this pattern is used, the tabloids prefer using *that/to*-infinitive dependent clauses, whereas the broadsheets have a tendency to exploit all means of complementation available for this pattern, yet *that* and *to*-infinitive clauses dominate, see Table 6-3.

Adjectives

Table 6-4 presents all adjectives used in pattern 1a.

Sub-corpora	Adjectives
Broadsheets	clear(24), important(18), right(16), unclear(12), possible(8), wrong(6), vital(6), essential(6), unlikely(5), unacceptable(4), likely(4), necessary(3), fascinating(3), disappointing(3), unfair(2), hard(2), crucial(2), appropriate(2), absurd(2), easy(2), useless(1), unthinkable(1), sustainable(1), surprising(1), shocking(1), racist(1), offensive(1), legitimate(1), irresponsible(1), insane(1), impossible(1), implausible(1), imperative(1), fair(1), damaging(1), counter-intuitive(1), acceptable(1)
Tabloids	clear(17), right(11), important(9), wrong(6), likely(4), difficult(4), unthinkable(3), inappropriate(3), imperative(3), wonderful(2), vital(2), unlikely(2), outrageous(2), interesting(2), humbling(2), good(2), fair(2), useful(1), unfair(1), undignified(1), true(1), terrific(1), safe(1), regrettable(1), possible(1), pointless(1), plausible(1), petty(1), necessary(1), incredible(1), impossible(1), hard(1), exciting(1), essential(1), easy(1), disappointed(1), cool(1), amazing(1)

Table 6-4 Pattern 1a – adjectives (the numbers in brackets give the absolute numbers of each adjective in the respective sub-corpora)

When closely analysing the adjectives which occur in this pattern, it was found that the adjective *clear* is the most frequent adjective used in both sub-corpora. The adjective *clear*, in positive clauses, is only complemented by a *that*-clause. When the adjective *clear* is negated i.e. *not clear*, the superordinate clause expresses lack of knowledge or certainty, and is followed by a dependent interrogative *wh*-clause accordingly (cf. Dušková et al. <http://www.mlumniceanglictiny.cz/16.21.2>). All together there are 41 tokens of this adjective in this pattern in the whole corpus (exx (99) - (101)).

(99) It is clear that we are seeing the effect of the international economic crisis
(T_Oct_11_12)

⁹⁹The constructions with anticipatory *it* and extraposed gerund subject is considered informal (Dušková et al. <http://www.mlumniceanglictiny.cz/15.21>).

- (100) It is not clear whether this would trigger the government's stated commitment to a referendum...(B_Oct_11_24)
- (101) It was clear that acts of terrorism would be committed on that person's return. (B_Feb_01)

The broadsheets make frequent use of the adjectives *important*, *right*, and *unclear*; the tabloids have a tendency to use *right*, *important*, and *wrong*. All these adjectives apart from *unclear* (Figure 6-1) are complemented by *that* or *to*-infinitive clauses. *Important* and *right*, which are both used frequently in both kinds of newspapers, tend to express positive/approval meaning (exx.(102)-(111)).

- (102) It is important to put the UK relationship with the rest of the EU in its proper context. (B_Dec_13)
- (103) It was vitally important that the facts were put before a jury for their inconsideration. (B_Feb_08)
- (104) It is important to note that both the stand-alone rating and short-term ratings remain unchanged. (T_Oct_11_07)
- (105) It is important that we all together, (the whole) European Union shows that ... (T_Dec_08)
- (106) It is right to press ahead with the controversial reforms... (B_May_09)
- (107) It is right that we look into the details of them... (B_Oct_11_08)
- (108) It is right to suspend sanctions that there are against Burma. (T_Apr_13)
- (109) It is also right that the House should have an opportunity to debate the issues raised in this report fully. (T_Sep_12_12)
- (110) It is wrong to make sweeping generalisations about any race, creed, or culture.(T_Jan_05)
- (111) It was wrong that the police changed the records of what happened and tried to blame the fans. (T_Sep_12_12)

There are 57 types of adjectives used in the 244 instances of this pattern. The results have shown that there is not a great difference in the range of adjectives between the sub-corpora, the three most frequently used adjectives are the same for both the sub-corpora. Therefore, to find a more subtle difference between the sub-corpora, Hunston's (2004) approach to 'it v-link ADJ *that*' pattern was adopted. She analysed this pattern in *The New Scientist* (a quasi-academic publication, which could be compared to broadsheets) and the *Sun/News of the World* (tabloid newspapers), and found that the frequency of this pattern in her corpora was more or less the same regardless of the type of publication (a similar situation can be found in

my corpus); however, she discovered the contrast elsewhere. She compared the semantic categories of the adjectives used. She classified the adjectives into the following categories: ‘clear’, ‘possible’, ‘important’, ‘surprising’, ‘good’, and ‘bad’. She found that *The New Scientist* makes frequent use of adjectives carrying the semantic meaning of ‘possible’ and ‘clear’, while the *Sun* prefers ‘important’ and ‘clear’¹⁰⁰ (Hunston, 2004: 173-174).

The findings based on my corpus show that the pattern ‘*it* vlink ADJ finite / non-finite clause’ is employed in the broadsheets most frequently to assess the clarity (25.5%) or the importance (25.5%) of the proposition, while in the tabloids it is associated mostly with evaluating the proposition as ‘good’ (25.8%) or ‘bad’ (24.7%). With the type/token ratio 44% and 50%, respectively, the categories of ‘good’ and ‘bad’ also display a great variety of adjectives.¹⁰¹ There are 11 different adjectives used to express the positive evaluation and 12 evaluating the proposition as ‘bad’. Both the relatively high representation of the ‘good’ and ‘bad’ evaluative categories and the broad range of the different adjectives used to express the evaluation suggest the importance assigned to these categories in the tabloid newspapers. The expression of opinion on whether the phenomena evaluated are (and perhaps should be) seen as good or bad prevails over the expression of epistemic and deontic stance (‘clear’, ‘possible’ and ‘important’).

The relative representation of the individual categories of adjectives in the broadsheets appears to be quite different. The pattern 1a comprises mostly adjectives of the ‘clear’ (25.5%), ‘important’ (25.5%) and ‘possible’ (20.4%) classes, with the greatest variability within these classes occurring in the category of ‘possible’ adjectives (type/token ratio 40%, 12 different adjectives).¹⁰² The general picture of the evaluation conveyed by pattern 1a in the broadsheets is therefore quite different from that found in the tabloids. The focus is on epistemic stance rather than on assessing the proposition as ‘good’ or ‘bad’. The broadsheets present the phenomena evaluated as ‘possible’ or ‘(un)clear’, stressing the ‘importance’ of what is reported.

¹⁰⁰ The ‘*it* v-link ADJ *to*-inf / *that*’ pattern was also analysed by Groom (2005), who labels the meaning groups as ADEQUACY, DESIRABILITY, DIFFICULTY, EXPECTATION, IMPORTANCE and VALIDITY.

¹⁰¹ This comparison excludes the marginal category of ‘surprising’ adjectives which comprises only two occurrences of the pattern in the tabloids, each with a different adjective (*incredible*, *amazing*). The range of different adjectives used within the category ‘possible’ is also relatively high (53.8%); the category, however, occurs less frequently than the ‘good’ and ‘bad’ categories in the tabloids.

¹⁰² The largest type/token ratio can be found in the category ‘bad’; but the category is underrepresented in the broadsheets data, constituting 12.2% of the adjectives used. The ‘surprising’ adjectives form 3.4% of the broadsheet data.

Categories	Broadsheets	types	tokens	type/ token ratio	Tabloids	types	tokens	type/ token ratio
'clear'	<i>clear</i> (24) <i>unclear</i> (12)	2	36 25.5%	5.5%	<i>clear</i> (17)	1	17 17.5%	5.9%
'possible'	<i>unlikely</i> (5) <i>possible</i> (8) <i>unacceptable</i> (4) <i>likely</i> (4) <i>easy</i> (2) <i>unthinkable</i> (1) <i>legitimate</i> (1) <i>sustainable</i> (1) <i>impossible</i> (1) <i>implausible</i> (1) <i>counter- intuitive</i> (1) <i>acceptable</i> (1)	12	30 20.4%	40.0%	<i>likely</i> (4) <i>unlikely</i> (2) <i>unthinkable</i> (3), <i>possible</i> (1) <i>plausible</i> (1) <i>impossible</i> (1) <i>easy</i> (1)	7	13 13.4%	53.8%
'important'	<i>important</i> (18) <i>essential</i> (6) <i>vital</i> (6) <i>crucial</i> (2) <i>necessary</i> (3) <i>imperative</i> (1)	6	36 25.5%	16.7%	<i>important</i> (9) <i>imperative</i> (3) <i>vital</i> (2) <i>necessary</i> (1) <i>essential</i> (1)	5	16 16.5%	31.3%
'good'	<i>fair</i> (1) <i>right</i> (16) <i>fascinating</i> (3) <i>appropriate</i> (2)	4	22 15.0%	18.2%	<i>right</i> (11), <i>wonderful</i> (2) <i>interesting</i> (2), <i>good</i> (2) <i>fair</i> (2), <i>useful</i> (1), <i>true</i> (1), <i>terrific</i> (1) <i>safe</i> (1), <i>cool</i> (1) <i>exciting</i> (1)	11	25 25.8%	44.0%
'bad'	<i>disappointing</i> (3), <i>unfair</i> (2) <i>damaging</i> (1) <i>wrong</i> (6) <i>hard</i> (2) <i>useless</i> (1) <i>racist</i> (1) <i>irresponsible</i> (1), <i>offensive</i> (1)	9	18 12.2%	50.0%	<i>wrong</i> (6), <i>difficult</i> (4), <i>inappropriate</i> (3) <i>outrageous</i> (2) <i>humbling</i> (2), <i>unfair</i> (1) <i>undignified</i> (1) <i>regrettable</i> (1) <i>pointless</i> (1), <i>petty</i> (1) <i>disappointing</i> (1) <i>hard</i> (1)	12	24 24.7%	50.0%
'surprising'	<i>shocking</i> (1) <i>surprising</i> (1) <i>absurd</i> (2) <i>insane</i> (1)	4	5 3.4 %	80.0%	<i>incredible</i> (1) <i>amazing</i> (1)	2	2 2.1%	100%
			147 100%				97 100%	

Table 6-5 Pattern 1a - quantitative results, type/token ratio, adjectives (The percentages in the 'tokens' column give the relative representation of the individual semantic classes of adjectives in the total number of pattern 1a adjectives in each sub-corpus. The 'type/token ratio (TTR) is the ratio obtained by dividing the types (the total number of different adjectives) occurring in the corpus by its tokens (the total number of adjectives), multiplied by 100. A high TTR indicates a high degree of lexical variation while a low TTR indicates the opposite.)

Table 6-6 and Table 6-7 show quantitative differences between the two most frequent variants of pattern 1a - with a finite that-clause and with a to-infinitive clause (see Table 6-3 for more details on dependent clauses). The most obvious difference consists in the absence of the

‘clear’ group from the to-infinitive pattern. Generally, the ‘possible’ adjectives are more frequent with the *that*-clause¹⁰³ while the adjectives which judge the proposition as ‘good’ or ‘bad’ occur more frequently with the infinitival dependent clause both in the broadsheets and in the tabloids.¹⁰⁴ The class of ‘important’ adjectives displays slightly different tendencies in the broadsheets and in the tabloids: it is, overall, more frequent in the broadsheets, representing 27.7% of adjectives in the *that*-clause pattern and 28.6% in the infinitival clause pattern, while the ratio of ‘important’ adjectives in the tabloids is 13.5% and 20.4% in the two patterns, respectively. In the broadsheets the repertory of ‘important’ adjectives used in the finite clause pattern is narrower than in the infinitival pattern, in the tabloids the situation is reversed. ‘Good’ adjectives are the most frequent adjectives in the infinitival pattern, with 18 occurrences in the broadsheets and 17 in the tabloids, representing 28.6% and 38.6% of adjectives, respectively. The type/token ratio in the tabloids is 52.9% and only 16.7% in the broadsheets. This fact could support the findings in the small corpus, where the broadsheets were shown not to prefer positive news (cf. 5.5); the finding indicates that the broadsheets have a tendency to use the neutral adjective *right*, while the tabloids apart from the neutral adjective also include amplified adjectives such as *exciting*, *wonderful*, and *terrific*, which play an important role in creating the readers’ attitude. Notably, the frequency of the ‘good’ and ‘important’ adjectives in the infinitival pattern in the broadsheets, matches the frequency of clarity and importance in the *that* clause pattern. The variety of ‘bad’ adjectives is broader in the infinitival pattern than the finite clause pattern. ‘Bad’ is also more widely used in the broadsheets and the tabloids in the infinitival pattern than the *that* clause pattern. The class ‘surprising’ is not widely employed, but notably more frequently in the broadsheets than the tabloids.

To summarise the findings of the two most frequent variants of pattern 1a, it can be said that the broadsheets do not display a marked preference for either finite *that*-clauses or infinitival clauses (65 occurrences of *that*-clause and 63 of *to-inf*) while the tabloids tend to use slightly more the *that*-clause pattern (52:44).¹⁰⁵ This could be assigned to the fact that the newspapers’ choice of the adjective complementation strongly correlates with the communicative priorities. The broadsheets, via using the non-marked preference of the complementation,

¹⁰³ Hunston (2011: 139) states that ‘*it* v-link ADJ *that*’ includes “assessments of likely affective response.”

¹⁰⁴ Groom (2005: 262) refers to Charles (2000) who “finds that ‘*it* v-link ADJ *to-inf*’ is far more frequently used to construe positive aura...”

¹⁰⁵ Occurrences in the corpus

indicate their objectivity, while the tabloids prove their epistemic precepts via the preference for *that*-clause complementation.

Further, it can be said that the tabloids tend to use the ‘good-bad’ scale to a higher extent than the broadsheets, which intrinsically aim to be objective and abstain from evaluating the reported information. The tabloids, on the other hand, are known for evaluating the information given so the reader can adopt the newspapers’ attitude. The broadsheets use other devices to influence the reader, they prefer to clarify facts and indicate which facts are more important than others; they put forward certain information at the expense of other.

Categories	Broadsheets	types	tokens	type/ token ratio	Tabloids	types	tokens	type/ token ratio
‘clear’	<i>clear</i>	1	18 27.7%	5.5%	<i>clear</i> (17)	1	17 32.7 %	5.9%
‘possible’	<i>unlikely</i> (5) <i>possible</i> (4) <i>unacceptable</i> (4) <i>likely</i> (1) <i>unthinkable</i> (1) <i>legitimate</i> (1)	6	16 24.6%	37.5%	<i>likely</i> (3) <i>unthinkable</i> (3) <i>impossible</i> (1) <i>plausible</i> (1) <i>possible</i> (1) <i>unlikely</i> (1)	6	10 19.2 %	60.0%
‘important’	<i>important</i> (7) <i>essential</i> (5) <i>vital</i> (4) <i>crucial</i> (2)	4	18 27.7%	22.2%	<i>imperative</i> (2) <i>important</i> (2) <i>vital</i> (2) <i>essential</i> (1)	4	7 13.5 %	57.1%
‘good’	<i>fair</i> (1) <i>right</i> (2)	2	3 4.6%	66.7%	<i>right</i> (3), <i>fair</i> (1), <i>good</i> (1) <i>true</i> (1), <i>useful</i> (1) <i>wonderful</i> (1)	6	8 15.4 %	75.0%
‘bad’	<i>disappointing</i> (3) <i>unfair</i> (1) <i>damaging</i> (1) <i>wrong</i> (1)	4	6 9.2%	50.0%	<i>wrong</i> (4) <i>outrageous</i> (2) <i>disappointing</i> (1) <i>regrettable</i> (1)	4	8 15.4 %	50.0%
‘surprising’	<i>shocking</i> (1) <i>surprising</i> (1) <i>absurd</i> (1) <i>insane</i> (1)	4	4 6.2%	100.0%	<i>amazing</i> (1) <i>incredible</i> (1)	2	2 3.8%	100.0%
			65 100.0%				52 100.0 %	

Table 6-6 Pattern 1a - categories of adjectives used in *that* clause complementation, quantitative results

Categories	Broadsheets	types	tokens	type/token ratio	Tabloids	types	tokens	type/token ratio
'clear'		0	0	0		0	0	0
'possible'	<i>possible(4)</i> <i>likely(3)</i> <i>acceptable(1)</i> <i>implausible(1)</i> <i>impossible(1)</i> <i>sustainable(1)</i> <i>counter-intuitive(1)</i> <i>easy(2)</i>	8	14 22.2%	57.0%	<i>likely(1)</i> <i>unlikely(1)</i> <i>easy(1)</i>	3	3 6.8%	100.0%
'important'	<i>important(11)</i> <i>necessary(3)</i> <i>vital(2)</i> <i>essential(1)</i> <i>imperative(1)</i>	5	18 28.6%	27.8%	<i>important(7)</i> <i>imperative(1)</i> <i>necessary(1)</i>	3	9 20.4%	33.3%
'good'	<i>right(14)</i> <i>appropriate(2)</i> <i>fascinating(2)</i>	3	18 28.6%	16.7%	<i>right(8)</i> , <i>interesting(2)</i> , <i>cool(1)</i> , <i>exciting(1)</i> , <i>fair(1)</i> , <i>good(1)</i> , <i>safe(1)</i> , <i>terrific(1)</i> , <i>wonderful(1)</i>	9	17 38.6%	52.9%
'bad'	<i>wrong(5)</i> <i>hard(2)</i> <i>irresponsible(1)</i> <i>offensive(1)</i> <i>racist(1)</i> <i>unfair(1)</i> <i>useless(1)</i>	7	12 19.0%	58.3%	<i>difficult(3)</i> <i>inappropriate(1)</i> <i>humbling(2)</i> <i>hard(1)</i> , <i>petty(1)</i> <i>pointless(1)</i> , <i>wrong(2)</i> , <i>undignified(1)</i> <i>unfair(1)</i>	9	15 34.1%	60.0%
'surprising'	<i>absurd(1)</i> ,	1	1 1.6%	100.0%		0	0 0.0%	0.0%
			63 100.0%				44 100.0%	

Table 6-7 Pattern 1a - categories of adjectives used in *to-inf* complementation, quantitative results

6.1.2. Pattern 1b *it* v-link ADJ *for/of* n *to-inf*

Pattern 1b, examples of which are presented in Table 6-8, focuses on the 'thing evaluated'. The *for/of*-prepositional phrase may function either as the evaluator or as the evaluation carrier in the pattern.

		<i>Evaluative category</i>	<i>Evaluator/ Evaluation carrier</i>	<i>Thing evaluated</i>	Source
it	link verb	adjective group	for +noun group	finite or non-finite clause	
it	is	important	for me	to say to you this morning	B Dec 02
it	would not be	right	for the country	now to have a great big vote on an in/out referendum and the rest of it.	B Oct 11 25

Table 6-8 Pattern 1b - form and function

Further examples include:

- (112) it was easy for his critics to contrast him with Lord Stevens and label him as "New Labour's cop". (B_Apr_16)
- (113) ...it would be natural for banks' capital and liquidity ratios to be run down to ensure that lending to the non-financial economy was not impaired. (B_Sept_11_28)
- (114) It is right for me today as Prime Minister to make a proper apology to the families of the 96 for all they have suffered over the past 23 years. (T_Sep_12_12)
- (115) ...it was hard for them to see me in the papers. (T_Oct_11_16)
- (116) ...it would be inappropriate for us to comment further on the matter at this time." (T_Oct_12_05)

Dušková et al. point out that the participant constructed as a complement of the preposition *for* in this infinitival pattern is assigned the role of the experiencer of the state denoted by the adjective but it:

“can also be the agent of the to-infinitive clause, cf. *It is important for you to take part ...* When the to-infinitive clause is in a preverbal position, the noun in front of the *to*-infinitive clause is its subject, which does not necessarily have to be the experiencer of the act indicated by the predicative adjective. Cf: *For you to take part is important (to us)*. In case of the adjectives *easy/hard/difficult/pleasant* the actant after *for* is always simultaneously the experiencer of the state expressed by the adjective and the agent of the act indicated by the to-infinitive clause e.g. *It was easy/hard/difficult for him to pass the driving test*” (Dušková et al., 1988: 544,¹⁰⁶ my translation).

Therefore, it can be said that the noun group in this pattern has a potentially dual function, combining the functions of the evaluator (i.e. the experiencer) and evaluation carrier (i.e. the participant who performs the action evaluated but is not a direct object or goal of the evaluation). Further, according to Martin (2003) the preposition in this pattern distinguishes

¹⁰⁶ “V případě předložky *for* může být tento aktant zároveň konatelem infinitivního děje, srov. *It is important for you to take part*. Je důležité, abyste se zúčastnil / Je pro vás důležité, abyste se zúčastnil. Stojí-li infinitivní vazba v preverbální pozici, je nomen před infinitivem jen jejím podmětem, který nemusí být totožný s proživatелеm stavu nebo postoje označovaného predikativním adjektivem, srov. *For you to take part is important (to us)*. Je (pro nás) důležité, abyste se zúčastnil.

V případě adjektiv *easy* snadný, *difficult*, *hard* obtížný, těžký, *pleasant* příjemný, člen po *for* vždy vyjadřuje zároveň proživatele stavu označovaného adjektivem i konatele děje vyjádřeného infinitivem, např. *It was easy / hard / difficult for him to pass the driving test*. Bylo pro něho snadné / těžké složit řídičskou zkoušku.”

whether judgement or appreciation is evaluated.¹⁰⁷ Some adjectives that are available for this pattern can appear with both the prepositions *for* and *of*, e.g. *nice, right, sensible, wise, absurd, fair, lovely*, etc. but some collocate only with one. For instance, the preposition *of* is used with, e.g. *clever, prudent, big, fair, generous, right, nice* etc., and *for* with e.g. *reasonable, wise, excellent, good, great, lovely*, etc. (ibid.). In addition, it has been observed that *of* construes actual activity, the so-called ‘realis’, whereas *for* potential activity ‘irrealis’ (see 3.1.1.1). The following examples, taken from Hunston (2011: 134), indicate the differences between the prepositions.

(117) It was lovely of her to send the card. (She sent the card; I judge the action to be lovely)

(118) *It will be lovely for her to be part of it.* (She will be part of it; I judge that she will find the experience lovely)

Both prepositions can construe judgement; the kinds of judgement expressed by each preposition are different. While the *of* pattern describes moral judgement, e.g. *generous, responsible, sweet, thoughtful, brave, smart*; the *for* pattern construes social judgement, e.g. *useful, excellent, rational, fine, great*; and judgement of legality or appropriateness, e.g. *gratifying, interesting, acceptable, appropriate*, see example (116), (ibid.).

Bednarek (2009: 169) challenges Martin’s proposal that this pattern serves to express only opinion (different kinds of judgement and appreciation), she adds an example which according to her construes affect/emotion, e.g. *It was irritating of me to whine*.

Despite this possibility, pattern 1b, in my corpus, expresses only opinion. The pattern is not represented frequently in the corpus. It occurred only 30 times (18 times in the broadsheets and 12 times in the tabloids, see Table 6-2), representing 3.3% of all patterns. Although

¹⁰⁷ Martin (2003) suggests “only instances expressed as or paraphrasable by the first of these would be genuine Judgement. Other instances paraphrasable with *for* would be Appreciation. In some cases, the distinction seems to work. For example, *brave* occurs with the *of* pattern but not with the *for* pattern (e.g. *It’s very brave of her to give up after all these years* but not ‘It is very brave *for* her to . . .’). *Difficult*, on the other hand, occurs with *for* but not *of* (*It’s very difficult for people to have the time and energy to do that* but not ‘It’s very difficult *of* people to have the time . . .’). This suggests that an assessment of bravery is always Judgement whereas an assessment of difficulty is Appreciation, paraphrasable using the Appreciation frame: ‘I consider having the time to do that difficult’. Not all instances are so amenable, however.”

Francis et al. (1998, cited in Hunston 2011),¹⁰⁸ Martin (2003, cited in Huston 2011),¹⁰⁹ Bednarek (2009), and Hunston (2011) analysed this pattern with both prepositions *of* and *for*, the preposition *of* pattern was not attested in my corpus. Therefore, the pattern will be hereafter transcribed as ‘*it v-link ADJ for n to-inf*’.

Sub-corpora	Adjectives
Broadsheets	right(4), important(2), difficult(2), unwise(1), unusual(1), unrealistic(1), outrageous(1), natural(1), legitimate(1), imperative(1), essential(1), easy(1), appropriate(1)
Tabloids	right(5), wonderful(1), normal(1), inappropriate(1), unusual(1), impossible(1), hard(1), important(1)

Table 6-9 Pattern 1b – adjectives

The adjective *right* is the most frequent adjective used in both the sub-corpora, see example (114) and Table 6-8. There are four tokens of it in the broadsheets and five in the tabloids. Other adjectives used in both the sub-corpora are *important* and *unusual*. The tabloids employ, e.g. *hard*, *wonderful*, *inappropriate* or *impossible*. The broadsheets further use *appropriate*, *easy*, *imperative*, *unrealistic*, *unwise*, etc. Altogether there are 18 types of adjectives used. It is worth mentioning that the noun group used after the preposition *for* varies; the broadsheets make use of nouns or complex noun phrases, such as *the country*, *the rest of the world*, *officials*, *government*, *the Prime Minister*, etc., while the tabloids mainly use the personal pronouns *me*, *us*, *them*, and *him*.

6.1.3. Pattern 1c V *it* ADJ finite / non-finite clause (*find/consider*)

Pattern 1c employs the verbs *find* and *consider* as explicit indicators of evaluative meaning.

<i>Evaluator</i>			<i>Evaluative category</i>	<i>Thing evaluated</i>	Source
noun group	verb group	it	adjective group	finite non-finite clause	
I	find	it	very hard	to chill out.	T_Jan_10
I	found	it	incredibly hard	to talk about my ordeal	B_Mar_12

Table 6-10 Pattern 1c - form and function

Further examples include:

- (119) He found it ‘quite difficult’ that the protesters assumed he did not share their viewsB_Oct_11_31)

¹⁰⁸ G. Francis, S. Hunston and E. Manning (1998) *Collins Cobuild Grammar Patterns 2: Nouns and adjectives*. London: HarperCollins.

¹⁰⁹ Martin, J.R. (2003) ‘Introduction’ (Special issue on Appraisal).Text 23. 171–181.

- (120) ...they found it very painful to read me being portrayed as a fame-hungry s**t
(T_Oct_11_16)
- (121) Experts believe it unlikely that they would try to murder children.
(T_Sep_12_09)
- (122) She thought it wrong that she be called to resign. (B_Jan_05)
- (123) I find it frustrating that half the time, these leaders are out of touch.
(B_Jan_05)
- (124) She finds it so hurtful that Derry would say all this (T_Nov_02)

Bednarek (2009: 177) proposes exploring collocations for the verbs *find* and *consider* in this pattern as these verbs, in collocation with adjectives, carry evaluative meaning, especially opinion. She closely analyses *consider*, *find* in the BNC and comes to the conclusion that the pattern ‘*I consider it ADJ finite/non-finite clause*’¹¹⁰ is “associated with the notion of ‘importance’, ‘necessity’, ‘danger’, and ‘suitability’, yet the occurrence of such pattern in the BNC corpus is sparse and no general conclusions can be made” (ibid.). Further, she observes that the pattern ‘*I find it ADJ finite/non-finite*’ is relatively frequent in the BNC; Bednarek claims that the verb is often found with lexis of ‘unexpectedness’ (adjectives such as *strange*, *surprising*, *disturbing*, etc.), ‘extraordinariness’ (*extraordinary*, *amazing*, *incredible*) ‘unbelievability’ (*unthinkable*, *inconceivable*, *indefensible*), and ‘difficulty/non-difficulty’ (*hard*, *difficult*, *impossible*). Besides the lexis, she focuses on complementation by *that* and *to-inf* clauses and notes that the *to-inf* complementation is remarkably more frequent than the *that*-clause (ibid.: 176-180).

There are 17 instances of this pattern in my corpus; the broadsheets use this pattern 8 times and the tabloids 9 times. Apart from examples (120), (123), and (124), which construe emotion, the remaining 14 instances portray opinion. Unlike patterns 1a and 1b, this pattern always expresses who the evaluator is, (viz., e.g. *he* and *they* in examples (120) and (119) respectively). When emotion is expressed amplified lexis or intensifiers are used.

¹¹⁰ According to Martin (2003, in Hunston, 2011: 131) “Appreciation occurs canonically in the frame *I consider it x*, as in *I consider it innovative/unimaginative*. ”

In contrast to Bednarek’s findings, my corpus does not comprise a single occurrence of the verb *consider* in this pattern; therefore, hereafter, the verb will not be included in the pattern transcription.¹¹¹

The lemma *find* was found 15 times across the sub-corpora. The pattern displays a tendency to rely on the *to-inf* complementation (just as in Bednarek’s data). The *that*-clause is represented four times (mainly in the broadsheets), and there is also one occurrence of the *if*-clause complementation. Nearly all the adjectives occurring with the lemma *find* in this pattern fall into the category ‘difficulty/non-difficulty’ (see Figure 6-2). Based on the lexis used in both the sub-corpora, the pattern ‘*find it ADJ finite/non-finite*’ can be described as conveying negative discourse prosody.

<i>the public</i>	<i>will</i>	<i>find</i>	<i>it</i>	<i>unacceptable</i>	<i>if</i>	<i>unions push ahead, he said.</i>	B_May_03
<i>He</i>	<i>had</i>	<i>found</i>	<i>it</i>	<i>strange</i>	<i>that</i>	<i>all Jo’s belongings were there.</i>	B_Oct_11_13
<i>I</i>		<i>find</i>	<i>it</i>	<i>frustrating</i>	<i>that</i>	<i>half the time, these leaders are out of to...</i>	B_Jan_05
<i>He</i>		<i>found</i>	<i>it quite</i>	<i>difficult</i>	<i>that</i>	<i>the protesters assumed he did not share ...</i>	B_Oct_11_31
<i>Banks</i>	<i>were</i>	<i>finding</i>	<i>it</i>	<i>hard</i>	<i>to</i>	<i>borrow money from each other at any ...</i>	B_Jun_28
<i>I</i>		<i>found</i>	<i>it incredibly</i>	<i>hard</i>	<i>to</i>	<i>talk about my ordeal and even now, I ...</i>	B_Mar_12
<i>groups</i>	<i>have</i>	<i>found</i>	<i>it</i>	<i>hard</i>	<i>to</i>	<i>make their voices heard in Whitehall.</i>	B_May_07
<i>She</i>		<i>finds</i>	<i>it so</i>	<i>hurtful</i>	<i>that</i>	<i>Derry would say all this.</i>	T_Nov_02
<i>They</i>		<i>found</i>	<i>it</i>	<i>painful</i>	<i>to</i>	<i>read me being portrayed as ...</i>	T_Oct_11_16
<i>We</i>	<i>are</i>	<i>finding</i>	<i>it extremely</i>	<i>difficult</i>	<i>to</i>	<i>come to terms with the senseless ...</i>	T_Dec_08
<i>I</i>		<i>find</i>	<i>it very</i>	<i>hard</i>	<i>to</i>	<i>chill out.</i>	T_Jan_10
<i>Friends</i>		<i>found</i>	<i>it</i>	<i>difficult</i>	<i>to</i>	<i>stay in the room.</i>	T_Apr_13
<i>He</i>	<i>was</i>	<i>finding</i>	<i>it</i>	<i>hard</i>	<i>to</i>	<i>get a job.</i>	T_Sep_11_24
<i>I</i>	<i>was</i>	<i>still finding</i>	<i>it</i>	<i>hard</i>	<i>to</i>	<i>comprehend what had happened.</i>	T_May_03
<i>I</i>		<i>find</i>	<i>it</i>	<i>difficult</i>	<i>to</i>	<i>forecast how the euro area crisis is going...</i>	T_Oct_11_25

Figure 6-2 Pattern 1c - parsing for the lemma *find*

¹¹¹ It has to be taken into consideration that Bednarek’s corpus was far larger than mine, therefore, if she claims there were just a few instances of this pattern in the BNC; it is not surprising that my corpus showed no examples.

Apart from *find* the other verbs attested in the pattern in my corpus were *believe* and *think*, which occurred only once each, see examples (121) and (122).

Formally, pattern 1c overlaps with another construction, namely ‘*make it clear that/to-inf*’ which occurred 25 times in my corpus, predominantly in the broadsheets (15 occurrences). Generally, *make it clear* prefers *that*-clause complementation. The function of the construction *make it clear that/to-inf*, however, is different from the formally similar pattern 1c; it does not construe evaluative meaning. The form *make clear* is nowadays “a new lexical unit that is not sufficiently recognized by dictionaries” (Smolka, 2010: 233-244). According to Smolka (ibid.) the structure *make clear* could be considered synonymous to the verb *explain* and, therefore, it acts as a *verbum dicendi*. He adds that the *that*-clause object previously expressed in an extraposed structure with an anticipatory *it* has changed position to postposition object omitting *it*. If *make clear* is taken as a verb of speaking, then, the object *that*-clause sentence introduces new information and fulfils the end focus principle, and evaluation is not involved. The verbs *find* and *consider*, which Smolka also analysed, are not verbs of speaking but cognition, reasoning and mental behaviour is embedded in them. They use the anticipatory *it* in the structures and evaluation is involved. Therefore, based on these findings, the structure *make it clear* will not be counted as a part of pattern 1c.

Unlike pattern 1a, pattern 1c does not use many types of adjectives (see Table 6-11); altogether there are only 9. Regarding tokens, the broadsheets show 8 and the tabloids 9. The most frequent type of adjective in both sub-corpora is *hard*. The tabloids also rely on the adjective *difficult*. Other types of adjectives displayed in Table 6-11 were attested only once. All the adjectives convey negative meanings of ‘difficulty’, ‘unacceptability’ or ‘painfulness’.

Sub-corpora	Adjectives
Broadsheets	hard(3), frustrating(1), difficult(1), strange(1), unacceptable(1), wrong(1)
Tabloids	hard(3), difficult(3), unlikely(1), painful(1), hurtful(1)

Table 6-11 Pattern 1c – adjectives

6.1.4. Pattern 1d *it V n ADJ that*

Pattern 1d is the first pattern, in this set, that is truly emotion laden. Yet, it is extremely rare.

	<i>Hinge</i>		<i>Hinge</i>	<i>Evaluating response</i>	<i>Thing evaluated</i>	Source
it	verb group	noun group	v-link	adjective group		
it	makes	me	feel	sick	to think where she could be now	T_Oct_12_03

Table 6-12 Pattern 1d - form and function

Bednarek (2009: 169) suggests that this pattern conveys emotion. However, her pattern was not found in my corpus.¹¹² Instead, only one instance of its variation occurred ‘V n *feel* ADJ finite/non-finite clause’, see Table 6-12. The pattern was used only in the tabloids sub-corpus, and it expressed emotion. I believe the principal carrier of evaluation in this pattern is not the adjective (though it is usually evaluative in context) but the link verb *feel*, which intrinsically expresses emotion.¹¹³ The adjective used in my corpus was *sick*. For further reference, the pattern will be transcribed as follows ‘*it* V n *feel* ADJ *to-inf*’.

6.1.5. Pattern 1e V *it as* ADJ /V *it* ADJ

Pattern 1e is similar to Pattern 1c, yet it does not comprise the dependent clause.

<i>Evaluator</i>		<i>Thing evaluated</i>	<i>Evaluative category</i>	Source
noun group	verb group	it	adjective groups	
The public	will find	it	unacceptable.	B_May_10
The BMA	branded	it	disturbing	T_Sep_11_21

Table 6-13 Pattern 1e - form and function (i)

(125) They see it as beautiful.

(126) They see it as inferior.

(127) viewing it as boring.

The three examples above (125)-(127) are borrowed from Bednarek (2009: 170); she claims that this pattern can diagnose both emotion and opinion. These examples are presented without the restriction on evaluation. However, my corpus did not show any instances of the ‘V *it as* ADJ’ variation, the second variation of the pattern 1e i.e. ‘V *it* ADJ’ appeared twice, the examples are given in Table 6-13. The only two instances of this pattern construe opinion;

¹¹² As Bednarek’s (2009: 169) example for this pattern is *It makes me feel happy that they have come.*, I believe she just made a mistake of not including the verb *feel* into her pattern transcription.

¹¹³ Bednarek (2009: 174-175) further suggests looking at ‘*I feel* ADJ *that*’ and ‘*I feel* ADJ *about*’, the later “often occurs with adjectives that directly denote an emotional response (*angry, fearful*),” while the former “occurs with epistemic adjectives that indicate confidence of the speaker regarding the content of the following proposition,” Bednarek further debates whether the adjectives used can be considered “emotional responses or non-affective mental states” (ibid.). My corpus does not show many instances of the ‘*I feel* ADJ *that*’ and ‘*I feel* ADJ *about*’ patterns. In fact, the occurrence is really scarce; there is one instance of ‘*I feel* ADJ *that*’, e.g. *I felt guilty that he had killed her.* (T_Sep_11_25) And two of ‘*I feel* ADJ *about*’, e.g. *He felt passionate about the circumstances faced by many families...* (T_Sep_11_26), *They still feel really angry about this.* (B_Jun_21). However, it is to be noted that both of Bednarek’s more detailed patterns actually fall into more general patterns 3b ‘vlink ADJ *that*’ and pattern 4 ‘vlink ADJ prep’ within this analysis and will be discussed later in the text. Further, there are also instances of a simple predicate pattern ‘n *feel* ADJ’, e.g. *The town feels devastated and shocked* (T_Oct_12_03), and a variety of pattern 1c ‘V n *feel* ADJ’, e.g. *it makes her feel good, feel feminine and feel sexy* (T_May_04).

the only two adjectives used are *disturbing* and *unacceptable*. For further reference, the whole pattern will be transcribed as follows ‘V *it* ADJ’.

Pattern 1e is very similar to Pattern 1c. The difference seems to be in the form, where 1c uses *to-inf/that* clause complementation after the adjective group and 1e does not use anything. However, it is the function of the patterns that makes them different, while the *to-inf/that* clause complementation constitutes the ‘thing evaluated’ in Pattern 1c (*it* is anticipatory in pattern 1c), pattern 1e’s ‘thing evaluated’ is ‘*it*’ referring anaphorically to information already present in the discourse.

6.1.6. Pattern 2 *There v-link something/anything/nothing ADJ about/in noun group/ clause*

Pattern 2 is considered by Hunston and Sinclair (2000) a frequent and easily spotted pattern, but the findings in newspaper discourse are quite different.

		<i>Hinge</i>	<i>Evaluative category</i>	<i>Hinge</i>	<i>Thing evaluated</i>	Source
There	v-link	something/a nything/ nothing	adjective group	about/ in/with	clause/ noun group	
There	is	nothing	wrong	with	people planning their tax affairs	T/B Jun 21

Table 6-14 Pattern 2 - form and function

Further examples include:

- (128) I don’t think there is anything wrong with it. (T_May_03)
- (129) There was something dispiriting about the debate here in Britain
(B_Oct_11_05)
- (130) There is nothing degrading about the photographs...(T_Sep_12_14)

Only six instances of this pattern were found in my corpus; three in the broadsheets and three in the tabloids. This pattern portrays only opinion. The pronoun *nothing* dominates, it was found four times. *Something* and *anything* occur once each (see examples (129) and (128), respectively); Bednarek (2009: 170) suggests the usage of prepositions *about/in* but I found only *about* and *with* in my corpus. The adjectives used are presented in Table 6-15.

Sub-corpus	Adjectives
Broadsheets	wrong(1), new(1), dispiriting (1)
Tabloids	wrong(2), degrading(1)

Table 6-15 Pattern 2 - adjectives

After a closer look at the adjectives listed in Table 6-15, an assumption could be made that most of the information carried by this pattern, in my corpus, is negative (apart from the adjective *new*) but as mentioned in the theoretical part, lexical items cannot be judged in isolation as it is the context that construes the meaning of a word. This pattern is a nice example of graduation (see section Graduation). Despite the use of a negative adjective, the meaning of the information carried by the pattern is mainly positive. Negation or intensified negation is only a tool of graduation used to amplify the information given, and consequently creates explicit evaluation. For example, in the sentence *There is nothing degrading about the photographs*, the editor of a French magazine that published photos of the Duchess of Cambridge topless defends her decision to publish the pictures and by using an intensified negative she aims to negate the assumption that there was anything degrading about the pictures.

Despite the fact that Bednarek (2007b: 1) claims that this pattern is widely used in the BNC, my corpus, as indicated above, does not show many examples of it. The current findings confirm the results of Bednarek’s research (2007b) on tabloid and broadsheet newspaper discourse, where she finds only two instances of this pattern in her 70,000 word corpus. Based on that, it could be assumed that newspaper discourse does not primarily use this pattern to construe evaluation. Perhaps, different discourses use this pattern more often.

6.1.7. Pattern 3a v-link ADJ to-inf

Pattern 3a expresses either opinion (*evaluative category* in Hunston and Sinclair’s and Bednarek’s terminology) or emotion (*evaluative category*, Table 6-18). Where opinion is expressed, two types of distribution of functional categories in the pattern can be distinguished (see Table 6-16 and Table 6-17). The adjectives used in Table 6-17 “indicate that a particular form of behaviour is right, wrong, foolish, wise, ...in these cases the *to*-infinitive clauses realize the ‘thing evaluated’”(Hunston and Sinclair, 2000: 87). In Table 6-16, the noun group is ‘thing evaluated’ and the infinitival clause indicates restriction on the evaluation.

<i>Thing evaluated</i>	<i>hinge</i>	<i>Evaluative category (opinion)</i>	<i>Restriction on evaluation</i>	<i>Source</i>
noun group	v-link	adjective group	to-infinitive clause	
Their plans	were	very difficult	to intercept.	B_Feb_01
He	was	very fortunate	to get out alive.	T_Oct_11_13

Table 6-16 Pattern 3a - form and function (i), (opinion)

<i>Evaluation carrier</i>	<i>hinge</i>	<i>Evaluative category (opinion)</i>	<i>Thing evaluated</i>	<i>Source</i>
	v-link	adjective group	to-infinitive clause	
He	was	stupid	to behave as he did.	T_Sep_11_18
Cops	are	likely	to take witness statements about the incident.	T_Jan_07
He	was	wrong	to meet Mr Boulter in the absence of officials	T_Oct_11_14

Table 6-17 Pattern 3a - form and function (ii), (opinion)

<i>Evaluator</i>	<i>Hinge</i>	<i>Evaluating response (emotion)</i>	<i>Thing evaluated</i>	<i>Source</i>
noun group	v-link	adjective group	to-infinitive clause	
He	was	sorry	to see Dr Fox go...	T/B_Oct_11_14
I	will have been	really proud	to have played a small part in bringing	T_Jun_28
Helen Flanagan	was	also upset	to hear of Betty's death	T_Oct_11_15

Table 6-18 Pattern 3a - form and function, (emotion)

With 236 instances, pattern 3a is the third most frequent pattern in my corpus (see Table 6-2). Apart from opinion, this pattern also expresses emotion. If we proceed from the assumption that the newspapers' aim is to inform the readers about news, we might be surprised how much emotion can be found therein. The analysis found that emotion is expressed more frequently by this pattern in the tabloids (46 times, the broadsheets express it 37 times), the difference between the dimensions of opinion and emotion is not significant in the tabloids (see Table 6-37); the broadsheets, on the other hand, express opinion nearly three times more frequently than emotion. This supports the theory that broadsheets do not tend to employ means expressing emotion in their articles as much as tabloids do (the small corpus analysis shows similar results).

Emotion

Table 6-19 presents all the emotive adjectives used in pattern 3a.

Sub-corpus	Adjectives
Broadsheets	keen(8), reluctant(7), sorry(3), pleased(3), happy(3), willing(3), eager(2), determined(2), grateful(1), furious(1), desperate(1), astonished (1), anxious(1)
Tabloids	sorry(6), reluctant(5), proud(4), happy(4), willing(3), desperate(3), delighted(3), surprised(2), pleased(2), keen(2), anxious(2), afraid(2), upset(1), shocked(1), scared(1), horrified(1), glad(1), excited(1), determined(1), ashamed(1)

Table 6-19 Pattern 3a - adjectives conveying emotion

The most frequent adjective used to express emotion in the tabloids is *sorry*, followed by *reluctant*. The broadsheets mainly make use of *keen* and *reluctant*. In terms of Appraisal Theory (section 3.1), the broadsheets tend to express emotion via ‘inclination’ (i.e. desire adjectives such as *keen, willing, eager, determined, desperate*) followed by ‘disinclination’ (*reluctant*) and ‘satisfaction’ (*pleased, grateful*). The tabloids reflect ‘inclination’ (*desperate, willing, keen*), but they are followed by ‘satisfaction’ (*delighted, proud, pleased*). There are 24 types of adjectives expressing emotion in this pattern. The most frequent evaluators in the tabloids are *I* (15 times) and *he* (7 times), followed by other pronouns and various noun phrases referring to persons including *people, the Queen, Prince, consumer, Cameron*, etc., see example (131). The broadsheets use *he* (9 times) and *we* (4 times), followed by noun phrases mainly expressing state representatives/authorities e.g. *ministers, Tories*, and *Eurozone policymakers*,¹¹⁴ see example (134). The pronoun *we* has a tendency to collocate with evaluative adjectives construing positive emotion of ‘satisfaction’, see example (132). The various noun phrases mainly collocate with adjectives expressing ‘inclination’ and ‘disinclination’.

Further examples of emotion include:

- (131) ...politicians on the continent were willing to ignore the imbalances...
(T_Dec_03)
- (132) We are pleased to hear that Michael Brown has been detained by police...
(B_Jan_06)
- (133) ... I am sorry to see him go. (B/T_Oct_11_14)
- (134) Eurozone policymakers had been eager to shore up Spain's
position...(B_Jun_10)
- (135) Boulter was keen to meet Fox to get him to press 3M to pay him the rest of the
money.(B_Oct_11_08)

Opinion

Opinion is expressed more frequently in the broadsheets (93 times) than in the tabloids (60 times), which was expected. The pattern seems to be frequently associated with the expression of (un)certainty and likelihood, the newspapers therefore put an emphasis on epistemic modality. The most frequent adjective used to express opinion in both the sub-corpora is

¹¹⁴ The noun phrases stated in the text refer to Bednarek and Caple’s (2012) news value factor of Prominence; the employment of such factor increases the newsworthiness of the information presented.

likely, it is used 60 times in the broadsheets and 30 times in the tabloids (see Table 6-20). The second most frequent adjective is *unlikely*, but the frequency of the occurrence is visibly lower; it is used only seven times in each sub-corpus. Apart from these two types of adjectives, there are an additional 21 types of adjectives expressing opinion in this pattern.

Sub-corpus	Adjectives
Broadsheets	likely(60), unlikely(7), right(6), ready(3), certain(3), willing(1), quick(2), hard(2), difficult(2), wise(1), slow(1), necessary(1), impossible(1), forced(1), compelled(1), careful(1)
Tabloids	likely(30), unlikely(7), ready(4), certain(4), compelled(3), free (2), fortunate(2), wrong(1), stupid(1), right(1), powerless(1), plain(1), lucky(1), careful(1)

Table 6-20 Pattern 3a - adjectives conveying opinion

Further examples of opinion include:

- (136) ...the government is likely to intensify its harsh clampdown ... (B_Apr_20)
 (137) ...the process of deporting Abu Qatada is likely to take months. (T_Apr_19)
 (138) Drenthe fell out of favour at Real and is unlikely to be welcomed back. (T_May_10)
 (139) He is unlikely to get support from the Liberal Democrats... (B_Jun_25)
 (140) David Cameron is certain to be grilled about inconsistencies... (B_Oct_11_12)
 (141) ...he seems certain to face additional sanctions ... (T_May_14)

6.1.8. Pattern 3b v-link ADJ *that*

Pattern 3b formally differs from pattern 3a only by the type of its complementation clause, yet the complementation plays a significantly different role. Concerning the quantitative results pattern 3b is much less frequent than pattern 3a.

<i>Thing evaluated</i>	<i>Hinge</i>	<i>Evaluative category (opinion)</i>	<i>Restriction on evaluation</i>	<i>Source</i>
noun group	v-link	adjective group	that clause	
The Duchess	was	insistent	she still did not want to be Queen	T Nov 10
The markets	are	optimistic	that EU leaders are edging towards a deal to support the Eurozone.	B Dec 3

Table 6-21 Pattern 3b – form and function, opinion (i)

<i>Evaluation carrier</i>	<i>Hinge</i>	<i>Evaluative category (opinion)</i>	<i>Thing evaluated</i>	Source
noun group	v-link	adjective group	that clause	
The Prime Minister	is	right	that dealing with the deficit is helping ...	B Oct 11 05
We	are	clear	that the IMF will not contribute to the Eurozone bailout fund either.	B Nov 04

Table 6-22 Pattern 3b - form and function, opinion (ii)

<i>Evaluator</i>	<i>Hinge</i>	<i>Evaluating response (emotion)</i>	<i>Thing evaluated</i>	Source
noun group	v-link	adjective group	that clause	
I	am	pleased	that the report makes clear that the two most serious all..	B Oct 11 18
They	are	concerned	that David Cameron's coalition Government is doing nothing to prevent the sinister plot.	T May 04

Table 6-23 Pattern 3b - form and function, emotion

Pattern 3b is used to express both opinion and emotion. Interestingly, both sub-corpora convey more emotion than opinion via this pattern. This pattern was found 78 times in the corpus, 47 times in the broadsheets and 31 times in the tabloids.

Emotion

Remarkably, the broadsheets outnumber the tabloids in portraying emotion via this pattern. Emotion in the broadsheets is present 27 times and opinion 20 times. The tabloids show 19 instances of emotion and 12 of opinion (it must be said that the ratio of expressing emotion compared to opinion is nearly the same in both sub-corpora 1.3 - 1.5). The most frequent lexical expression used to express emotion in the broadsheets is the adjective *concerned* (see Table 6-24), followed by *worried*. The tabloids most frequently use *adamant* and *concerned*. It seems notable that participial adjectives are used very frequently in this pattern. In terms of Appraisal Theory, both the broadsheets and the tabloids show mainly 'insecurity' via *concerned*, and then, for example, by adjectives *afraid*, *worried*. The second most frequent type of emotion in the broadsheets is 'satisfaction' (*pleased*, *proud*, *delighted*), and 'inclination' (*adamant*) in the tabloids.

The main evaluators expressing emotion in the tabloids are the pronouns *I* (four times) and *we*, *he*, *she*, *they* (twice each), plus seven different noun phrases. The pronoun *I* mainly construes negative emotion of 'unhappiness' and 'insecurity' ex.(146).

The pronoun *he* is the most frequent evaluator in the broadsheet sub-corpus, it occurs 4 times, three times it helps to express ‘insecurity’ via the adjectives *sceptical* and *worried*. The pronoun *we* (3 occurrences), on the other hand, helps to express positive ‘satisfaction’ via adjectives *proud* and *delighted*. 16 other evaluators (aside from the pronouns *I*, *she*, *they*) are mainly created by a noun phrase; notably, these noun phrases frequently represent groups of people. One set of these noun phrases describe British state and political representatives, e.g. *senior conservatives*, *British diplomats*, *Mr Cameron*, *ministers*, and *Labour*, and these phrases are only found with the adjective *concerned*, see example (142). Therefore, it could be said that the broadsheets have a tendency to construe ‘insecurity’ via state or political representatives. Another set of the noun phrases are, e.g. *soldiers*, *fans*, *Egyptians*, *investors*, and *experts*, they also show ‘insecurity’ along with ‘dissatisfaction’. Based on this finding, we can assume that the pattern ‘v-link ADJ *that*’ predominantly uses noun groups as evaluators and via these it tends to construe negative emotion especially of ‘insecurity’ and ‘dissatisfaction’. There are 20 types of adjectives used to express emotion.

Sub-corpus	Adjectives
Broadsheets	concerned(8), worried(3), sceptical(2), pleased (2), disappointed(2), angry(2), adamant (2), scared(1), satisfied(1), proud(1), outraged(1), furious(1), delighted(1)
Tabloids	adamant(4), concerned(3), pleased(2), afraid(2), upset(1), surprised(1), sad(1), passionate(1), overjoyed(1), hurt(1), happy(1), angry(1), disappointed(1)

Table 6-24 Pattern 3b - adjectives conveying emotion

Further examples of emotion include:

- (142) ...Labour is concerned that the Whitehall investigation may not be...(B_Oct_11_11)
- (143) ... US authorities were worried that judges in Britain might make their ... (B_Apr_04)
- (144) They...are now angry that they have now had their names made public... (B_Oct_11_16)
- (145) I am very, very relieved and pleased that Shane Jenkin is going to be locked... (T_Ap_13)
- (146) I was afraid that someone would catch me.(T_Sep_12_25)

Opinion

Notably, opinion does not dominate in this pattern. The tabloids express only 12 instances of opinion, and the broadsheets 20. The construction ‘*be clear that*’ is widely employed by both the sub-corpora, see examples (147) and (148).

- (147) ... the Government was "clear" that Qatada has "no right to refer the case to the Grand Chamber of the European Court of Human Rights" (ECHR), (B/T_Apr_19)
- (148) Both Dr Fox and Werritty are clear that Werritty never lobbied Dr Fox on behalf of donors. (B_Oct_11_19)

Table 6-25 shows the adjectives used in this pattern to express opinion.

Sub-corpus	Adjectives
Broadsheets	clear(9), confident(6), optimistic(2), certain(2), right(1)
Tabloids	clear(4), sure(4), confident(2), right(1), insistent(1)

Table 6-25 Pattern 3b - adjectives conveying opinion

There are only 7 types of adjectives employed to express opinion. The findings in my corpus show that this pattern expresses emotion more frequently than opinion; so far we have seen that opinion is the main dimension in the newspaper discourse, e.g. 1a and 1c, only express opinion. Pattern 1d, on the contrary, expresses only emotion, but there are only two occurrences of this pattern in my corpus; therefore, it is not statistically significant. Pattern 3b is somehow different; it seems to be the most frequent pattern associated predominantly with emotion in both the broadsheets and in the tabloids. Further, it seems that this pattern has a tendency to express negative emotion, especially of ‘insecurity’, where mainly state and political representatives are the evaluators. Opinion on the other hand expresses positive undoubtable attitude.

6.1.9. Pattern 4 v-link ADJ prep (prep complementation pattern)

Pattern 4 is the most frequent pattern of my corpus. It occurs 265 times in the corpus; see Table 6-2. Apart from the highest number of adjective tokens used, the pattern displays a broad variety of adjective types.

<i>Thing evaluated</i>	<i>Hinge</i>	<i>Evaluative category(opinion)</i>	<i>Restriction on evaluation</i>	Source
noun group	v-link	adjective group	prep	
Both these measures	are	good	for employment prospects.	B Oct 11 03
Someone	was	responsible	for her death.	T Apr 19

Table 6-26 Pattern 4 - form and function, opinion

<i>Evaluator</i>	<i>Hinge</i>	<i>Evaluative response (emotion)</i>	<i>Thing evaluated</i>	Source
noun group	v-link	adjective group	prep	
He	was	proud	of me.	T May 04
Everyone	is	delighted	for Harry and his family.	B Feb 08

Table 6-27 Pattern 4 - form and function, emotion

Pattern 4 not only stands out because of the quantity, but it is notable due to the fact that the tabloids make use of this pattern more than the broadsheets (156 occurrences in the tabloids vs 112 in the broadsheets). In the previous patterns, except for 1c and 1d, where the occurrence numbers are low, the broadsheets prevail in using the given patterns in their news.

Emotion

Emotion is expressed 146 times, namely 96 times in the tabloids, and only 50 times in the broadsheets. This is the highest frequency of emotion expressed via any pattern. The most frequent adjectives used to portray emotion are *concerned*, *worried*, and *proud* in the tabloids, and *unhappy*, *worried*, and *concerned* in the broadsheets. The most frequent adjectives from each sub-corpus are nearly identical (Table 6-28), but the tabloids tend to use more positive adjectives than the broadsheets. In terms of Appraisal Theory, both the tabloids and the broadsheets mainly express ‘insecurity’(*sorry*, *worried*, *concerned*), the broadsheets then construe ‘unhappiness’(*unhappy*) and ‘dissatisfaction’ (*angry*, *disappointed*, *nervous*). The tabloids, along with ‘insecurity’, convey ‘satisfaction’ (*proud*, *delighted*, *grateful*) frequently. There are 39 types of adjectives used in this pattern to express emotion (in both sub-corpora); which is by far the highest number, further highlighting the importance of the pattern for the expression of emotion.

The most frequent prepositions used in the broadsheets with adjectives conveying emotion, are *about* and *by*. There is a notable quantitative difference between these two prepositions (21: 10 occurrences). The ‘main’ preposition in tabloids is *for* with 26 occurrences, followed by *about* (15 times). The findings prove that when affect is expressed the adjective is frequently complemented by the *about*-prepositional phrase.¹¹⁵

Sub-corpus	Adjectives
Broadsheets	unhappy (7), worried(6), concerned(6), shocked(4), proud(4), disappointed(4), uncomfortable(3), embarrassed(2), fearful(2), optimistic(2), sceptical(1), upset(1), nervous(1), grateful(1), disheartened(1), desperate(1), delighted(1), afraid(1), angry(1), unrepentant(1)
Tabloids	concerned(10), worried(8), proud(8), happy(7), sorry(6),impressed(6), grateful(6), desperate(6), disappointed (4), interested(3), humiliated(3), furious(3), angry(3), shocked(3), remorseful(2), regretful(2), confident(2), annoyed(2), upset(1), scared(1), passionate (1), lucky(1), keen(1), jittery(1), horrified(1), fearful(1), fascinated(1), delighted(1), comfortable(1), astounded(1), ashamed(1), afraid(1)

Table 6-28 Pattern 4 - adjectives conveying emotion

¹¹⁵ “... adjectives followed by *about* typically construe Affect,” Huston (2011: 136).

The main evaluator in the tabloids is the pronoun *we* (20 times), followed by *I* (13 times) and *he* (10 times). The noun phrases that appear in the function of the evaluator tend to be names, proper nouns, and noun groups such as *cops*, *family*, *parents*, and *friends*. The broadsheets employ the pronouns *he* and *they* (six times each). Analogous to the tabloids, various noun phrases are also used, but, in this case, the noun phrases seem to be more formal or include groups of people who have the power to influence the country or are considered elite, e.g. *the government*, *MPs*,¹¹⁶ *investors*, *lawyers*, *conservatives*. etc. The tabloids have a tendency to use first names¹¹⁷ such as *John*, *Patrick*, *Liam*, etc., while there is no such example in the broadsheets. Some of the evaluators mentioned herein are shown in the examples (149)-(158). Further examples of the expression of emotion via pattern 4 include:

- (149) We feel sorry for Frankie after everything that's happened to him
(T_Nov_10)
- (150) I was annoyed with him and I was annoyed with myself. (T_Jan_05)
- (151) ...cops had been astounded at the age of the offenders. (T_Oct_11_16)
- (152) ...the family were grateful for support they received ... (T_Oct_11_04)
- (153) ...he was shocked by Moscow and Beijing's stance...(B_Feb_7)
- (154) ...they still feel really angry about this. (B_Jun_21)
- (155) Many Conservative MPs are unhappy about aspects of ... (B_Oct_11_25)
- (156) His lawyers are particularly concerned by the deterioration of his
mental...(B_Feb_13)
- (157) Kitty, 26, is furious at the suggestion she made the racist comment.
(T_Nov_02)
- (158) ... he felt "embarrassed" by the losses, ...(B_Feb_08)

Opinion

Opinion is represented almost equally in both sub-corpora (60 times in the tabloids compared to 59 times in the broadsheets). Pattern 4 is the third most productive pattern of opinion with 119 occurrences in my corpus. Opinion is expressed via 66 types of adjectives. The broadsheets mainly make use of the adjectives *responsible* and *good*; the tabloids of *responsible* and *guilty* (see Table 6-29). An interesting point is that only a few adjectives are repeated several times while most of the adjectives have been found only once.

¹¹⁶ Again this points at the factor of Prominence.

¹¹⁷ The usage of first names creates personalisation. (Bednarek, 2006)

Sub-corpus	Adjectives
Broadsheets	responsible(6), good(4), ready(3), embarrassing(3), vulnerable(2), guilty(2), disgraceful(2), crucial(2), critical(2), convinced(2), bad(2), uneasy(1), uncertain(1), appropriate(1), careful(1), catastrophic(1), clear(1), clever(1), conscious(1), crippled(1), dependent(1), difficult(1), dismissive(1), embroiled(1), fair(1), flawed(1), genuine(1), gruelling(1), important(1), inappropriate(1), interested(1), invulnerable(1), notorious(1), patient(1), realistic(1), right(1), sincere(1), spontaneous(1), supportive(1), thankful(1)
Tabloids	responsible(8), guilty(5), good(4), focused(4), committed(3), hopeful(2), critical(2), confident(2), bad(2), clear(2), supportive(2), alarming(1), careful(1), amiable(1), cautious(1), civil(1), clumsy(1), dismissive(1), effective(1), estranged(1), exhausted(1), fantastic(1), gracious(1), innocent(1), perfect(1), relaxed(1), sick(1), successful(1), suspicious(1), treacherous(1), unapologetic(1), undecided(1), useless(1), vulnerable(1), wrong(1)

Table 6-29 Pattern 4 - adjectives conveying opinion

The preposition used most frequently in both the sub-corpora is *for*. The broadsheets then use *of* (7 times), and other prepositions, e.g. *to*, *about*, *with*, *in*, *without*, *at*, *from* etc., but their frequency is lower. There is a notable drop between *for* and *of* regarding the quantitative results. *For* is used 27 times and *of* only 7 times; hence, it could be assumed that broadsheets mainly rely on the preposition *for* in pattern 4 to express opinion. The situation in the tabloids is different, the representation of the prepositions *for* and *of* is almost equal (17:16 occurrences). Yet, comparable to the broadsheets, there is a notable drop between *of* and the prepositions *to*, which is used only 6 times.

The ‘thing evaluated’ in the broadsheets is mainly expressed by the pronouns *we* (7 times), *they* (3 times), and *he* (3 times), then there are 44 various noun groups that occur just once. Tabloids show the same pattern, the personal pronouns *we* (7 times), *they* and *he* (6 times each), and *she* (3 times) are the most frequent ‘thing evaluated’, and then there are 35 noun groups that appear once (apart from *the Duchess*, *family* and *Cameron*, which have been attested twice each). As referred to in the theoretical part 3.1.1.2, opinion can be subclassified into judgement and appreciation, depending on whether people or phenomena, respectively, are judged. Based on the manual analysis, judgement, in pattern 4, is overused compared to appreciation, in both sub-corpora. There is a notable difference in the tabloids, where 46 judgements are made compared to 14 appreciations. The ratio in the broadsheets is 32: 27 occurrences. The range of adjectives used in the tabloids to express appreciation is not as wide as in the broadsheets, yet the most important adjective to express appreciation in both the sub-corpora is *responsible*, as in ex.(159). The broadsheets further use *embarrassing*, *good*, and *disgraceful*. The tabloids use *good*, *guilty*, and *bad*. Judgement is, as mentioned in this paragraph, more widely expressed in the tabloids; some of the most frequent adjectives

used are: *responsible, committed, guilty, hopeful, critical, and confident*. The broadsheets use mainly: *responsible, vulnerable, ready, guilty, good, and critical*. The phenomena evaluated (appreciation) in the broadsheets include, for example, *violence, Tobin tax, proposal, outcome, measures*, etc. In the tabloids, they comprise, e.g. *travelling conditions, mechanism, jokes, companies*, etc. The ‘thing evaluated’, in judgement, in the broadsheets, is usually represented by personal pronouns (see the beginning of the paragraph), *people, secretary, Lord Blair, Clark, president, officers*, etc.; in the tabloids it is the personal pronouns, and then *family, Cameron, Turner, Balotelli, his father*, etc.

Further opinion examples include:

- (159) ...her Coca-Cola habit was responsible for her death. (T_Apr_19)
- (160) too many companies are very good at what they do but not so... (T_Apr_17)
- (161) ...he was responsible for all the postings made on October 3 and 4.
(T_Oct_12_08)
- (162) ... that a dictator can operate freely is disgraceful for governments ...
(B_Feb_06)
- (163) ... investors still weren't impressed with how he dressed. (T_May_16)
- (164) ...troops not in Afghanistan will be vulnerable to compulsory redundancy.
(B_Nov_12)

6.1.10. Pattern 5 Pseudo cleft sentences

Patterns 5 and 6 are not included in Bednarek's (2009) study.¹¹⁸ However, they were attested in my corpus, and will therefore be described from the formal and functional points of view in the following sections. Pattern 5 is presented in detail in 3.3.4.1, Table 6-30 presents some examples found.

<i>Hinge</i>	<i>Evaluative category</i>	<i>Hinge</i>	<i>Thing evaluated</i>	Source
What + v-link	adjective group	v-link	clause or noun group	
What is	certain	is	that they wanted to kill.	T_Sep_12_07
What is	upsetting	is	the huge lapse in security,...	B_Feb_02

Table 6-30 Pattern 5 - Pseudo cleft sentences (i)

There are only 10 instances of this pattern in my corpus, five were found in the tabloids, and five in the broadsheets, see Table 6-30. The adjectives used are presented in Table 6-31.

¹¹⁸However, these factors are analysed in Huston and Sinclair (2000: 89-91).

Sub-corpora	Adjectives
Broadsheets	wrong(3), upsetting(1), important(1)
Tabloids	certain(2), clear(1), disturbing(1), unacceptable(1)

Table 6-31 Pattern 5 - adjectives

Pattern 5 does not seem to be widely used in newspaper discourse; all the instances of pattern 5 were attested in quotations.¹¹⁹ This finding supports Biber et al.’s (1999: 961) assumption: “Ordinary *wh-clefts* are most frequent in conversation,” “...clefts are used to bring particular elements of the structure into focus ...” (Biber et al., 1999: 155).

6.1.11. Pattern 6 Patterns with general nouns (*thing, point, kind, and sort*)

According to Hunston and Sinclair (2000: 91), pattern 6 comprises two sub-types – (i) and (ii), in the first case the general noun premodified by an adjective is followed by a linking verb and then another noun group or clause, constituting the subject complement. In the second sub-type the adjective and noun are followed by a postmodifying prepositional phrase, which often includes *about*, or a clause. The clause as a realization of the ‘*evaluative context*’, not included in Bednarek’s description of the pattern, was added based on the findings in my corpus. These varieties are shown in Table 6-32 and Table 6-33. There are 18 tokens of pattern 6 in my corpus, 12 in the broadsheets and 6 in the tabloids.

<i>Evaluative category</i>	<i>Hinge</i>	<i>Thing evaluated</i>	Source
adjective + general noun	v-link	clause or noun group	
The important thing	is	how quickly things get back to normal.	B_Feb_06
The critical thing	is	that when events change...	B_Oct_11_25

Table 6-32 Pattern 6 (i)

<i>Evaluative category</i>	<i>Evaluative context</i>	<i>Hinge</i>	<i>Thing evaluated</i>	Source
adjective + general noun	About + noun group/clause	v-link	clause or noun group	
The scariest thing	about the accident	was	seeing blood coming out of Joseph’s mouth.	T_Mar_13
The last thing	we should do	is	to say ‘oh in that case we wash our hands...’	B_Sep_11_18
The last thing	I remember him saying	was	he did a good job.	T_Oct_11_18

Table 6-33 Pattern 6 (ii)

The examples in Table 6-33 include graded adjectives. They were included in the table for the purpose of reference, but they will be further discussed in the section dealing with graded

¹¹⁹ Interestingly, Bednarek (2007b: 6) left out pseudo-cleft sentences from her analysis “because of time constrains”, yet her corpus was roughly 3 times smaller than mine, so I believe she would have found a very small number of occurrences of this pattern in her corpus.

adjectival patterns. Based on her findings, Bednarek (2007b: 8) suggests one more variation for this pattern, as shown in Table 6-34.

<i>Thing evaluated</i>	<i>Hinge</i>	<i>Evaluative category</i>	<i>Evaluative context</i>	Source
noun group	v-link	noun group with thing	clause/ prep	
It	is	the last thing	she needs	T No 02
It	was obviously	a silly thing	to say	B/T Dec 01
That	was	the interesting thing.		T Oct 12 02
This	is	the last thing	on their minds	B Oct 11 24

Table 6-34 Pattern 6 (iii) - adapted from Bednarek (2007b: 8)

Bednarek (2007b: 8) explains why she included the sub-pattern 6 (iii), “saying this is a bad thing or this is the most important thing is very much like saying this is bad or this is the most important (with the differences in endophoric emphasis).” In this sub-type of pattern (iii), the evaluative category constitutes the subject complement of the linking verb. Bednarek’s examples include *thing*-headed noun groups both with and without postmodification. Our data show clearly that the noun group with postmodification (realized by a clause or a prepositional phrase) occurs more frequently in this pattern than the noun group without a postmodifier. Based on an analogy with pattern 6 (ii) the ‘evaluative category’ in pattern 6 (iii) can be split into the ‘evaluative category’ (comprising the general noun *thing* and the premodifying adjective) and the evaluative context’ specified by the postmodification (see Table 6-34). The ‘evaluative context’ is often expressed by an infinitival clause, e.g. *a popular thing to do, the right thing to do, a silly thing to say*.

The adjectives most frequently used to premodify the general noun are *right, important, key* in the broadsheets and *right* and *silly* in the tabloids. Altogether there are 10 types of adjectives used (see Table 6-35). The premodification of the general noun comprises also graded adjectives (*the last thing*), which will be dealt with in more detail in the respective section below.

Sub-corpus	Adjectives
Broadsheets	right(2), important(2), key(2), vital(1), silly(1), popular(1), good(1), crucial(1), critical(1)
Tabloids	right(2), silly(2), interesting(1), important(1)

Table 6-35 Pattern 6 – adjectives

Further examples of pattern 6:

- (165) the important thing is we have identified a possible pathway. (T_Sep_12_27)
 (166) ...the vital point is this. (B_Oct_11_05)

(167) ...that would be a good thing to do. (B_Dec_07)

(168) I don't think that is the right thing to do. (T_Jun_21)

To complete the analysis of pattern 6, it needs to be mentioned that only the general nouns *thing* and *point*¹²⁰ occurred in my data; the other nouns suggested by Bednarek (2007b), *kind*, and *sort* have not been detected in my corpus.

6.1.12. Non-graded adjectival patterns - results

6.1.12.1. The representation of the non-graded adjectival patterns in the tabloids and in the broadsheets

So far, this study has shown details of each pattern expressed in my corpus, their examples, adjectives used, and differences in occurrence. The total in Table 6-2 shows that the difference between the two sub-corpora in number of occurrences is not statistically significant; each sub-corpus employs the same evaluative local grammar patterns (except pattern 1d 'V n *feel* ADJ finite/non-finite clause', which can be found only in the tabloids and expresses only emotion via the link verb *feel*).¹²¹

The greatest difference can be seen in the quantitative representation of patterns 1a ('*it* v-link ADJ finite/non-finite clause') and 4 ('v-link ADJ prep'). Both these patterns belong among the most frequent patterns in my corpus. In fact, pattern 4 is the most frequent one and pattern 1a is the second most frequent pattern in my corpus. Pattern 4 occurs 4.0 times per 10,000 words in the broadsheets and 6.0 times per 10,000 words in the tabloids. The second remarkable pattern is pattern 1a. It is overused significantly in the broadsheets: the broadsheets use it 5.4 times per 10,000 words and tabloids 3.7 times.

The close similarities of the sub-corpora can be partly assigned to the fact that newspapers reference the same sources i.e. 'much news discourse is recycled talk' (Bell, 1991). Nevertheless, a question arises: why do the broadsheets use pattern 1a more while the tabloids prefer pattern 4. The answer is to be found below.

¹²⁰ *Point* was attested only once in the whole corpus.

¹²¹ The occurrence of pattern 1d in the corpus is negligible, just one instance of this pattern in the tabloids and none in the broadsheets. Interestingly, the lemma *feel* appears only 74 times in the whole broadsheet sub-corpus (2.73 occurrences per 10,000 words) and 179 times in the tabloid sub-corpus (6.8 occurrences per 10,000 words). This may suggest that the broadsheets, in spite of informalisation being globally employed, still have a tendency not to show affect or emotion.

6.1.12.2. Opinion and emotion in the tabloids and the broadsheets

Although there is not a major difference between the sub-corpora in the frequency of the individual patterns, as Table 6-2 shows, there is a difference in what role each pattern plays, i.e. whether the pattern expresses primarily opinion or emotion in the given newspaper. There is a statistically significant difference between the sub-corpora in expressing opinion and emotion, see Table 6-36. The broadsheets overuse the expression of opinion relative to the tabloids. However, the greatest difference in expressing opinion or emotion is not between the sub-corpora, but within each sub-corpus. In both sub-corpora the expression of opinion via the adjectival evaluative patterns prevails over the expression of emotion. In the broadsheets, however, the expression of opinion is three times more frequent than the conveying of emotion; while in the tabloids the instances of expressing opinion outnumber the expression of emotion merely 1.5 times. Hence, it can be concluded that the tabloids are ready to use all means of attitude to construe news, yet opinion prevails. On the other hand, the broadsheets seem to be more objective newspapers and construe mainly opinion (compared to the tabloids), yet they show some influence of informalisation and include emotion in their reporting. It must be noted though that this research focused only on adjectives in predicative roles. It would be interesting to see to what extent the results could be different if adjectives in attributive roles were included as well as other word classes that can show emotion

	Opinion		Emotion		Total evaluation	
	<i>raw freq</i>	<i>per 10,000</i>	<i>raw freq</i>	<i>per 10,000</i>	<i>raw freq</i>	<i>per 10,000</i>
Broadsheets	365	13.4	115	4.2	480	17.6
Tabloids	263	10.1	164	6.3	427	16.3
Total	628	11.8	279	5.2	907	17.0

Table 6-36 Emotion and opinion in the large corpus and sub-corpora

Table 6-37 represents the distribution of opinion and emotion in each sub-corpus and pattern. Opinion is mainly embedded in patterns 1a, 3a, and 4 in both the sub-corpora. Pattern 1a could be considered an ‘opinion carrier’ as it is employed exclusively to convey opinion, and at the same time it is the pattern associated with the expression of opinion most frequently in the whole corpus (see Table 6-2). Emotion is mainly carried by patterns 4, 3a, and 3b in each sub-corpus. Pattern 4 is the most frequent pattern to express emotion in both the sub-corpora, yet, based on the findings, it can be said that pattern 3b is predominantly associated with emotion despite its lower frequency than pattern 4. In addition, pattern 3b looks interesting due to the fact that the broadsheets show more emotion via this pattern than the tabloids (27: 20), in no other patterns do the broadsheets express more emotion than the tabloids.

Pattern 3a is the third most frequent pattern in the whole corpus. The broadsheets exploit it as the second most frequent pattern to express opinion; on the contrary, for the tabloids, it is the second most useful pattern to express emotion.

evaluation opinion/emotion	Broadsheets		Tabloids		Total	
	<i>raw freq</i>	<i>per 10,000</i>	<i>raw freq</i>	<i>per 10,000</i>	<i>raw freq</i>	<i>per 10,000</i>
Pattern 1a: <i>it</i> v-link ADJ finite/non-finite clause						
emotion	0		0			
opinion	147	5.4	97	3.7		
total	147	5.4	97	3.7	244	4.6
Pattern 1b: <i>it</i> v-link ADJ for n to-inf						
emotion	0		0			
opinion	18		12			
total	18	0.7	12	0.5	30	0.6
Pattern 1c: V <i>it</i> ADJ finite/non-finite clause (<i>find/believe/think</i>)						
emotion	1		2			
opinion	7		7			
total	8	0.3	9	0.3	17	0.3
Pattern 1d: <i>it</i> V n <i>feel</i> ADJ to-inf						
emotion	0	0	1			
opinion	0	0	0			
total	0	0.0	1	0.0	1	0.0
Pattern 1e: V <i>it</i> ADJ						
emotion	0		0			
opinion	1		1			
total	1	0.0	1	0.0	2	0.0
Pattern 2: <i>There</i> vlink <i>something/anything/nothing</i> ADJ <i>about/in/with / ing</i> -clause/n						
emotion	0		0			
opinion	3		3			
total	3	0.1	3	0.1	6	0.1
Pattern 3a: vlink ADJ to-inf						
emotion	37		46			
opinion	93		60			
total	130	4.8	106	4.1	236	4.4
Pattern 3b: vlink ADJ <i>that</i>						
emotion	27		19			
opinion	20		12			
total	47	1.7	31	1.1	78	1.5
Pattern 4: vlink ADJ prep						
emotion	50	1.8	96	3.6		
opinion	59		60			
total	109	4.0	156	6.0	265	5.0
Pattern 5: Pseudo-cleft						
emotion	0		0			
opinion	5		5			
total	5	0.2	5	0.2	10	0.2

Pattern 6: Patterns with general nouns						
emotion	0		0			
opinion	12		6			
total	12	0.4	6	0.2	18	0.3
Grand total	480	17.6	427	16.3	907	17.0

Table 6-37 Presentation of opinion and emotion in each pattern and sub-corpus. The highest occurrence of opinion is highlighted in blue, the highest occurrence of emotion is highlighted in orange, the most frequent pattern is highlighted in green.

Table 6-38 presents the most frequent adjectives used in the corpus. Altogether 144 types of adjectives express opinion and 58 types express emotion. The adjectives *likely*, *clear*, and *right* are the most frequent adjectives in the whole corpus as well as in each sub-corpus, which leads to the assumption that newspapers have a tendency to employ opinion in their news rather than emotion. After the first three adjectives the results vary; the tabloids employ emotional adjectives *concerned*, *proud*, *sorry*, and *happy* while the broadsheets display opinion via *important* but also add the emotional adjective *concerned*, which is again followed by adjectives construing opinion.

Broadsheets		Tabloids		Total	
<i>adjective</i>	<i>raw freq</i>	<i>adjective</i>	<i>raw freq</i>	<i>adjective</i>	<i>raw freq</i>
likely	64	likely	34	likely	98
clear	34	clear	24	clear	58
right	30	right	20	right	50
important	24	concerned	13	important	35
concerned	14	sorry	12	concerned	27
unlikely	12	proud	12	unlikely	22
unclear	12	happy	11	wrong	21
wrong	11	important	11	proud	17
worried	9	wrong	10	worried	17
keen	9	unlikely	10	sorry	15
possible	8	desperate	9	responsible	15

Table 6-38 The most frequent non-graded adjectives used in the corpus. The highlighted adjectives construe emotion.

Regarding emotion, in terms of Appraisal Theory, the types of adjectives used in the newspapers mainly express, ‘insecurity’, see examples (142), (143), (146) and ‘satisfaction’ (132), (145), (152).

Classification	Broadsheets	Tabloids	Total
insecurity	34	34	68
satisfaction	16	35	51
inclination	24	24	48
unhappiness	13	25	38
dissatisfaction	14	19	33
surprise	5	10	15
disinclination	7	6	13
happiness	0	9	9
security	2	2	4
Total	115	164	279

Table 6-39 Emotion in terms of Appraisal Theory

6.2. Graded adjectival patterns

According to Thompson and Hunston (2000: 92), graded adjectives carry evaluation because “gradedness indicates comparison, and comparison with a norm or scale is often a matter of subjectivity”; therefore, all graded adjectives are considered evaluative. Bednarek (2007b) also includes patterns comprising graded adjectives in her study, demonstrating that they can be sub-divided into numerous categories. The class of graded adjectives includes adjectives with modifiers *too* or *enough* (e.g. *too desperate*, *brave enough*), and adjectives in the comparative or superlative, both inflectional and analytic (e.g. *wisest*, *most important*). The patterns are further subdivided on the basis of the evaluative category labels assigned to the individual parts of the pattern. The patterns with graded adjectives identified in my corpus, including examples, are presented in Table 6-40.

Patterns	Transcription	Example	Source
i	<u>Adjective group with <i>too</i> or <i>enough</i></u>	.	
	v-link <i>too</i> ADJ <i>to</i> -inf	<i>He is too sick to stand a trial.</i>	B_May_16
	v-link <i>too</i> ADJ <i>for</i> n	<i>She is too desperate for publicity.</i>	T_Oct_11_08
	v-link ADJ <i>enough</i> finite/non-finite clause	<i>Steve was among the greatest of American innovators - brave enough to think differently...</i>	B_Oct_11_06
	v-link ADJ <i>enough</i>	<i>It was eight days after the incident and not good enough.</i>	T_Oct_11_02
	v-link ADJ <i>enough</i> prep	<i>She seemed happy enough with her new fella, ...</i>	T_Jan_01

ii	v-link ADJ - SUPERL ¹²²	<i>The V gang is the best.</i>	T_Oct_11_02
	v-link ADJ-SUPERL		
	v-link ADJ-SUPERL prep n	<i>Sergeant Nigel Coupe, 33, ..., was the oldest of the men</i>	T_Mar_08
	<i>it/this</i> v-link ADJ-SUPERL <i>thing to-inf/prep</i>	<i>I'm not sure it was the wisest thing to do.</i>	T_Feb_11
	ADJ-SUPERL <i>thing</i> v-link finite/non-finite clause/n	<i>The most important thing is making sure that we put safety first.</i>	B_Feb_06
	V <i>it</i> ADJ-SUPERL <i>to-inf</i>	<i>I have thought it best to stand down as Dean, to allow new leadership to be exercised</i>	T/B_Nov_01
iii	v-link ADJ - COMPAR	<i>the risk is much greater</i>	T_Feb_02
	v-link ADJ-COMPAR		
	v-link ADJ-COMPAR <i>than</i> n/prep/ADV/non-finite clause	<i>Payment is generally far more generous than any government benefits....</i>	T_Oct_11_02
	v-link ADJ-COMPAR <i>to-inf</i> <i>than</i> n/prep/ADV	<i>They were more than eight times more likely to have been stopped... than the general population in London.</i>	B_Dec_05
	V <i>it</i> ADJ-COMPAR <i>to-inf</i>	<i>THOUSANDS of foreign students could find it easier to stay in Britain</i>	T_Jan_01
	<i>it</i> v-link ADJ-COMPAR <i>to-inf</i>	<i>It is not better to be on benefits.</i>	T_June_25
	<i>it</i> v-link ADJ-COMPAR <i>to-inf than</i> ADV	<i>it's much better to be out than in.</i>	B_Apr_12

Table 6-40 List of graded adjectival patterns with examples

Similarly to the non-graded adjectival patterns discussed so far, the frequency and roles of the graded adjectival patterns were studied and the overall results are shown in Table 6-41 and Table 6-52. Further details concerning each pattern are discussed below.

¹²² The transcription is adopted from Hunston and Francis (2000: 132).

Pattern		Broadsheets		Tabloids		Total	
		<i>raw freq</i>	<i>per 10,000 words</i>	<i>raw freq</i>	<i>per 10,000 words</i>	<i>raw freq</i>	<i>per 10,000 words</i>
i	Adjective group with <i>too</i> or <i>enough</i>	57	2.1	42	1.6	99	1.9
ii	v-link ADJ-SUPERL	26	1.0	34	1.3	60	1.1
iii	v-link ADJ-COMPAR	57	2.1	56	2.1	113	2.1
	Total	140	5.1	132	5.1	272	5.1

Table 6-41 Presentation of graded patterns in tabloids and broadsheets. The highlighted figures represent the most frequent patterns.

The graded adjectival patterns are equally used by the broadsheets and the tabloids. The most frequent pattern is pattern (iii) (comparatives) representing 41.5 per cent of all graded adjectival patterns, followed by pattern (i) (*too/enough*), (36.4%), and pattern (ii) (superlatives) (22.1%). The total number indicates that newspaper discourse tends to compare issues rather than express superlative statements. The tabloids show a slight dominance in pursuing superlatives than the broadsheets, but the difference is marginal.

6.2.1. Pattern (i) Adjective group with *too/enough*

This pattern has many sub-patterns as shown in Table 6-40. Table 6-42 and Table 6-43 specify whether opinion (evaluative category) or emotion (evaluating response) is expressed via these sub-patterns.

<i>Thing evaluated</i>	<i>Hinge</i>	<i>Evaluative category</i>	<i>Restriction on evaluation</i>	Source
noun group	v-link	adjective group with too or enough	to-inf or prep	
I	would be	lucky enough	to find her and have her back in my life	T_June_26
He	is perceived as having been	too generous	to France's wealthiest individuals	B_Apr_23
Journalism	is	too weak, not too strong.		B_Oct_11_04
She	was	too weak	for the operation to be reserved	T_Sep_11_23

Table 6-42 Pattern i - graded adjectives, opinion

<i>Evaluator</i>	<i>Hinge</i>	<i>Evaluative response</i>	<i>Restriction on response</i>	Source
noun group	v-link	adjective group with too or enough	to-inf or prep	
They	would be	too embarrassed or ashamed	to report the crime.	B_Mar_12
The grandparents	were	too grief-stricken	to comment on the tragedy.	T_Dec_13

Table 6-43 Pattern i - graded adjective, emotion

Pattern (i) with graded adjectives is very similar to patterns 3a and 4. Similarly to Bednarek (2007b), patterns without restriction are also included, see Table 6-42. Pattern (i) is the second most frequent pattern of graded adjectives.

The adverb *enough* postmodifying the adjectives is used 30 times, while the premodification with the adverb *too* is applied 69 times. The broadsheets, in particular, prefer *too* to *enough* (43: 14), the difference in the tabloids is not as marked (26: 16). Both the adverbs have a tendency to be complemented by a *to*-infinitive clause, see Table 6-42 and Table 6-43, rather than by a prepositional phrase. When the adjective group is followed by a preposition, then it is highly likely that it is the preposition *for*,¹²³ as in Table 6-42. Other prepositions such as *to*, *in*, *with*, etc. are also used, but scarcely, see Table 6-40.

The premodification *too* occurs with 47 types of adjectives; the most frequent adjective used is *young*, followed by *weak*, see Table 6-42. Many other types of adjectives are used just once, see Table 6-44. The construction ‘*too young*’ stands out the most; see examples (170) and (171). It occurs seven times in my corpus (six times in the tabloids and once in the broadsheets); the construction always carries negative evaluation. The second most frequent construction ‘*too weak*’, which is used twice in both sub-corpora; also carries negative evaluation, e.g. Table 6-42. In fact, it can be said that the construction ‘v-link *too* ADJ’, in my corpus, expresses mainly negative evaluation, especially evaluation of opinion, which was attested 38 times in the broadsheets and 23 times in the tabloids. Emotion (evaluating response) is expressed eight times, in this pattern, with the premodifying adverb *too*, five times in the broadsheets and three times in the tabloids. The adjectives used to construe emotion are highlighted in Table 6-44.

Sub-corpus	Adjectives
Broadsheets	sick(3), close(3), soft(2), weak(2), ugly(2), soft(2), ill(2), big(2), academic(2), young(1), large(1), dangerous(1), timid(1), strong(1), small(1), skewed(1), sensitive(1), scared(1), poorly(1), optimistic(1), loose(1), little(1), liberal(1), keen (1), injured(1), generous(1), frightened(1), fearful(1), expensive(1), embarrassed(1), easy(1), broad(1), bad(1), ashamed(1)
Tabloids	young(6), nice(3), weak(2), valuable(1), close(1), traumatised(1), vile(1), terrible(1), strange(1), painful(1), grief-stricken(1), fragile(1), fierce(1), drained(1), desperate(1), complicated(1), big(1), beautiful(1)

Table 6-44 Pattern (i) - *too*. The highlighted adjectives construe emotion.

¹²³ The preposition *for* can also introduce the subject of the infinitival clause as in Table 6-42.

Sub-corpus	Adjectives
Broadsheets	high(3), good(3), strong(2), talented(1), smart(1), silly(1), brave(1), bold(1), bad(1)
Tabloids	good(3), lucky(3), bad(3), big(2), realistic(1), pleasant(1), happy(1) , fortunate(1), brave(1)

Table 6-45 Pattern (i) - *enough*. The highlighted adjective construes emotion.

The postmodification with the adverb *enough* co-occurs with 15 types of adjectives. The most frequent type of adjective used with the adverb *enough*, in the whole corpus, is *good*; yet, the construction ‘*good enough*’ does not convey positive evaluation (as one could expect) as it always follows a negated linking verb (the predicate comprises the negative particle not), see Figure 6-3.

The standard of care that patients receive at the hospital trust	is not	good enough,	...	B_Jun_26
The data available to the experts	has not been	good enough	to enable them to give a clear recommendation of the risk ...	B/T_Jan_06
It	's simply not	good enough	for this report to be recognised and then business to carry on as usual.	T_Nov_09
It	was (eight days after the incident and) not	good enough.		T_Oct_02

Figure 6-3 Examples of ‘*good enough*’ construction

Emotion is expressed only once with the help of *enough*, see example (169). All other occurrences of this pattern construe opinion. Generally, it can be concluded that positive instances of opinion in pattern (i) were mainly created with the help of the adverb *enough*,¹²⁴ example (173), while the negative opinion is created with the help of the adverb *too*. The same applies to emotion; all instances of emotion created with the help of *too* are negative, see examples (174), and Table 6-43. The only expression of emotion with the help of *enough* is positive, see (169).

Further examples of pattern (i) include:

(169) She seemed happy enough with her new fella, ... (T_Jan_01)

(170) We’re adults and our younger children are too young to understand.
(T_Apr_19)

¹²⁴ The pattern ‘v-link ADJ *enough*’ also creates negative opinion, for example see Figure 6-3, plus there are 11 other instances of negative opinion, as in (172).

- (171) She is too young and beautiful to be taken from us all. (T_Apr_23)
- (172) ...one day in prison is bad enough but four years is even worse.(T_Oct_11_04)
- (173) ...an anonymous ticket-holder was lucky enough to pick up an incredible £113million. (T_Oct_11_06)
- (174) ...some witnesses were too scared to come forward. (B_Jan_03)

6.2.2. Pattern (ii) v-link ADJ-SUPERL

The ‘superlative pattern’ is used with (ex. (176)) or without restriction (ex.(175)), Table 6-46 shows formal variations on the ‘superlative pattern’, which reflects pattern 4 in the non-graded adjectival patterns. In addition, there are also instances of pattern (ii) which reflect pattern 6 (examples (177)-(181)) and pattern 1c (example (183)) in section Non-graded adjectival patterns. Their formal and functional categories are shown in respective chapters in section on non-graded adjectival patterns (see 6.1).

<i>Thing evaluated</i>	<i>Hinge</i>	<i>Evaluative category</i>	<i>Restriction on evaluation</i>	<i>Source</i>
noun group	v-link	superlative adjective group	prepositional phrase	
The damage do my arm	is probably	the worst.		T_Jan_5
Former model Phina, 39,	is	best known	for playing...	T_Sep_11_28
This week	has been	the hardest	in the school history.	T_Oct_12_08
You	are	the best	of my heart	B_Feb_13

Table 6-46 Pattern (ii) – v-link ADJ-SUPERL, v-link ADJ-SUPERL prep n

- (175) The V gang is the best. (T_Oct_11_02)
- (176) Sergeant Nigel Coupe, 33, ..., was the oldest of the men (T_Mar_08)
- (177) The most important thing is making sure that we put safety first. (B_Feb_06)
- (178) The scariest thing about the incident was seeing blood coming out of Joseph’s mouth. (T_Mar_13)
- (179) The last thing we should do is say 'oh in that case we wash our hands...(B_Sep_11_18)
- (180) It’s the last thing she needs after a terrible week. (T_Nov_02)
- (181) ...the most important thing is friendship between France and Germany. (T_Dec_05/06)
- (182) The impact of HIV/Aids has always been most devastating in sub-Saharan Africa. (B_Dec_01)

- (183) I have thought it best to stand down as Dean, to allow new leadership to be exercised. (T/B_Nov_01)

Pattern (ii) expresses only opinion and there are 60 instances of it in my corpus. The tabloids have a slightly stronger tendency to employ superlative forms¹²⁵ of adjectives than the broadsheets, as there are 34 occurrences of pattern (ii) in the tabloids and 26 in the broadsheets. The frequency does not seem to be too high, but it does not mean that newspapers do not tend to use superlatives in their news. In fact, there are plenty of examples of superlatives in the corpus; however, the newspapers have an inclination to use superlatives in attributive roles and this thesis focuses mainly on predicative roles (the adjective in pattern 6 fulfils the attributive role and usually modifies the noun *thing*). The number of types of adjectives found in pattern (ii) is 31. The most frequent adjectives are *important*, *good*,¹²⁶ as shown in Table 6-47. Negative opinion dominates.

Sub-corpus	Adjectives
Broadsheets	late(4), important (3), good(3), bad(1), wildlife-rich(1), vulnerable(1), turbulent(1), strong(1), popular(1), pervasive(1), opportunistic(1), low(1), last(1), known(1), hotly-anticipated(1), harmful(1), great(1), devastating(1), big(1)
Tabloids	known(4), important(3), last(4), good(3), old(2), hard(2), big(2), bad(1), wise(1), uncomfortable(1), scary(1), qualified(1), low(1), long(1), late(1), high(1), hard(1), exposed(1), buoyant(1), beneficial(1), beautiful(1)

Table 6-47 Pattern ii - adjectives

The adjective *important* is the most frequent adjective used in pattern (ii), it is mainly used in the form corresponding to pattern 6, described in section 6.1.11, see examples (180) and (181). *Best* is used six times, three times in the broadsheets and three times in the tabloids. It co-occurs in one direct sentence that was used by both the sub-corpora and corresponds to pattern 1c, described in the non-graded adjectival patterns, see example (183); two examples correspond to pattern 4, see Table 6-46.

6.2.3. Pattern (iii) v-link ADJ-COMPAR

Like pattern (ii), pattern (iii) includes several subtypes which are presented in Table 6-40 and the tables below.

¹²⁵ Concerning the patterns discussed in this thesis.

¹²⁶ The adjectives here, and in Table 6-47 are listed in their 'basic' form, but in the text they are used in the superlative form with the most /-est.

<i>Thing evaluated 1</i>	<i>Hinge</i>	<i>Evaluative category</i>	<i>Hinge</i>	<i>Thing evaluated 2</i>	Source
noun group	v-link	comparative adjective group	as or than	n/prep/ clause	
The choices	will be	much harder	than	when the economy was growing	B_Jan_10
variants of KG5 that	are	100-fold more powerful	than	the original drug	T_Nov_14
It	was	better	than	pushing the economy into a deep recession	T_Oct_11_25

Table 6-48 Pattern iii, comparatives, implicit reference

<i>Thing evaluated</i>	<i>Hinge</i>	<i>Evaluative category</i>	Source
noun group	v-link	comparative adjective group	
The choices	will be	much harder.	B_Jan_10
The national picture	will look	less rosy.	T_Jun_20
The odds	are	much higher.	B_Dec_01

Table 6-49 Pattern iii - without restriction

<i>Thing evaluated 1</i>	<i>Hinge</i>	<i>Evaluative category</i>	<i>Restriction on evaluation</i>	<i>Hinge</i>	<i>Thing evaluated 2</i>	Source
noun group	v-link	comparative adjective group	to-inf	than	n/prep /ADV	
black people	are	less likely	to enter higher education	than	most other ethnic groups	B_Mar_09
an elected upper house	will be	much more likely	to challenge the authority of the Commons	than	unelected peers have been	B_Apr_23

Table 6-50 Pattern iii – v-link ADJ-COMPAR to-inf than n/prep/ADV

Altogether, there are 113 instances of this pattern in the corpus, 57 in the broadsheets, and 56 in the tabloids. This pattern expresses both opinion and emotion, yet emotion can be found only scarcely, with one occurrence in the broadsheets and four in the tabloids, see the examples (185) and (186). Bednarek (2008b: 57) explains why there is so little emotion expressed via comparative adjectival patterns,

“such adjectives relate to 'private' states into which only the emoter has insight, it would be very marked to say *I'm happier/angrier/more surprised than he is* Therefore, there is less opportunity for using graded forms with emotion adjectives.”

Pattern (iii) with its variations corresponds to patterns 1a, 1c, 2, 3a, 4 and 6 mentioned in section Non-graded adjectival patterns; see examples (184), (187), (197), (185), (188) and (189). There is one more sub-pattern which does not correspond to any of the non-graded adjectival patterns mentioned in the section on non-graded patterns. It is ‘v-link ADJ-

COMPAR *than*', see examples in Table 6-48. This sub-pattern was attested 64 times in my corpus, and is the most frequent sub-pattern. Further, the analysis has shown that the sub-pattern is mainly completed by a noun group,¹²⁷ see example (190), which was found 38 times. Therefore, it should be noted that this sub-pattern plays an important role in expressing evaluation in newspaper discourse; especially, its 'v-link ADJ-COMPAR *than* n' version.

Further examples of pattern (iii) include:

- (184) ... it will be much harder to achieve that,...(B_Mar_09)
- (185) ...some may feel more emboldened to get help. (B_Mar_12)
- (186) ...he and Katie were happier than ever...(T_Jun_30)
- (187) if banks and building societies find it easier and cheaper to lend to those...
(T_Jun_20)
- (188) he has been less specific about cuts in public spending. (B_May_07)
- (189) The broader point is that at the moment people are able to give to charities...
(B_Apr_16)
- (190) variants of KG5 that are 100-fold more powerful than the original drug
(T_Nov_14)

Pattern (iii) occurred with 43 types of adjectives. Individual adjectives with their frequency of occurrence can be seen in Table 6-51.

Sub-corpora	Adjectives
Broadsheets	likely(11), high(7), hard(6), low(5), good(4), important(2), ambitious(2), bad(1), widespread(1), wide(1), tolerant(1), strong(1) specific(1), small(1), responsive(1), precarious(1), peaceful(1), numerous(1), meddling(1), light(1), large(1), cheap(1), great(1), forceful(1), emboldened (1), easy(1), broad (1),big(1)
Tabloids	likely(8), high(4), easy(4), happy(4), great(3), cold(3), big(3), good(3), warm(2) powerful(2), large(2), important(2), cheap(1), young(1), bad(1), tired(1), strict(1), slow(1), rosy(1), persistent(1), nice(1), low(1), hermetic(1), generous(1), fair(1), efficient(1), busy(1)

Table 6-51 Pattern (iii) - adjectives. The highlighted adjectives construe emotion.

The most frequently used adjective group is *likely* (*more/less likely*), its lexico-grammatical dependence is transparent as *likely* only appears in the sub-pattern 'v-link ADJ-COMPAR *to-inf*' or 'v-link ADJ-COMPAR *to-inf than* (see Table 6-50). The adjective was attested almost equally in both the sub-corpora, 11 times in the broadsheets and eight times in the tabloids. More examples include:

¹²⁷ Other complementation is ADV, finite and non-finite clauses.

- (191) ...people who drink diet soft drinks every day are 43 per cent more likely to have heart attacks, stroke or vascular disease.(T_Feb_01)
- (192) female supporters were more likely to turn support into a vote, as were those who were employed. (B_Nov_06)
- (193) some migrants were more likely to be unemployed and less likely to engage with their communities. (B_Sep_25)

The second most frequent adjective in this pattern is *higher*, this adjective only appears in the sub-pattern ‘v-link ADJ-COMPAR *than*’; similarly to *more likely*, *higher* predominantly construes negative evaluation especially concerning economic issues such as costs, inflation/unemployment rates, see (194) and (195).

- (194) Youth unemployment figures are always considerably higher than the general population. (B_Mar_09)
- (195) ...costs would remain higher than current levels. (T_Mar_15)

The third most frequently used adjective is *better*. Interestingly, contrary to pattern (i), here *good* is used to mainly create positive evaluation. *Good* was attested in several sub-categories of pattern (iii), which correspond to patterns 1a, 2, as in the examples below:

- (196) ...it's much better to be out than in. (B_Apr_12)
- (197) There is nothing better than having a good keeper behind you...
(B_Oct_12_04)

6.2.4. Graded adjectival patterns - results

6.2.4.1. Representation of graded adjectival patterns in the tabloids and the broadsheets

The graded adjectival patterns are not as common in news discourse as the non-graded adjectival patterns. Table 7-1 reveals that the graded patterns represent 23 per cent of all attested instances of the analysed patterns. The most frequent pattern in the tabloids and the broadsheets is the pattern ‘v-link ADJ-COMPAR’, followed by the pattern ‘adjective group with *too* or *enough*’. The ‘v-link ADJ-SUPERL’ is slightly more dominant in the tabloids.

6.2.4.2. Emotion vs. Opinion in patterns with graded adjectival patterns

Patterns with graded adjectives, similarly to non-graded adjectival patterns, are first and foremost used to express opinion; emotion is expressed negligibly, only 14 times in the whole corpus, see Table 6-52.

	Opinion		Emotion		Total	
	raw freq	per 10,000	raw freq	per 10,000	raw freq	per 10,000
Broadsheets	134	4.9	6	0.2	140	5.1
Tabloids	124	4.7	8	0.3	132	5.1
Total	258	4.8	14	0.3	272	5.1

Table 6-52 Opinion and emotion in patterns with graded adjectives

A remarkable fact is the almost non-existent difference between the tabloids and the broadsheets in the relative frequency of the graded patterns (per 10,000 words) in both dimensions of evaluation, viz. opinion and emotion. In non-graded adjectival patterns, the broadsheets showed a tendency to overuse opinion relative to the tabloids, and the tabloids showed a tendency to overuse emotion relative to the broadsheets, however, the graded adjectival patterns show different results. Opinion and emotion is expressed more or less equally in both the sub-corpora. In both the broadsheets and the tabloids, the graded adjectival patterns conveying opinion constitute the majority (95.7 and 93.9 per cent of graded patterns, respectively).

Graded adjectival patterns scarcely construe emotion, if they do, they use a limited number of adjective types to do so; the lemma *happy* is the most frequent, with five tokens in the corpus; further, it is the only emotional adjective that appears among the top ten most frequently used adjectives in the graded adjectival patterns. In addition, it is the only positive adjective of emotion used with the graded adjectival patterns. In terms of Appraisal Theory it expresses ‘happiness’. All other adjectives expressing emotion are presented by one token, and they construe negative evaluation; in terms of Appraisal Theory, they express ‘insecurity’, ‘inclination’, and ‘unhappiness’.¹²⁸

Table 6-53 shows the ten most frequently used adjectives in each sub-corpus and in total, in graded adjectival patterns. The lemmas *good* and *likely* are the most frequent adjectives used in graded adjectival patterns. It is followed by *high* and *big*. When compared to Table 6-38 displaying the non-graded adjectival patterns, the results are different. While the adjective *likely* seems to play a very important role in both the non-graded and graded adjectival patterns, in both sub-corpora, other adjectives are used differently. For example, the non-graded adjectival patterns have a tendency to use the adjectives *clear*, *right*, and *important* fairly frequently, but the graded patterns make hardly any use of these adjectives, except the

¹²⁸ The adjectives used in graded adjectival patterns to construe the dimension of emotion are: *scared*, *frightened*, *fearful*, *embarrassed*, *ashamed*, *painful*, *grief-stricken*, *happy*, and *emboldened*.

adjective *important*. Further, the adjectives construing emotional evaluation e.g. *concerned*, *proud*, *worried*, can be found among the top ten adjectives used in the non-graded patterns, the graded patterns show only the lemma *happy*, and it is only among top ten in the tabloids.

Broadsheets		Tabloids		Total	
<i>adjective</i>	<i>raw freq</i>	<i>adjective</i>	<i>raw freq</i>	<i>adjective</i>	<i>raw freq</i>
likely	11	good	9	good	19
good	10	likely	8	likely	19
high	10	big	8	high	15
hard	6	young	7	big	12
low	6	important	5	important	10
important	5	late	5	hard	9
strong	5	high	5	bad	9
late	4	happy	5	young	8
bad	4	nice	4	low	8
big	4	known	4	easy	6

Table 6-53 The most frequently used evaluative types of adjectives in patterns with graded adjectives. The highlighted adjective construes emotion.

7. Conclusions

7.1. Conclusions on non-graded and graded adjectival patterns

The aim of this chapter was to identify adjectival evaluative patterns in the whole corpus, to detect any differences between the two sub-corpora, i.e. the broadsheets and the tabloids, in using the patterns, and to explore how much opinion or emotion is expressed in newspaper discourse via these patterns. To do so, six basic evaluative adjective patterns introduced by Hunston and Sinclair (2000) were adopted together with Bednarek's (2009) more detailed versions of these patterns. These patterns are, in this thesis, called non-graded adjectival patterns. Bednarek's (2007b) graded adjectival patterns (patterns comprising comparative and superlative forms of adjectives, along with *too/enough* pre and post modifications) were also included in the analysis in order to cover as broad a range of predicative adjectival evaluative patterns in the corpus as possible. Table 6-1 and Table 6-40 display all the patterns used. Table 6-2 and Table 6-41 present all the quantitative results of the non-graded and graded adjectival patterns. Table 7-1 displays the summary of individual findings.

7.1.1. The representation of adjectival evaluative patterns in the corpus: quantitative results

There were a total of 1179 occurrences of all the patterns found in the corpus, 620 in the broadsheets and 559 in the tabloids¹²⁹ (see Table 7-1). The non-graded adjectival patterns were attested 480 times in the broadsheets, and 427 times in the tabloids, with a total of 907 occurrences.¹³⁰ The graded adjectival patterns occurred less frequently, only 272 times in total, 140 times in the broadsheets and 132 times in the tabloids.¹³¹ Table 7-1 summarizes all the quantitative findings concerning adjectival patterns including the relative frequency per 10,000 words. The results show that although the evaluative adjectival constructions are slightly more frequent in the broadsheets, the difference in the total numbers of evaluative adjectival patterns between the two sub-corpora is not statistically significant¹³² (this applies to both the non-graded and graded patterns).

¹²⁹ Highlighted in blue.

¹³⁰ Highlighted in orange.

¹³¹ Highlighted in green.

¹³² Log-likelihood was used to assess the statistical significance of the difference. (<http://ucrel.lancs.ac.uk/llwizard.html>)

Pattern	Broadsheets		Tabloids		Total		
	<i>raw freq</i>	<i>per 10,000 words</i>	<i>raw freq</i>	<i>per 10,000 words</i>	<i>raw freq</i>	<i>per 10,000 words</i>	
Non graded adjectival patterns							
1a	<i>it v-link ADJ finite/non-finite clause</i>	147	5.4	97	3.7	244	4.6
1b	<i>it v-link ADJ for n to-inf</i>	18	0.7	12	0.5	30	0.6
1c	<i>V it ADJ finite/non-finite clause (find/believe/think)</i>	8	0.3	9	0.3	17	0.3
1d	<i>it V n feel ADJ to-inf</i>	0	0.0	1	0.0	1	0.0
1e	<i>V it ADJ</i>	1	0.0	1	0.0	2	0.0
2	<i>there v-link something/anything/nothing ADJ about/in/with / ing-clause/n</i>	3	0.1	3	0.1	6	0.1
3a	<i>v-link ADJ to-inf</i>	130	4.8	106	4.1	236	4.4
3b	<i>v-link ADJ that</i>	47	1.7	31	1.1	78	1.5
4	<i>v-link ADJ prep</i>	109	4.0	156	6.0	265	5.0
5	<i>Pseudo-cleft</i>	5	0.2	5	0.2	10	0.2
6	<i>Patterns with general nouns</i>	12	0.4	6	0.2	18	0.3
	Total	480	17.7	427	16.3	907	17.0
Graded adjectival patterns							
(i)	<i>Too/enough</i>	57	2.1	42	1.6	99	1.9
(ii)	<i>Superlative</i>	26	1.0	34	1.3	60	1.1
(iii)	<i>Comparative</i>	57	2.1	56	2.1	113	2.1
	Total	140	5.1	132	5.1	272	5.1
	Grand total	620	22.7	559	21.4	1179	22.1

Table 7-1 Presentation of all patterns in the tabloids and the broadsheets. The overall findings of the large corpus analysis are highlighted in blue. The total non-graded adjectival patterns findings are highlighted in orange, the total graded adjectival patterns findings are highlighted in green.

Before the quantitative results of the individual patterns are described, I would like to draw attention to the fact that the analysis of the graded adjectival patterns has shown that the graded adjectival patterns are very often variants of the non-graded adjectival patterns. Table 7-2 below shows the unification of the patterns, where the graded adjectival patterns are shown in red. Therefore, based on these findings, new calculations have been done (see Table 7-3) as the results of the graded adjectival patterns were added to the results of the non-graded patterns accordingly: pattern 2 now also includes the graded form – pattern 2a and pattern 4 includes all graded forms 4a, 4b, and 4c, see Table 7-2, where examples are also included.

Pattern		Examples	
		non-graded adjectives	graded adjectives
1a	<i>it</i> v-link ADJ / ADJ-COMPAR finite/non-finite clause (<i>than</i>)	<i>it is useless to persist</i>	<i>it's much better to be out than in.</i>
1b	<i>it</i> v-link ADJ for n to-inf	<i>it is difficult for them to do that</i>	X
1c	V <i>it</i> ADJ / ADJ-SUPERL / ADJ-COMPAR finite/non-finite clause (<i>find/believe/think</i>)	<i>I found it incredibly hard to talk about my ordeal</i>	<i>I have thought it best to stand down as Dean, THOUSANDS of foreign students could find it easier to stay in Britain</i>
1d	<i>it</i> V n <i>feel</i> ADJ to-inf	<i>it makes me feel sick to think</i>	X
1e	V <i>it</i> ADJ	<i>The BMA branded it disturbing.</i>	X
2	<i>there</i> v-link something/anything/nothing ADJ about/in/with / ing-clause/n	<i>there is something rather appealing about being able to spend the evening in the town</i>	X
2a	<i>there</i> v-link nothing ADJ-COMPAR <i>than</i>	X	<i>There is nothing better than having a good keeper behind you...</i>
3a	v-link ADJ / too-ADJ / ADJ-enough / ADJ-COMPAR / to-inf	<i>He was very fortunate to get out alive.</i>	<i>He is too sick to stand a trial. Steve was ... brave enough to think differently... ...middle class parents are more likely to apply to faith schools...</i>
3b	v-link ADJ <i>that</i>	<i>The markets are optimistic that EU leaders are edging towards a deal to support the Eurozone.</i>	X
4	v-link ADJ / too-ADJ / ADJ-enough / ADJ-SUPERL prep	<i>...cops had been astounded at the age of the offenders.</i>	<i>She is too desperate for publicity. She seemed happy enough with her new fella, ... Sergeant Nigel Coupe, 33, ..., was the oldest of the men</i>
4a	v-link ADJ-enough / too-ADJ/ADJ-SUPERL / ADJ-COMPAR	X	<i>It was eight days after the incident and not good enough. ...the proposals were too broad... The V gang is the best. the risk is much greater</i>
4b	v-link ADJ-COMPAR <i>than</i> n/prep/ADV/non-finite clause	X	<i>Payment is generally far more generous than any government benefits....</i>

4c	v-link ADJ-COMPAR <i>to-inf</i> <i>than</i> n/prep/ADV	X	<i>They were more than eight times more likely to have been stopped... than the general population in London.</i>
5	Pseudo-cleft	<i>What is certain is that they wanted to kill.</i>	X
6	Patterns with general nouns	<i>...the important thing is we have identified a possible pathway</i> <i>It was obviously a silly thing to say...</i>	<i>it was the wisest thing to do.</i> <i>The most important thing is making sure that we put safety first.</i>

Table 7-2 A unification of the analysed patterns

		Broadsheets		Tabloids		Total	
		<i>raw freq</i>	<i>per 10,000 words</i>	<i>raw freq</i>	<i>per 10,000 words</i>	<i>raw freq</i>	<i>per 10,000 words</i>
	Adjectival patterns						
1a	<i>it</i> v-link ADJ finite/non-finite clause	151	5.5	101	3.8	252	4.7
1b	<i>it</i> v-link ADJ <i>for</i> n <i>to-inf</i>	18	0.7	13	0.5	31	0.6
1c	V <i>it</i> ADJ finite/non-finite clause (<i>find/believe/think</i>)	10	0.4	14	0.5	24	0.5
1d	<i>it</i> V n <i>feel</i> ADJ <i>to-inf</i>	0	0.0	1	0.0	1	0.0
1e	V <i>it</i> ADJ	1	0.0	1	0.0	2	0.0
2	<i>there</i> v-link <i>something/anything/nothing</i> ADJ <i>about/in/with</i> <i>ing</i> -clause/n	3	0.1	4	0.1	7	0.1
3a	v-link ADJ <i>to-inf</i>	177	6.4	138	5.3	315	5.9
3b	v-link ADJ <i>that</i>	47	1.7	31	1.2	78	1.4
4	v-link ADJ prep	191	7.0	236	9.0	427	8.0
5	Pseudo-cleft	5	0.2	5	0.2	10	0.2
6	Patterns with general nouns	17	0.6	15	0.6	32	0.6
	Total	620	22.7	559	21.4	1179	22.1

Table 7-3 New calculations of the unified patterns. The overall findings of the large corpus are highlighted in blue. The most frequent patterns are highlighted in purple.

Figure 7-1 below displays the representation of all the patterns in a graphical version (with the division of graded and non-graded patterns). Figure 7-2 shows the representation of all the ‘unified’ patterns. Both the graphs show that adjectival evaluation is performed predominantly by a small number of recurrent patterns: pattern 4 ‘v-link ADJ prep’, pattern 3a ‘v-link ADJ *to-inf*’, and pattern 1a ‘*it* v-link ADJ finite/non-finite clause’. A more detailed examination of the individual patterns’ frequencies reveals that the difference in the representation of two of the three most frequent patterns, 3a and 4, in the two sub-corpora is statistically significant (at the level of $p < 0.01$). Pattern 3a is overused in the broadsheets, and pattern 4 in the tabloids. Pattern 1a is also predominantly used by the broadsheets. However, the findings suggest that the differences between in the expression of evaluation in the two

types of newspaper have to be sought in the individual patterns rather than in the overall view of appraisal.

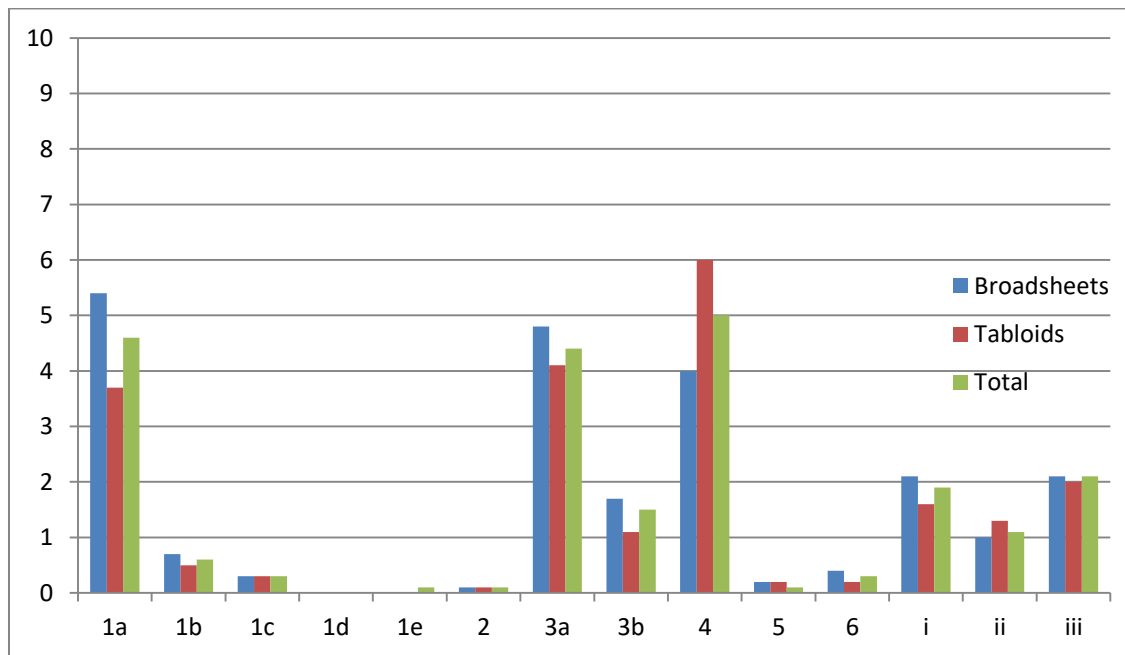


Figure 7-1 The relative frequency (per 10,000 words) of the patterns in the two sub-corpora and in the newspaper corpus as a whole. i, ii, iii represent the graded adjectival patterns.

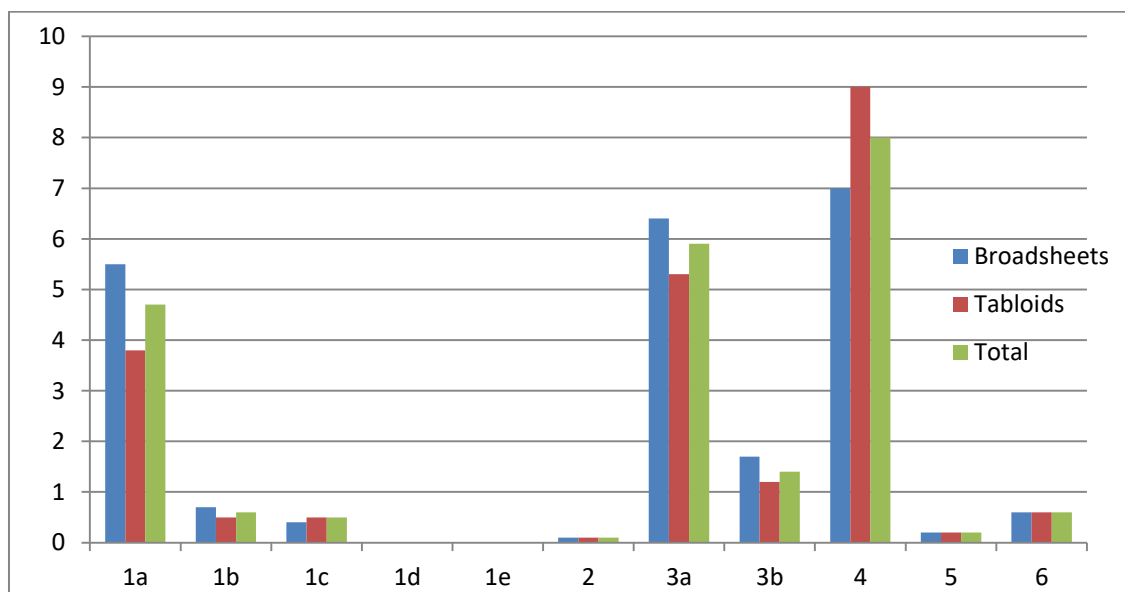


Figure 7-2 The relative frequency (per 10,000 words) of the unified patterns in the two sub-corpora and in the newspaper corpus as a whole

7.1.2. The new evaluative patterns and modifications attested in the corpus

Some modifications to the set of patterns used in this corpus were detected during the analysis. Firstly, Bednarek (2009) introduced pattern 1b as ‘it v-link ADJ for/of n non-finite

clause'. My corpus, however, showed no instances of the preposition *of* in pattern 1b. Secondly, Bednarek's suggestion for pattern 1c 'V *it* ADJ finite/non-finite clause' to use the verbs *find* and *consider* for parsing is not complete; the verbs *find*, *believe*, *think* were detected in my corpus in this pattern, in the non-graded adjectival patterns; the graded adjectival patterns show occurrences of the verbs *find* and *think*. Moreover, pattern 1c frequently employs the verb *make* i.e. 'make *it* ADJ finite/non-finite clause', which does not construe evaluative meaning. This illustrates the fact that the patterns should be understood as lexico-grammatical (rather than merely grammatical) configurations: while the patterns generally invite lexis which is likely to convey evaluation, the correspondence between a pattern and evaluative meaning is by no means a straightforward one.

Thirdly, the transcription of pattern 1d was changed from '*it* V n ADJ *that*' to '*it* V n *feel* ADJ *to-inf*' as no other link verb but *feel* appears in this pattern. Fourthly, pattern 1e has not shown any occurrence of the 'V *it* as ADJ' variation, therefore, the subtype was excluded from the analysis.

The graded adjectival patterns mostly correspond to non-graded adjectival patterns, see Table 7-2. No significant modification was found, except the sub-pattern 'v-link ADJ-COMPAR *than*', which has no corresponding representation in the non-graded adjectival patterns (it is similar to pattern 4 but it does not comprise the prepositional phrase).

7.1.3. The expression of opinion and emotion: the overall data

Regarding the dimensions of opinion and emotion expressed in the whole corpus, it can be said that the dimension opinion, in the whole corpus, and also in each sub-corpus, is overused compared to emotion, see Table 7-4. There are 886 instances of patterns expressing opinion and 293 of emotion, which represent 75.1 per cent and 24.9 per cent respectively of all pattern occurrences found. The instances of patterns expressing opinion in the broadsheets; see Table 7-4, outnumber those in the tabloids. The difference is statistically significant (at $p < 0.01$), so is the difference in the numbers of instances of adjectival evaluation of emotion in the broadsheets and the tabloids,¹³³ with the tabloid sub-corpus displaying an overuse of the emotion-expressing patterns relative to the broadsheet sub-corpus. Considering the ratio of the instances of the patterns expressing opinion and emotion within the two sub-corpora, the overall results in Table 7-4 demonstrate that the 'opinion' patterns are 4.1 times more frequent

¹³³ The difference is also statistically significant (at $p < 0.001$).

than those expressing emotion in the broadsheets, and merely 2.2 times more frequent than ‘emotion’ patterns in the tabloid sub-corpus.

	Opinion		Emotion		Total	
	<i>raw freq</i>	<i>per 10,000 words</i>	<i>raw freq</i>	<i>per 10,000 words</i>	<i>raw freq</i>	<i>per 10,000 words</i>
Broadsheets	499	18.2	121	4.4	620	22.7
Tabloids	387	14.8	172	6.6	559	21.4
Total	886	16.6	293	5.5	1179	22.1

Table 7-4 Presentation of emotion and opinion in the two-sub-corpora and in the newspaper corpus as a whole

Figure 7-3 illustrates the complete distribution of emotion and opinion in each sub-corpus, and in total.

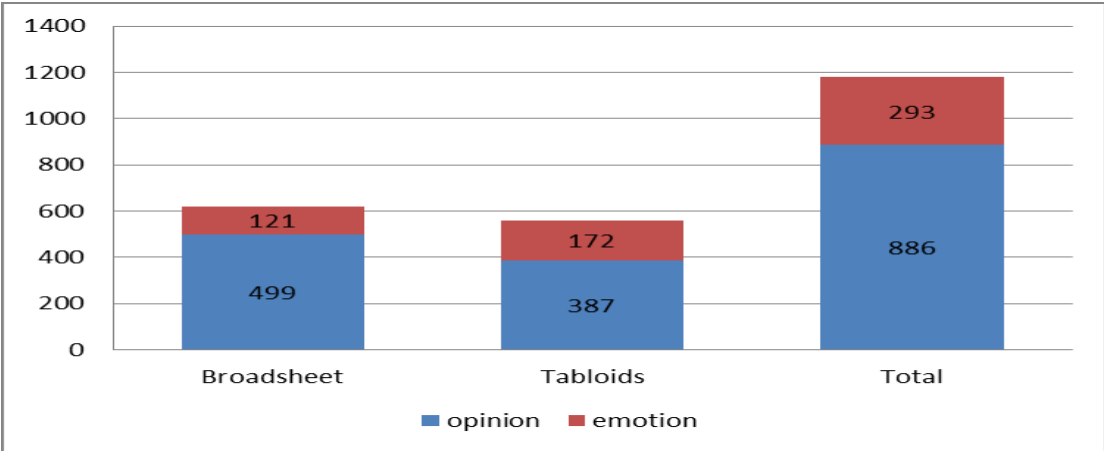


Figure 7-3 Presentation of opinion and emotion expressed by adjectival patterns (tokens)

Figure 7-4 and Figure 7-5 below show the relative representation of emotion and opinion in each pattern, in each sub-corpus. The instances of patterns 1a, 1b, 1e, 2, 5, and 6 found in this corpus are only used to express the dimension of opinion (but the numbers of occurrences are low with some patterns). Pattern 1a could be called the ‘opinion pattern’ as it is the third most frequent pattern in the whole corpus and the newspapers use it only to express instances of opinion. Emotion is expressed via patterns 1c, 1d, 3a, 3b, and 4. Pattern 3b could be, in this corpus, considered the ‘emotion pattern’ as it is used to express emotion more frequently than opinion. Pattern 3a can be mostly associated with the opinion evaluation, patterns 4 and 3b are strongly linked with the expression of emotion evaluation. Pattern 3b is very notable in the broadsheets (see Figure 7-5) because it is the only pattern where emotion is expressed more

frequently than opinion (the ratio is 27: 20 occurrences), in no other patterns, in the broadsheets, can this phenomenon be seen.¹³⁴

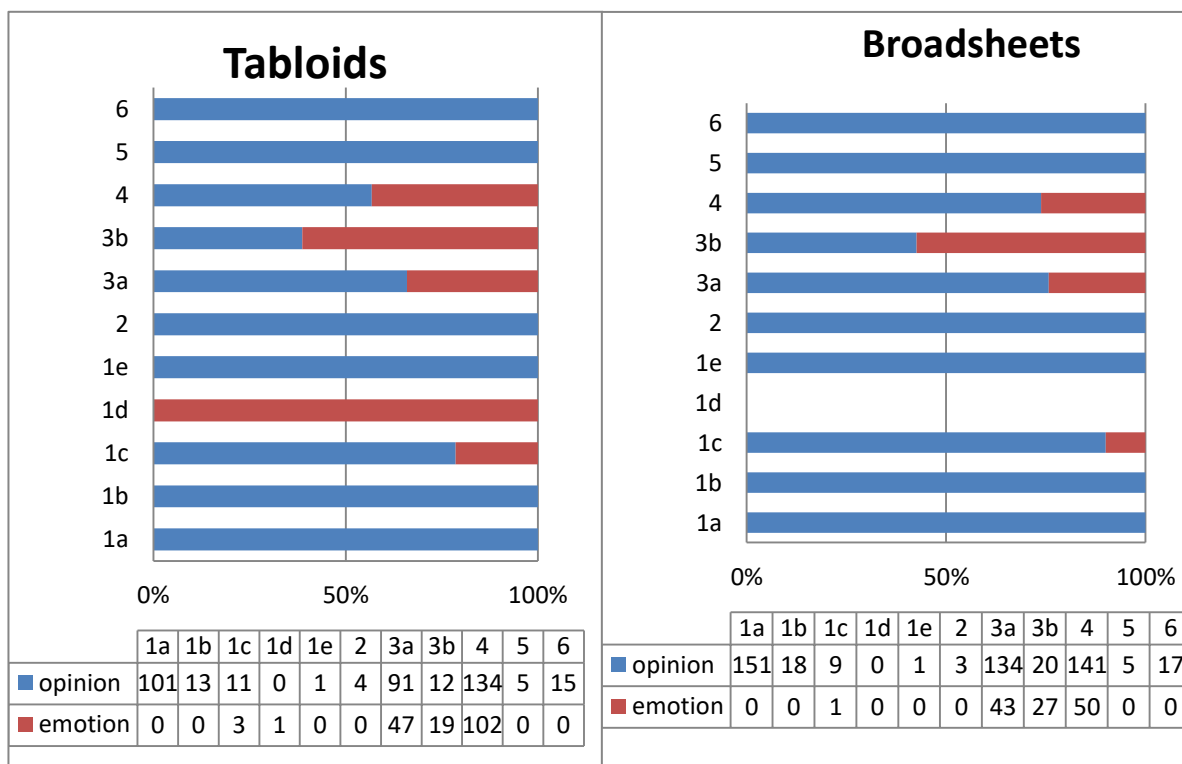


Figure 7-4 The relative representation of the expression of emotion and opinion by the individual adjectival patterns **in the tabloids (tokens)**

Figure 7-5 The relative representation of the expression of emotion and opinion by the individual adjectival patterns **in the broadsheets (tokens)**

Figure 7-4 shows that pattern 4 can be considered the ‘emotion pattern’ as emotion is expressed via this pattern most frequently. Compared to the pattern 3a, pattern 4 shows a two-fold frequency. It is not only the local grammar patterns that construe the dimension of opinion and emotion, but it is also the lexis that plays an important role. Section Non-graded adjectival patterns and Graded adjectival patterns comment on the most frequent lexis used in both sub-corpora and in total. The top four adjectives used in both sub-corpora in the whole corpus are: *likely*, *clear*, *right*, and *important*, see Table 7-5. These adjectives underline the dominance of the expression of opinion in the entire whole corpus. Table 7-5 also indicates that while the prevalence of ‘opinion lexis’ can be considered unmarked, the marked ‘emotion lexis’ is more frequently employed in the tabloids. My findings correspond to Bednarek’s

¹³⁴ Patterns 3a, and 4 show more occurrences of emotion than pattern 3b, but they also produce many instances of opinion.

(2008b, cf. Table 4-4) in that the adjectives *happy*, *concerned*, and *proud* are among the most frequent ‘emotion’ adjectives.

Broadsheets		Tabloids	
<i>adjective</i>	<i>raw freq</i>	<i>adjective</i>	<i>raw freq</i>
likely	75	likely	42
clear	34	clear	24
right	30	right	20
important	29	important	16
good	15	happy	16
concerned	14	good	15
hard	13	concerned	13
unlikely	12	sorry	12
unclear	12	proud	12
wrong	11	wrong	10

Table 7-5 Ten most frequent adjectives used in all patterns in each sub-corpus. The highlighted words construe emotion.

7.1.4. The individual patterns

So far, I have discussed the total result of the analysis, but now, let us move to each sub-corpus and summarise the results from the point of view of individual patterns in the broadsheets and tabloids.

Pattern 1a ‘*it* v-link ADJ finite/non-finite clause’ is used exclusively for the expression of opinion in both types of newspaper. However, the prevalent dimensions of opinion evaluation are different in each sub-corpus. While the broadsheets focus on clarity and importance of the proposition (adjectives *clear*, *important*, *essential*), the tabloids relate the proposition to degrees of goodness or badness (adjectives *right*, *wonderful*, *wrong*, *difficult*). This is also partially reflected in the form of the pattern. The interrogative finite clauses found exclusively in the broadsheet corpus occur as complements of the ‘clarity’ adjective *unclear*, which does not occur (or is relatively rare) in this pattern in the tabloids.

Pattern 1b ‘*it* v-link ADJ *for* n *to*-inf’ is used exclusively to express opinion in both types of newspaper. The ‘evaluator / evaluation carrier’, overtly expressed by the *for*-prepositional phrase, tends to be different in either sub-corpus. In the broadsheets the complements of the preposition *for* are typically noun-headed noun phrases often denoting prominent institutions or personalities (e.g. *the Prime Minister*, *the Health Secretary*, *the country*). In this way ‘eliteness’ of the information may be construed (Bednarek and Caple, 2014: 9). In the

tabloids, on the other hand, personal pronouns are typically employed as evaluators, which may be tied to informality and personification, often associated with tabloid press.¹³⁵

Pattern 1c '*find/believe/think it ADJ finite/non-finite clause*' may convey evaluation either along the dimension of opinion or of emotion. The prevalence of 'opinion' evaluation can be perceived in the choice of adjectives in the pattern (e.g. *hard, difficult, frustrating, hurtful*). The pattern is used to express mainly negative evaluation of 'difficulty'.

Patterns 1d and 1e appear to be very rare in newspaper discourse. Pattern 1d '*it V n feel ADJ to-inf*' conveying emotional evaluation, was attested only once, in the tabloid sub-corpus. There were only two instances of pattern 1e '*V it ADJ*'.

Pattern 2 '*There v-link something/anything/nothing ADJ about/in/with n/ing clause*' exclusively expresses the dimension of opinion. It is very rare in the newspaper discourse; it is most frequently used with *nothing* as the hinge.

Pattern 3a '*v-link ADJ to-inf*' is a very productive pattern in the newspaper discourse. This pattern conveys evaluation either along the dimension of opinion or emotion. The opinion dimension is more dominant in the broadsheets. The adjective *likely* plays a key role in this pattern in both sub corpora, creating the epistemic stance of the newspaper. The dimension of emotion is slightly more dominant in the tabloids, where the meanings of dissatisfaction, disinclination and satisfaction via the adjectives *sorry, reluctant, and proud* are most often expressed.

Pattern 3b '*v-link ADJ that clause*' is specific. It is not very frequent in the corpus, but the analysis has discovered that this pattern is emotion oriented. Both the sub-corpora employ pattern 3b predominantly to construe emotion especially via the adjective *concerned*. In addition, the broadsheets show a higher tendency to use this pattern to express emotion than the tabloids, while in the other patterns it is vice versa. A notable fact is that the broadsheets, when expressing the instances of negative emotion, tend to use high state and political representatives as the evaluators e.g. *Mr Cameron, ministers*, these then refer to the Prominence news value, which render the information more newsworthy. The tabloids do not

¹³⁵ According to Bednarek and Caple (2014: 11) personal pronouns are potential pointers to personification.

follow this pattern; they predominantly use pronouns as the evaluators. The dimension of opinion, represented mainly by the adjective *clear*, plays a lesser role in this pattern, yet thanks to the significant use of the adjectives *clear* and *confident* this pattern could be considered the ‘no doubt, obvious, self-confident –proclaiming’ pattern. A notable point is that most of the adjectives employed in this pattern are participial; no other pattern shows such ‘specialisation’.

Pattern 4 ‘v-link ADJ prep’ is the most frequent pattern in the whole corpus. However, there is a significant difference in its representation in the tabloids and in the broadsheets, with the tabloids overusing the pattern compared to the broadsheets. It is employed to express both opinion and emotional evaluation. The expression of opinion prevails over the expression of emotion in both the sub corpora via the adjectives *responsible*, *good* and *guilty*. The pattern is also attested frequently with graded adjectives, where the most frequent adjective is *big*. The dimension of emotion plays an important role mainly in the tabloids, where the adjectives *concerned* and *worried* are frequently used to create the stance of insecurity.

Pattern 5 ‘Pseudo cleft sentences’ is not an evaluative pattern widely used by the newspaper discourse. This finding is further supported by the fact that all instances of this pattern attested in the corpus were from direct quotation.

Pattern 6 ‘Pattern with general nouns’, is a rare pattern. The general noun used is *thing* mainly with adjectives *important*, *right*, *silly*, and *last*. Notably, the number of comparative/superlative forms of this pattern equals the non-graded forms. This is exceptional since all other patterns were attested more frequently in the non-graded form.

7.2. General conclusions

The aim of the thesis was to investigate the way in which evaluation is expressed in newspaper discourse.¹³⁶ The emphasis was laid on the dimensions of opinion and emotion, which were established based on Appraisal Theory.¹³⁷ The opinion dimension covers the

¹³⁶ The news discourse here, in this thesis, is represented by a corpus of news from six British online newspapers, see section 4.1.

¹³⁷ Martin and White (2005).

expression of judgement and appreciation,¹³⁸ and the emotion dimension encompasses the expression of affect.¹³⁹ After defining these two dimensions, a manual, small corpus¹⁴⁰ analysis¹⁴¹ was conducted to determine whether the research is feasible in terms of the stated evaluative dimensions. The small corpus analysis has proved that expressions of evaluation can be found in the news, but they are extremely context-dependent and therefore, cannot be analysed in isolation.¹⁴² Another notable finding was that verbs, exclusively in the tabloids, play a major role in expressing evaluation, especially the dimension of emotion, yet it has been observed that they are difficult to be parsed automatically, and an analysis on a larger corpus is not feasible. Nonetheless, evaluative verbs in the newspaper discourse deserve more attention.

The small corpus analysis has indicated that the differences in number of evaluative expressions between the tabloids and the broadsheets are statistically significant; the differences are not as visible in the number expressions, rather in details of the expressions, regarding the dimensions of opinion and emotion. For example, it was discovered that both kinds of newspapers tend to embed more expressions of evaluation into negative news, perhaps to make the news more newsworthy (Bednarek and Caple, 2012: 49). The use of positive evaluative expressions in the broadsheets can be considered marked as the broadsheets are reluctant to embed positive evaluation in their news.

Bearing in mind the results attested in the small corpus, and the available sources, it was decided that the large corpus analysis would focus only on one word class - adjectives, as they had been frequently represented in the small corpus analysis, and according to Hunston and Sinclair (2000: 84-90), adjectives are well suited for carrying evaluative load. To obtain more detailed data on local grammar of adjectives, adjectival patterns which were suggested by Hunston and Sinclair (*ibid.*) and adapted by Bednarek (2007b, 2009), were used to analyse the large corpus. The study has confirmed the existence of close relations between certain lexicogrammatical adjectival patterns and expressions of evaluative attitude in the language of online newspapers. The large corpus analysis has shown that the newspaper discourse

¹³⁸ described in sections 3.1.1.2. and 3.1.1.3.

¹³⁹ described in section 3.1.1.1.

¹⁴⁰ see section 4.1.

¹⁴¹ see Chapter 5.

¹⁴² When only software research is conducted, many instances of evaluation can be overseen.

(comprising 741 tabloid and broadsheet articles) seems to use the identical formally defined adjective evaluative patterns such as ‘v-link ADJ prep’, ‘v-link ADJ *to-inf*’, and ‘*it* v-link ADJ finite/non-finite’,¹⁴³ according to Bednarek (2007b) ‘this similarity may perhaps be explained by the common discourse function of hard news stories.’ None-the-less, some patterns which were analysed in this thesis show certain modification in the language of newspapers in comparison with the patterns described in literature: for instance, the pattern ‘*it* v-link ADJ *for n to-inf*’ rarely occurs with the optional *of* prepositional phrase in the newspapers; the pattern ‘*find/believe/think it* ADJ finite/non-finite clause’ has not been attested with the verb *consider* suggested by Bednarek (2007b). Some other patterns such as ‘*it V n V ADJ to-inf*’, and ‘*V it as ADJ*’, are rarely used in the news discourse.

In terms of the embedded expressions of opinion and emotion, it has been discovered that there is a statistically significant difference in the use of emotion in the tabloids over the broadsheets. These differences are especially noticeable in the choice of evaluative adjectives. Taking into account only the ten most frequent adjective types in the whole corpus, the tabloids show a tendency to employ a wider range of ‘emotion’ adjectives into news (*happy, concerned, sorry, and proud*) than the broadsheets (which rely only on the adjective *concerned*).¹⁴⁴ Nevertheless, the large corpus indicates a preponderance of the opinion evaluative expressions in each large corpus sub-corpus; adjectives construing the semantic mapping of clarity, importance, and epistemic stance prevail in both types of newspapers especially via the adjectives *likely, clear, right, and important*. Further, the lexicogrammatical character of the evaluative adjectival patterns has also been confirmed. The same pattern, based on the lexical choice, can express either the opinion or emotion evaluation.

To sum up, the study has affirmed that the news discourse embeds adjective evaluative patterns into their news; however, the distinction between the tabloids and the broadsheets cannot be seen in the frequency of the patterns rather in their function. It has also been confirmed that the local grammar pattern approach to the detection and description of evaluative meaning in newspaper discourse is useful and potentially fruitful for a possible area of further research.

¹⁴³ Another pattern playing an important role in newspaper discourse is the ‘v-link ADJ-COMPAR *than n*’.

¹⁴⁴ Only ten most frequent adjectives in each sub-corpus are discussed. See Table 7-5.

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Appendix: Corpus Holdings (in electronic form)

10. RESUMÉ

Předložená dizertační práce si klade za cíl prozkoumat vyjadřování hodnotících (evaluativních) postojů v anglickém novinovém diskurzu.

Navazuje na práce, které se zabývají problematikou vyjadřování hodnotících postojů v různých typech diskurzu, například Hunstonová a Thompson (2000); Martin a White (2005) a Bednareková (2006). Novinovým diskurzem se zabývali například Bell (1991), Crystal a Davy (1969) nebo Mac Donaldová (2005, v Biber a Conrad, 2009: 279). Ačkoliv byl novinový diskurz analyzován z mnoha pohledů, problematika hodnotících postojů v novinovém diskurzu je relativně nové téma, které ještě nebylo plně prozkoumáno. Za průkopnice tohoto směru mohou být považovány Bednareková (2008a, 2008b, 2007b, 2006) a Bednareková a Capleová (2012). Cílem této práce je obohatit výzkum novinového diskurzu ve spojitosti s hodnotícími postoji (zvláště pak s kategoriemi ‚návoru‘ a ‚emoci‘, které slouží jako základní prvky této práce).¹⁴⁵ Práce se zaměřuje především na dvě následující oblasti:

1. Způsob a prostředky, jakými se vyjadřují hodnotící postoje v anglickém online novinovém diskurzu. Zatímco jazykové rozdíly mezi seriózním a bulvárním tiskem na různých rovinách jsou v sekundární literatuře dobře popsány otázkou zůstává jakým způsobem noviny zasazují hodnotící postoje do svých článků a zda je do novinových článků vůbec vkládají. Abychom byli konkrétnější, zajímá nás, jaké slovní druhy se používají při tvorbě hodnotících postojů ‚návorů‘ a ‚emoci‘. Například Hunstonová a Sinclair (2000) považují adjektiva za slovní druh s velmi vysokým hodnotícím potenciálem. My se však ptáme, zda existují ještě jiné slovní druhy, které vytvářejí návor a emoce. Jakým způsobem je možné tyto druhy vyhledat v korpusu novinového diskurzu? Musí být vyhledávány manuálně či je možné použít konkordační programy?
2. Rozdíly mezi seriózním a bulvárním tiskem z pohledu hodnotících postojů, zvláště pak z pohledu sémantických kategorií ‚návoru‘ a ‚emoci‘. Bednareková (2006) zkoumala novinový diskurz (bulvární a seriózní tisk) z pohledu hodnotících parametrů. Svůj výzkum nezaměřila na kategorie ‚emoci‘ a ‚návoru‘, ale na parametry vyjadřující

¹⁴⁵ Klasifikace základních kategorií této práce, ‚návoru‘ (opinion) a ‚emoci‘ (emotion) byla provedena na základě ‚Appraisal Theory‘ (Martin a White, 2005), která je popsána teoretické části práce. Do kategorie ‚návoru‘ spadají hodnotící postoje týkající se hodnocení lidského chování (judgement) např. *Je velmi nezodpovědný.* a věci (appreciation) např. *Byla to ošklivá nehoda.* Do kategorie ‚emoci‘ spadají hodnotící postoje týkající se vyjádření emoci (affect) např. *Když jsem to slyšel byl jsem naštvaný.*

hodnotící postoje. Došla k závěru, že nejdůležitějším hodnotícím parametrem v jejím korpusu, v obou druzích novin, je parametr označovaný jako EVIDENCE/ STYLE (,důkazy/styl‘).¹⁴⁶ Tento parametr spadá do kategorie ,návoru‘, která je užívána v této práci, a proto by se dalo předpokládat, že novinové články budou převážně vyjadřovat ,návoru‘. Bednareková (2006) dále zjistila, že parametr EMOTIVITY (který v této práci odpovídá kategorii ,emoce‘) je častěji využíván v bulvárním tisku. Bednareková (2007b) své výsledky potvrzuje v další studii, kde zjistila, že bulvární noviny využívají hodnotících adjektivních vzorců k tomu, aby podávaly zprávu o emocionálním a mentálním stavu účastníků zpráv, zatímco seriózní tisk používá adjektivní vzorce hlavně k hodnocení samotné situace či chování účastníků. Budou se výsledky této práce lišit od výsledků, které získala Bednareková nebo je budou kopírovat?

K získání odpovědí bylo potřeba provést dvě analýzy. První, pilotní analýza ,malého korpusu‘ byla provedena za účelem zjištění využití slovních druhů a jejich frekvence při vyjadřování hodnotících postojů. Na základě této analýzy byla provedena druhá analýza ,velkého korpusu‘, která se zaměřila na adjektivní lexiko-gramatické vzorce, které byly vyhledávány pomocí konkordačního programu *AntConc*. Nalezené výsledky byly analyzované z pohledu kategorií této práce, jmenovitě kategorií ,návoru‘ a ,emocí‘.

Analýza malého korpusu

,Malý korpus‘ se skládá z novinových článků tří bulvárních novin (*the Sun, the Express, the Mirror*) a tří seriózních novin (*the Telegraph, the Independent, the Guardian*). K analýze byly vytvořeny dva subkorpusy ,Qatada‘¹⁴⁷ a ,Baby‘ z nichž každý obsahuje šest novinových článků na stejné téma, které byly staženy ve stejný den. Důvodem tohoto přístupu bylo omezení rozdílů mezi jednotlivými novinovými články daných tématem článku. Tabulka 1 reprezentuje kvantitativní charakteristiku ,malého korpusu‘. Při porovnávání výsledků výskytu hodnotících postojů bylo z důvodu rozdílného počtu slov v člancích využito normalizovaných hodnot na tisíc slov.

¹⁴⁶ Parametr EVIDENCE (,důkazy‘) se zaměřuje na otázku „Jak to víme?“. ,Styl‘ hodnotí způsob, jakým jsou informace prezentovány.

¹⁴⁷ Zjednodušeně se dílčí subkorpusy také nazývají ,negativní‘ (Qatada) a ,pozitivní‘ (Baby).

Subkorpusy	Bulvární noviny (Σ slov) ¹⁴⁸	Seriózní noviny (Σ slov)	Celkem (Σ slov)
Qatada	2 007	2 104	4 111
Baby	3 026	2 351	5 377
Celkem	5 033	4 455	

Tabulka 1 Kvantitativní charakteristika ‚malého korpusu‘

Analýza vyjadřování hodnotících postojů v ‚malém korpusu‘ kombinovala využití metody klíčových slov s detailní kvalitativní analýzou. Porovnávány byly na jedné straně bulvární a seriózní novinové články, na druhé straně subkorpuse ‚Qatada‘, který představuje ‚negativní‘ zprávy s ‚pozitivním‘ korpusem ‚Baby‘. Sonda ukázala, že klíčová slova nejsou pro porovnání vyjadřování evaluace vhodnou metodou (rozdíly v zastoupení jednotlivých hodnotících výrazů mezi subkorpusy nejsou statisticky signifikantní). Menší velikost korpusu umožnila naopak detailní analýzu prostředků vytvářející hodnotící postoje. Výzkum potvrdil předpoklady, že hodnotící postoje jsou velmi úzce vázány na kontext. Jedním z nejdůležitějších poznatků je to, že evaluativní lexikální prostředky vytváří shluky (klastry) a v kontextu těchto evaluativních shluků mohou slova, která v izolaci vyjadřují neutrální či pozitivní hodnotící postoj, vyjadřovat postoj negativní.

V ‚malém korpusu‘ bylo nalezeno celkem 363 výrazů spojených s hodnotícím postojem, 231 v bulvárním a 132 seriózním tisku. Ukazuje se, že v negativních zprávách (Qatada subkorpuse) se hodnotící postoje vyjadřující názor a emoce vyskytují častěji než v subkorpuse pozitivních zpráv (Baby subkorpuse). Pokud jde o jazykové prostředky, bylo zjištěno, že velmi důležitou roli při vyjadřování emocí, zvláště pak v bulvárním negativním subkorpuse, hrají slovesa. Celkové výsledky potvrzují, že slovesa jako *fear*, *fume*, *worry* společně s přídavnými jmény např. *fed up*, *scared*, *angry*, *determined* se využívají hlavně v bulváru. Seriózní noviny tradičně využívají emotivně zabarvených přídavných jmen např. *fed up*, *happy*. Analýza seriózního subkorpusu dále poukazuje na fakt, že pozitivní emoce, které jsou zde zastoupeny menší měrou než negativní emoce, jsou převážně vyjádřené přídavnými jmény jako *happy*, *proud*, *delighted*, *thrilled*. Důležitou roli hrají také podstatná jména; ta se velmi často vyskytují ve vzorcích ‘V n’ and ‘n N’ (např. *make mugs of us*, *hate preacher*).

¹⁴⁸ Slova byla spočítána programem *AntConc*. Nastavení nezahrnovalo interpunkci.

Získaná data potvrzují, že hlavním slovním druhem, kterým se nejčastěji vyjadřuje kategorie názoru, jsou přídavná jména. Analýza ‚velkého korpusu‘ se proto zaměřila na evaluativní lexiko-gramatické vzorce zakládající se na adjektivech.

Analýza velkého korpusu

‚Velký korpus‘, který byl použit při analýze evaluativních vzorců přídavných jmen, byl nově vytvořen pro účely této dizertační práce. Tento korpus obsahuje 741, většinou úvodních článků z šesti britských online novin, které jsou identické jako v ‚malém korpusu‘. Texty byly sbírány v období od 18. září 2011 do 8. října 2012. Tabulka 2 ukazuje složení ‚velkého korpusu‘.

	Seriózní tisk	Bulvární tisk	Celkem
Počet článků	339	402	741
Počet slov	273 014	261 197	534 211

Tabulka 2 Kvantitativní charakteristika ‚velkého korpusu‘

Korpus byl nejdříve morfologicky označován,¹⁴⁹ aby mohly být vyhledávány evaluativní vzorce, které se zakládají na adjektivech.¹⁵⁰ Vzorce, které byly analyzovány, byly vybrány na základě porovnání teorií Hunstonové a Sinclaire (2000) a Bednarekové (2007b, 2009). Seznam analyzovaných vzorců je uvedený v tabulce 3 níže, společně údaji o jejich frekvenci.

Doklady evaluativních adjektivních vzorců byly rozříděny podle toho, jakou evaluativní funkci v textu zastávají (‚emoce‘ nebo ‚názor‘). Bulvární a seriózní tisk nebyl porovnán jen z pohledu frekvence a funkce adjektivních vzorců, ale také z pohledu lexikálního. Zjišťovalo se, jaká přídavná jména jsou typická pro bulvární či seriózní tisk a jaká jsou typická pro celkový novinový diskurz tohoto korpusu. Analýza na začátku výzkumu byla rozdělena na vzorce obsahující adjektiva v základním tvaru (‚non-graded patterns‘) a ty s adjektivy vyjadřujícími vyšší stupeň nebo srovnání (‚graded patterns‘). Ale během analýzy bylo zjištěno, že detailní ‚graded‘ vzorce, vlastně odpovídají skupině ‚non-graded‘, proto byly výsledky následně sjednoceny. Celkově bylo nalezeno 1179 vzorců s evaluativním postojem,

¹⁴⁹ K morfologickému značkování byl použit program *Q-tag*.

¹⁵⁰ Protože *Q-tag* nerozlišuje sponová slovesa od dalších sloves, byla ve vyhledávání použita následující sponová slovesa *be, remain, prove, become, look, feel, seem, appear, turn, smell, taste, sound, prove, turn out*. Doklady jednotlivých vzorců byly vyhledávány pomocí korpusového manažeru *AntConc*. Manuálně byly pak vybrány ty doklady, které skutečně představovaly daný vzorec a zároveň byly nositeli evaluace.

620 v seriózním tisku a 559 v bulvárním. Výsledky tedy ukazují, že hodnotící lexiko-gramatické vzorce se častěji vyskytují v seriózním tisku, ale rozdíl mezi bulvárním a seriózním tiskem nemůže být považován za statisticky významný.

Vzorce		Seriózní tisk		Bulvární tisk		Celkem	
		četnost	na 10 tisíc slov	četnost	na 10 tisíc slov	četnost	na 10 tisíc slov
Non-graded adjectival patterns							
1a	<i>it</i> v-link ADJ finite/non-finite clause	147	5,4	97	3,7	244	4,6
1b	<i>it</i> v-link ADJ for n to-inf	18	0,7	12	0,5	30	0,6
1c	V <i>it</i> ADJ finite/non-finite clause (<i>find/believe/think</i>)	8	0,3	9	0,3	17	0,3
1d	<i>it</i> V n <i>feel</i> ADJ to-inf	0	0,0	1	0,0	1	0,0
1e	V <i>it</i> ADJ	1	0,0	1	0,0	2	0,0
2	<i>there</i> v-link <i>something/anything/nothing</i> ADJ <i>about/in/with / ing-clause/n</i>	3	0,1	3	0,1	6	0,1
3a	v-link ADJ to-inf	130	4,8	106	4,1	236	4,4
3b	v-link ADJ <i>that</i>	47	1,7	31	1,1	78	1,5
4	v-link ADJ prep	109	4,0	156	6,0	265	5,0
5	Pseudo-cleft	5	0,2	5	0,2	10	0,2
6	Patterns with general nouns	12	0,4	6	0,2	18	0,3
Celkem		480	17,7	427	16,3	907	17,0
Graded adjectival patterns							
(i)	<i>Too/enough</i>	57	2,1	42	1,6	99	1,9
(ii)	Superlative	26	1,0	34	1,3	60	1,1
(iii)	Comparative	57	2,1	56	2,1	113	2,1
Celkem		140	5,1	132	5,1	272	5,1
Celkový souhrn		620	22,7	559	21,4	1179	22,1

Tabulka 3 Přehled analyzovaných vzorců

Po sjednocení výsledků ‚graded‘ a ‚non-graded‘ kategorií vzorců bylo zjištěno, že nejvíce využívané vzorce ve ‚velkém korpusu‘ této práce jsou: vzorec 4 ‚v-link ADJ prep‘, vzorec 3a ‚v-link ADJ to-inf‘, a vzorec 1a ‚it v-link ADJ finite/non-finite clause‘. Tyto tři vzorce hrají velmi důležitou roli při vytváření hodnotících postojů v novinovém diskurzu.

Závěr

Práce potvrdila, že slovní druhy podstatná jména, přídavná jména a slovesa inklinují k vyjadřování hodnotících postojů v novinovém diskurzu, nejvýrazněji se tak děje u přídavných jmen. Analýza ‚malého korpusu‘ však naznačila, že by v budoucnosti stálo za pozornost se věnovat podstatným jménům a slovesům, protože v sobě skýtají evaluativní potenciál a dodnes nebyly zkoumány do hloubky v souvislosti s novinovým diskurzem a hodnotícími postoji. Analýza ‚malého korpusu‘ poukazuje na fakt, že mezi seriózním a bulvárním tiskem

skutečně existuje rozdíl ve vyjadřování hodnotících postojů. Tento rozdíl se ale neprojevuje v počtu výskytu výrazů nesoucích hodnotící postoje, nýbrž v rozdílnosti vyjádření kategorií ‚návoru‘ a ‚emoci‘. Bylo zjištěno, že oba druhy novin mají tendenci informovat spíše o negativních zprávách než pozitivních. Výskyt pozitivních hodnotících postojů v seriózním tisku tak může být považován příznakový.

V analýze ‚velkého korpusu‘ byla potvrzena existence blízkých vztahů mezi určitými lexiko-gramatickými vzorci přídavných jmen a vytváření hodnotících postojů v novinových člancích. Na jedné straně analýza ukázala, že novinový diskurz obecně inklinuje k používání stejných vzorců, které jsou formálně definovány jako ‚v-link ADJ prep‘, ‚v-link ADJ to-inf‘, ‚it v-link ADJ finite/non-finite clause‘. Na druhé straně bylo zjištěno, že existuje statisticky signifikantní rozdíl ve vyjadřování kategorií ‚emoci‘ a ‚návoru‘ v seriózním a bulvárním tisku. Seriózní tisk vyjadřuje hlavně ‚návoru‘, zatímco bulvární tisk tíhne k ‚emocím‘. Tyto rozdíly jsou zvláště výrazné ve výběru hodnotících přídavných jmen. Bulvární tisk využívá větší množství ‚emotivních‘ přídavných jmen (*happy, concerned, sorry, proud*) než seriózní tisk (zejména přídavné jméno *concerned*). Oba druhy novin, ale ve svých člancích společně dávají důraz na vytváření sémantických kategorií ‚jasnosti‘ a ‚důležitosti‘ spolu s epistemickým hodnocením, a to zejména s pomocí přídavných jmen *likely, clear, right, a important*.

Závěrem je možné říci, že tato dizertační práci potvrdila, že novinový diskurz obsahuje lexiko-gramatické vzorce přídavných jmen, které plně využívá k vyjádření hodnotících postojů. Rozdíl v počtu vzorců v seriózním a bulvárním tisku není obecně významný; významně se ale liší vyjádření kategorií ‚návoru‘ a ‚emoci‘ v obou typech deníků. Práce dále potvrdila, že přístup ‚local grammar‘ lze dobře využít v popisu a analýze hodnotících postojů a do budoucna by tento přístup mohl přinést užitečné výsledky.