Edited by
Phil Chappell &
John S. Knox

Transforming Contexts

Papers from the 44th International Systemic Functional Congress

The Organising Committee of the 44th ISFC
Wollongong

Cover: Detail of 'A masterpiece', by Benjamin Knox

Transforming Contexts:

Papers from
the 44th International Systemic Functional Congress

Edited by

Phil Chappell and John S. Knox

Contents

44th ISFC Organising Committee

Conference Chair:
Pauline Jones

Program Chair:
Erika Matruglio

Nadia Abdulridha Sakran Al-Esi
Adele Beck
Meeta Chatterjee-Padmanabhan
Honglin Chen
Janine Delahunty
Beverly Derewianka
Shoshana Dreyfus
Mahmud Hutashut
Claire Kembrey

Najme Kheradparvar
Ika Lestari Damayanti
Helen Lewis
Alison Moore
Emily Purser
Emma Rutherford Vale
Annette Turney
Joyce Voerman
Katina Zammit

Acknowledgements

The editors would like to thank the following people:

- Helen Lewis for copy editing all the papers.
- Pauline Jones for all her help with all the bits and pieces.
- All members of the 44th ISFC Organising Committee for making the Congress happen, and everyone else involved behind the scenes.
- The reviewers, for volunteering their time, expertise, and generosity.
- The authors, including those who had papers rejected, for sharing their work.

Statement regarding review process

All papers in this volume went through a two-stage, double-blind peer review process. First, all abstracts for the 44th ISFC Congress were double-blind peer reviewed. Those who had abstracts accepted were then invited to submit a full paper for consideration to be included in this volume. The full papers were then double-blind peer reviewed. A list of the reviewers of abstracts and full papers follows.

Phil Chappell and John S. Knox, Editors

List of Reviewers of Conference Abstracts

Monika Bednarek
Alice Cafferel-Cayron
Helen Caple
Meeta Chatterjee Padmanabhan
Honglin Chen
Frances Christie
Janine Delahunty
Beverly Derewianka
Yaegan Doran
Shoshana Dreyfus
Dorothy Economou

Susan Feez
Jennifer Hammond
Jing Hao
Sue Hood
Rosemary Huisman
Sally Humphrey
Pauline Jones
Harni Kartika Ningsih
Mira Kim
Jodie Martin

Anna-Vera Meidell Sigsgaard
Alison Moore
Emily Purser
Beatriz Quiroz
Elizabeth Thomson
Claire Urbach
Joyce Voerman
Canzhong Wu
Katina Zammit
Michele Zappavigna

List of Reviewers of Full Papers

Pei Soo Ang
Wendy Bowcher
Emilia Djonov
Alexanne Don
Yaegan Doran
Dorothy Economou

Jing Fang
Susan Feez
Sue Hood
Sally Humphrey
Derek Irwin
Pauline Jones

Miranda Legg
Annabelle Lukin
Erika Matruglio
Gerard O'Grady
Pattama Patpong
Mary Schleppegrell

Copy Editor of Full Papers

Helen Lewis

Introducing Transforming Contexts

John S. Knox and Phil Chappell

Macquarie University

Our contexts are transforming. In the lead up to the 44th International Systemic Functional Congress, held in Wollongong, Australia, the official discourse of the presidency in the world's military and economic superpower has changed fundamentally, challenging old and new media practitioners, politicians, and citizens everywhere. Geographically closer to the location of the Congress, funding for schools in the Australian education system has been fundamentally re-structured. The ability to communicate in English and how to test it have become a weapon once again in debates on immigration policy in Australia. NAIDOC[1] Week was held in the days immediately before the Congress, focussing on Indigenous languages in Australia with the theme: *Our Languages Matter*. Meanwhile, starvation, disease, and conflict in Somalia, South Sudan, Syria, Yemen and elsewhere have been pushed off front pages, evening bulletins and Facebook feeds by 'personality' politicians, sporting events, celebrities, and bewildered kittens.

High-level discursive and social practices such as those listed above are matched by corresponding changes in the reading, writing, and communication practices of people in businesses, educational institutions, community organisations, and in homes. Yet the changes wrought by the emergence of the internet in the late 20th century are still in their infancy.

These changing contexts transform our work as researchers and educators. They transform national and institutional priorities and policies, affecting who gets educated, who gets jobs, which industries are supported, and whose research gets funded.

They transform the way we communicate. Old media struggle to gain attention in the algorithms and hashtags of social media; soundbite authors compete directly with national leaders who govern 140 characters at a time; fake facts and alternative news provide us every day with Classifier-Thing couplings previously reserved for fiction and comedy.

It is in this environment that people working with a socially committed, appliable theory of language and meaning (see Martin, 2013; Matthiessen, 2012) gather in a university on the east coast of Australia, on Dharawal Country, the land of the Wadi Wadi people, in the southern Winter of 2017, to report and share their research. Research that will, hopefully, transform these contexts and others in a positive way.

The 15 papers in this volume are a sample of the approximately 150 papers presented at the Congress. We have grouped the papers in this volume according to contextual similarities that resonated with us: transforming contexts of theory and practice, transforming social contexts, and transforming educational contexts. We invite you to explore your own connections as you read the collection.

---

[1] The National Aborigines and Islanders Day Observance Committee

Transforming Contexts of Theory and Research

In the first paper of the collection, Inako examines the practice of glossing in translation. She unpacks the steps in glossing when translating Japanese into English, and characterises the process as one of making a series of conscious decisions. The paper is of value to translators, and also to anyone who deals with translated text, as it unpacks and makes explicit an important aspect of the translation process.

Rivas presents a paper which is one of the few that have explored genre from a phonological perspective. She investigates a range of texts taken from media organisations' internet sites. Textual phonological meanings were found to pattern consistently with certain genre-stage boundaries in interviews and stories, whereas interpersonal phonological meanings were found to be more contingent. This paper explores instantial relations between strata that are largely unexplored, contributing to our understanding of relations between different 'spaces' in the theory.

Bednarek and Caple present a topology for situating research into (multimodal) discourse, combining a cline of intra-text and inter-text studies on one hand, with intra-semiotic and inter-semiotic on the other. This allows us to describe and situate different research projects in relation to each other in a consistent and informative way. They also present a dynamic, interactive visualisation tool for displaying relations between multiple variables. These theoretical and practical concepts and tools are of use to researchers using systemic functional and other approaches who deal with the complexity of communication in modern, transforming contexts.

Transforming Social Contexts

Adlington explores the way that the language of a primary school-aged blog author, and the reader-commenters, employ aspects of both written and spoken language. This is a context where relatively new social practices, employing relatively new technology, are still evolving, and with them the social roles of readers and writers. Applying the theoretical tools of MOOD, NEGOTIATION, APPRAISAL, and genre, Adlington identifies the co-construction of solidarity, and of the identity of the child author. Proposing the notion of modal hybridity, the paper exemplifies the transformational nature of a range of emerging social contexts and the discourse through which they are enacted.

Lasne adopts and adapts Martin and White's (2005) Appraisal theory to investigate the evaluative strategies deployed in corporate blogs by luxury good multinationals, in both Chinese and English. Noting that evaluation is particularly context-sensitive, Lasne finds that persuasion is approached more overtly, inscribed with more emotion, in the Chinese texts than in those written in English. Lasne focuses on how persuasion is enacted in each language through the Appreciation framework, which she adapts by adding a 'context-independent' semantic framework in two languages for this purpose.

Durán looks at negation in a corpus of 45 inaugural speeches by US presidents. He finds, in part, that US presidents' inaugural speeches 'are noticeably biased towards negation', and that clauses with *not*-negation tend to occur in a different distribution of process types than clauses with *no*-negation. This is related to how the speakers choose to portray themselves at the outset of their presidency, a critical periodical juncture in transforming the context of the United States and the world.

Wijeyewardene explores the discourse of two Thai political scientists on the May 2006 coup in Thailand. Each represents one of the polarised political views on the coup which were widely held at the time (and since). The two authors use a range of strategies in how they represent the government/state (the distinction is significant), the military, and the people, thereby legitimising and de-legitimising different groups according to each author's position. This paper is a contribution to our understanding of political / media discourse, and also to SFL studies of Thai, demonstrating the relation between context and public discourse in Thailand and beyond.

Transforming Educational Contexts

Ekawati, Muhtar, Dalimunthe and Kurniawati report on the introduction of an adapted approach to genre-based instruction, using what they term 'alternative joint construction'. Adapting the traditional SFL genre-based pedagogical approach to teaching descriptive writing to a university-level EFL class of 45 students, they made strategic changes in different stages of the teaching-learning cycle based on contextual factors and the needs of the students. Average scores on three different assessment tasks improved over the course of the study, suggesting that the contextually-sensitive approach was indeed successful, and potentially transformational.

Tilakaratna and Szenes utilise the Appraisal framework by examining two contexts in which higher education students undertake critical reflection tasks, with a view to contributing to our understandings of the transformation of knowledge learned in the academy to knowledge applied in the professions. Finding a number of commonalities across the two contexts (social work and business), the authors conclude that there is the possibility of a systematic application of the resources of AFFECT and JUDGEMENT, identifying an area rich with possibilities for future investigation.

Thomas investigates personalising learning in year 1 and year 2 classrooms in Australia through a design-based research approach. In the first stage of the research, involving the use of a genre-based pedagogy to teach narratives, learner and teacher reactions suggested that the approach did not engage learners or teachers, despite improvements in writing and use of metalanguage. In a subsequent iteration, learners dealt with a topic of personal relevance and wrote texts for an audience beyond their teacher, in a genuine attempt to effect change within their school. Additionally, students were required to do less re-writing of the same text. Teacher responses and assessed student gains in writing suggest that this approach effected positive change.

To and Thomas continue the focus on writing in primary schools by investigating high achieving students' use of interpersonal metaphor of modality when writing within the genre of persuasion. Contributing to our understandings of this aspect of grammatical metaphor, To and Thomas offer useful suggestions for genre writing pedagogy, namely to focus on both grammatical and lexical metaphor when exploring how authors successfully construct persuasive texts.

Wegener, Schüller and Cassens report on their project on identifying contextually relevant importance in real-time spoken language. Specifically, the study reported here seeks to identifying salient multi-modal markers to assist in the automatic extraction of key information from university lectures. By analysing the first lectures of the first semester of first year courses, where most information is new, the aim is

accurate automatic summarisation, especially to identify the goals of the course. Preliminary findings presented here are that the processes of needing and wanting (realised in the lexemes going, want, need) can be used to locate important information. This study is particularly relevant to those interested in the automatic summarisation of spoken natural language.

Kawabata investigates oral proficiency testing with a view to considering how coherence can be assessed in a standardised test setting. Focusing on the IELTS speaking test, Kawabata investigated clause complex analysis, thematic progression, and lexical cohesion. Given the inherent subjectivity of assessing one's interlocutor in this high stakes context, Kawabata's finding, among others, that 'fluency' and 'coherence' are often poorly assessed suggests these two categories should be separated. Kawabata's study should be of interest to all those involved with designing and/or delivering oral proficiency tests.

Tong, Pun, Siu and Gube describe their study into the design and execution of three adjunct courses that combine genre-based knowledge with discipline-specific knowledge in a Hong Kong tertiary institution. By looking at course materials, the authors found a distinct role for assessment tasks in the process of enculturation in Engineering. In terms of technical language, Tourism Management was found to be part way between hierarchical and horizontal knowledge structures. Pedagogical approaches to Sociology and Culture were found to largely benefit from a focus on multimodal discourses. This study underscores the significant, ongoing need to provide a 'linguistic account of the language demands of the major genre-based academic tasks in higher education programmes'.

In the final paper of the volume, Hao examines the discourse-semantic meanings at stake in 'showing' processes, which fall topologically around the border between relational and verbal processes. Her paper shows that 'showing' processes in Biology texts make meaning across the metafunctions in the discourse semantics. The findings have clear implications for learning and teaching the language of Biology in particular, and probably of science more broadly. At the same time, it brings us full circle back to transforming theoretical contexts, as the findings also have implications for our understandings of grammatical metaphor.

<div align="center">* * *</div>

Our contexts are collections of meanings, and when we mean we act upon them. We hope the Congress informs and inspires all participants, and that these proceedings, too, play a role in transforming contexts.

John Knox and Phil Chappell
July, 2017

References

Martin, J.R. (Ed.). (2013). *Interviews with M.A.K. Halliday: Language turned back on himself*. London: Bloomsbury.

Matthiessen, C.M.I.M. (2012). Systemic Functional Linguistics as appliable linguistics: Social accountability and critical approaches. *DELTA,28*, 435-471.

But the meaning disappears when translated into English: Glossing choices in a discourse semantic exploration of Japanese

Ayumi Inako

Kobe City University of Foreign Studies (part-time)
ayumimv@gmail.com

Abstract

Doing analysis of one language and presenting it in another is a challenging task. It is important that the meaning in the original text is presented in the language of description with minimal distortion of meaning. In order to make the original meanings accessible to readers, a gloss is often provided alongside translation. However, this process has largely relied on convention in SFL works on Japanese to date. The issue was highlighted for me in my discourse analysis of texts written in Japanese (Inako 2015). Some meanings I wished to focus on were not made explicit in conventional ways of glossing or in English translation.

I present how I tackled the issue by drawing upon the two selection principles for glossing proposed in McDonald (2008), i.e. be contingent on the purpose of the study, and be contrastive. I demonstrate my conscious selection process at each step of the glossing, in order to assure relevant meanings were made as explicit as possible in the gloss/translation while maintaining consistency within the inter-relation of Japanese (Caffarel et al. 2004). I argue how explicit glossing helps overcome a number of challenges that linguists may face dealing with Japanese, or potentially any other languages.

1   Explicit glossing, rationale and process

A challenge lies in undertaking analysis of text in one language for presentation in another language. It is a required process to translate the original text into the other language in which the text is described or analysed. However, each language has 'their inter-relations in the system set up for that language' (Caffarel et al. 2004). In the process of translation, chances are that the meaning in the source text is somehow distorted in the target text.

In order to minimize potential distortion of meaning in linguistic exploration of meanings in languages other than English, a gloss is often provided alongside translation (e.g. Rose 2005). However, the process has largely relied on convention in SFL studies of the Japanese language to date, and yet displayed variety and inconsistency among different authors (e.g. Teruya 2007, Thomson and Armour 2013). Issues arose in my exploration of community formation on Twitter in Japanese (Inako 2015). Some of the meanings I wished to focus on in discourse analysis were not made explicit by conventional ways of glossing or in English translation, leading to a necessity for more explicit glossing choices.

In McDonald (2008), a gloss is conceptualised as 'a (rough) equivalent of each significant unit of the original'. A gloss is different from a translation, the latter referred to by McDonald as 'a contextually appropriate English equivalent of each move' (pp. 21–22). Glossing is not the same as lexicogrammatical analysis either, but something on which linguistic analysis will be based. However, as McDonald admits by referencing Becker (1993/1995), the process of glossing involves an initial theorising, and 'in fact an essential part of any syntactic description … that can affect

any further descriptive claims made for the text' (McDonald, 2008, p. 11). It is therefore important to make this initial theorising explicit. To this end, McDonald provides two fundamental principles or criteria in making decisions about glossing, i.e. be 'contingent on the purposes for which it is envisaged', and be 'contrastive', i.e., how linguistic units operate within a 'network of interlocking distinctions' (2008, p. 31).

Adopting these two principles, the process of glossing in Inako (2015) consisted of the following steps. It begins by romanising the original texts at the same time as segmenting the text into 'significant units' (McDonald 2008, p. 21). The next step is assigning an English equivalent for each significant unit in Japanese. After that, English translations at the group and clause (complex) ranks are provided. Each step is provided on each line of the glossing table. Table 1 summarises these steps with an exemplar glossing and English translation of the extract of a tweet.

original text			(そろそろ	疲れてきました.
glossing.	Steps 1 & 2	romanisation and segmentation	(*sorosoro*	*tsukarete.* *ki.mashi.ta.*
	Step 3	unit-by-unit equivalent	(little-by-little	get-tired. COME.POL.PST.
	Step 4	group rank translation	(gradually	have become tired.
translated text	Step 5	clause (complex) rank translation	((I) am getting tired now.	

Table 1: Steps involved in glossing

In this paper, I discuss some of the issues I tackled at each step of the process in Inako (2015). The aim was to make sure that meanings relevant to the research questions are made as explicit as possible in the gloss. The main focus is how to deal with some of the lexicogrammatical resources in Japanese, and how to present them for the discourse analysis to come, but I also mention some graphological aspects.

2 Glossing choices: Steps and issues

2.1 Step 1: Romanisation

The first step of glossing concerns romanising of the texts written in Japanese graphology. This already raises some potential issues, as there is more than one convention for romanising Japanese (Tsukishima 1964). In Inako (2015), I adopted the *hyoojunshiki* (standard) convention in general because it better reflects the way Japanese is pronounced in relation to how the romanised version is pronounced by English speakers.

Romanising long vowels raises another issue. I chose to duplicate the first vowels for all five vowels, i.e. '*aa*', '*ii*', '*uu*' '*ee*', '*oo*', so that the resulting romanisation reflects how a long vowel in Japanese is perceived as consisting of two mora [2] syllables. However, this choice is different from how proper names are conventionally romanised. For instance, 'Keio (University)' would be glossed '*keeoo*' following my principle. There is yet another possibility to gloss it as '*keiou*'. Whether to consider

---

[2] A 'mora' is 'a subsyllabic prosodic constituent or "timing unit". MORA-TIMING 'is used traditionally to describe the characteristic rhythm of Japanese' (Clark, Yallop & Fletcher 1990/2007, p. 340).

one choice 'idiosyncratic' and 'anglicised' (Rose 2005), or to make romanising choices based on the same principle that 'the description of English should be anglo-centric' (just as the description of Chinese should be sino-centric' - see Caffarel et al. 2004) can be controversial. It is at least worth pointing out that decision making is potentially involved in this very first step of glossing.

2.2 Step 2 and 3: Segmenting into units and providing an equivalent

2.2.1 Classifying significant units

The next two steps, i.e. segmenting the original text into significant units and assigning an English equivalent to each unit, constitute the substantial part of the glossing process. Identifying significant units for analysis in Japanese is not straightforward. Determining a word in Japanese can be ambiguous because Japanese graphology does not use space as a word boundary. Defining a morpheme can be even more controversial.

The choice I made was to avoid morphemes and words, and to use instead the term 'item'. This corresponds to what McDonald refers to as 'significant unit' (2008, p. 21). In the research that takes a systemic functional perspective, 'significant' means 'involving choice' and 'bearing a function' (McDonald personal communication).

The segments for glossing, or items, are classified into three subcategories, i.e. lexical items, grammatical items and grammaticalised lexical items (McDonald, personal communication). A lexical item corresponds to what is generally considered a lexical word in Brown (2006), i.e. an item 'having a lexical meaning'. A grammatical item is what is often called a grammatical word, i.e. an item 'without significant lexical meaning that functions to express grammatical relationships' (Brown 2006). The latter category is likely to comprise bound morphemes, containing 'a finite number of elements in contrast at a particular place in the structure, e.g. following verbs or nominal groups, expressing relatively abstract/general meanings. Ideally, a lexical item in Japanese is notated with a lexical item in English, whereas a grammatical item is notated with an abbreviation of a glossing label of an abstract grammatical term. The third category, a grammaticalised lexical item is one that involves grammaticalisation, or items that went through the process of 'losing lexical meaning and gaining grammatical meaning' (Brown 2006). In my glossing a grammaticalised lexical item is treated from a synchronical perspective, i.e. when the same item is used as a lexical item in other instances in modern Japanese.

2.2.2 Segmenting, providing boundary and annotating: focusing on *te*-form

symbol	meaning	example(s)
+	lexical boundary, i.e. between two free morphemes	*hoosha+sen+boogo* radiation+line+protection
.	non-lexical boundary, all combination other than two free morphemes	*hoosha.noo* radiation.ability
/	conflation, when two meanings are fused in one item	*kata* *person/RES*
:	when grammatical label is followed by another label or English equivalent	.te .ASP:rsl
( )	additional information about the item	(ACR), (CNTR), etc
acronym in upper case	grammatical label	.TOP, .NOM
lexical item in upper case	grammaticalised lexical item	*(yatte).kureru* (do).GIVE-ME

Table 2: From 'Glossing symbols and meanings' (Inako 2015)

Table 2 shows how items were presented in the gloss in Inako (2015), by way of different symbols and cases. With these general principles and symbols for different items and item boundaries, there were still issues in drawing group and item boundaries. Among those I addressed in Inako (2015), I discuss the issue of so-called *te*-form in Japanese. In SFL accounts of Japanese, the notation 'SUS' is often assigned to this particular form (e.g. Teruya 2007). However, this can be confusing because the term 'suspensive'[3] does not necessarily carry a function of 'suspending', but has other functions (Thomson 2001). Then, the glossing needs to be done in the way that it reflects the other functions of *te*-forms.

I examined different instances that contain *te*-forms with different functions, and classified them into three distinct patterns, with different places of boundary. The first type is realises 'suspensive *muudo*'. It is defined as 'non-finite, tactic verb form' in Sato (Suto) and Barton (2013, p. 194). For instance, in the following tweet extract, the mood is suspended in *dashi.te* (give out), until the indicative mood is provided in the next clause in *hookai.suru* (decay.DO).

α 線を	出して	崩壊する	Pu
arufa+sen.o	*dashi.te*	*hookai.suru*	*piiyuu*
alpha+line.ACC	give-out.SUS	decay.DO	Pu
alpha ray	giving out	decays	Pu
Pu that decays giving out alpha ray			

The second is the case in which the verb '*te*-form' is followed by '*iru*'. Here, the combination functions as an aspect marker, indicating either continuous, meaning 'action in progress', or resultative, meaning 'the state resulting from the action' (Kaiser et al. 2001, p. 489).

---

[3] In Teramura (1984), 'suspensive' is defined as a type of *muudo* (mood) whereby mood choice is suspended until in a latter clause.

プルトニウムを	検出する	機器を	持っていない。
purutoniumu.o	*kenshutsu.suru*	*kiki.o*	*mot.tei.nai*。
plutonium.ACC	detection.DO	apparatus.ACC	have.ASP:rsl.NEG.
plutonium	detect	apparatus	do not have
(We) don't have apparatus to detect plutonium.			

In this case, the glossing boundary is located between the verb stem '*mot.*' (have) and '*.te*' (c.f. Sato (Suto) and Barnard 2013) When there is a 'contraction'[4], the realisation '*.te*' can represent the aspect meaning in the case of grammatical contraction. If there is no contraction in this clause, the instance would be glossed as '*it.tei.ta.kedo*'.

P1 先生も	いってたけど、
P1+sensee.mo	*it.te.ta.kedo*、
P1+teacher.HIL:too	say.ASP:cont(CONTR).PST.but,
Prof. P1 too	was saying but,
As Prof. P1 was also saying,	

The last type is the case of verb compounds in which a verb in '*te*-form' is followed by another verb, the latter functioning as a grammaticalised lexical item. In this case, it is more reasonable to consider that the boundary is located between '*te*' and the second, grammaticalised verb, because the kind of contraction that can happen with '*.teiru*' does not happen in the third case. One example of verb compound is the following extract from [J1-1].

放散されてしまった	プルトニウム
*hoosan.s.arete.**shimat**.ta*	*purutoniumu*
dissipation.DO.PSV.**END**.PST	plutonium
has ended up being dissipated	plutonium
the plutonium that has ended up being dissipated	

In Teramura (1984), the construction '*te.shimau*' is referred to as 'secondary aspect' (p. 123) of completion. However, '*shimau*' is actually a grammaticalisation of a lexical item meaning 'to end'. Moreover, the construction behaves differently from '*teiru*' discussed above in that while the latter has a contracted form, the former does not. What is more important from a discourse analysis perspective, providing the meaning of '*shimau*' in the gloss would make more of the original meaning accessible to the readers without the knowledge of Japanese than just offering a grammatical label indicating aspect of completion. This makes a more explicit link between the original and the English translation 'end up ...ing'.

Another example of the *te*-form construction is where a verb is followed by what Teruya (2007b) categorises as processes of benefaction, glossed as 'g-&-r'. The category consists of the grammaticalisation of three lexical items, '*ageru*', '*kureru*', and '*morau*', meaning 'give you/other', 'give me' and 'receive' respectively, and their HONORIFICATION equivalents. Then, glossing can provide more information into the distinctive meaning of the items in this category. In this example, glossing *kureru* as

---

[4] In the glossing, the term 'contraction' is used in a general linguistic term to refer to 'a phonological reduction or merging of a sequence of forms' (Brown 2006).

'GIVE-ME', makes the original meaning more explicit'. Then again, the proposed glossing is more informative and more compatible with the English translation than by just following convention, and therefore more suited for discourse analysis.

誰か	やってくれる？
dareka	*yatte.**kureru**?*
someone	do.**GIVE-ME**?
someone	do for me?
Can anybody do (it) for me?	

2.3 Providing group rank translation

Challenge may occur when a resource in one language does not have an equivalent in English. This actually happened in Inako (2015), as I explored the discourse semantic functions of the lexicogrammatical systems of HONORIFICATION in Japanese. In order to make choices in these systems more visible to the readers, I made use of emoticons. For example, in the following two tweet extracts, there is a contrast between the two in that only the former realises honorification: respect, as is indicated in the gloss as 'GIVE-ME/RES'.

グラフ化して下さいました.
*gurafu.ka.shite.**kudasai**.mashi.ta.*
graph.change.DO.**GIVE-ME/RES**.POL.PST.
made ₘ(',ﾟ'@)ₘ into graph for me.

アニメにしてくれました.
anime.ni.shite.kure.mashi.ta.
animation.ATTR.DO.GIVE-ME.POL.PST.
made an animation for me.

By adding emoticons such as ₘ(',ﾟ'@)ₘ in the group rank translation and in the translated text, the choices made in the original, which is already glossed as 'RES', is made further visibly accessible for the readers without knowledge of Japanese.

3 Using glossed texts for discourse analysis

The examples discussed above are resources in Japanese which had relevance to the purpose of my research, i.e. exploring linguistic contribution to community formation. My focus was inevitably drawn on resources that negotiate interpersonal meanings, which were glossed into enough detail to show contrast. The glossed texts were then taken up for discourse analysis, where resources including the above were interpreted and analysed at the level of discourse semantics, particularly in terms of APPRAISAL and NEGOTIATION in this case.

These examples concern lexicogrammar, but other strata are also relevant, for instance graphology. In the above instance of '*dareka yatte.**kureru**?*' (Can anybody do (it) for me?), the question mark means more than the equivalent in alphabetical languages including English. Then, this needs to be presented in the gloss so that its

function in the discourse can be addressed in relation to other stratal variables including tenor and mode.

Glossing is not a straightforward process but involves complex steps of conscious decision making. However, it is rewarding in that the meanings in the original texts has a better chance of being made explicit and therefore being addressed in the analysis. I hope that developing sensitivity towards conscious glossing will open space for more in-depth multilingual contributions in the evolution of SFL.

References

Becker, A. L. (1993/1995). The elusive figures of Burmese grammar: An essay. *Beyond Translation: Essays toward a Modern Philology* (pp. 231-257). Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press.

Brown, K. (2006). *Encyclopedia of Language and Linguistics*

Caffarel, A., Martin, J. R. & Matthiessen, C. (2004). Introduction: systemic functional typology. In A. Caffarel, J. R. Martin & C. Matthiessen (Eds.), *Language Typology: a functional perspective* (pp. 1-76). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Clark, J., Yallop, C. & Fletcher, J. (1990/2007). *An Introduction to Phonetics and Phonology*. Malden, MA: Blackwell.

Inako, A. (2015). *Affiliating in crisis: a linguistic perspective on community formation on Twitter after the nuclear accident in Japan in 2011.* (Doctor of Philosophy), University of Technology, Sydney, Sydney.

McDonald, E. (2008). *Meaningful Arrangement: Exploring the Syntactic Description of Texts*. London: Equinox.

Rose, D. (2005). Narrative and the origins of discourse: Construing experience in stories around the world. In K. Love (Ed.), *Australian Review of Applied Linguistics Series S19, Language and Social Life: functional perspectives.* (pp. 151-173). Melbourne: University of Melbourne.

Sato (Suto), K., & Barnard, C. (2013). Nominalisation and nouniness as meaning strategies in Japanese political manifestos. In E. Thompson & W. S. Armour (Eds.), *Systemic Functional Perspectives of Japanese* (pp. 173-209). Sheffield: Equinox.

Teruya, K. (2007). *Systemic Functional Grammar of Japanese* London: Continuum.

Thomson, E. & Armour, W. S. (Eds.). (2013). *Systemic Functional Perspectives of Japanese: Descriptions and Applications*. Sheffield: Equinox.

Tsukishima, H. (1964). *Kokugogaku [Studies in the National Language]*. Tokyo: University of Tokyo Press.

Looking at genres from a phonological perspective

Lucía Inés Rivas

National University of La Pampa- Faculty of Human Sciences- Foreign Languages Department
Santa Rosa, La Pampa, Argentina
luciarivas@humanas.unlpam.edu.ar

Abstract

Discourses have been extensively described in terms of their generic configurations: stages and phases of genres have been characterized according to the functions they fulfil within the text as a whole, and the choices made in the lexico-grammar and the semantics have been explored; but little has been said about the phonological realizations of genres in oral texts. In the understanding that 'the prosodic resources of the phonological system, its intonation and rhythm, are […] central to the workings of a language […]' and that 'phonology is an essential component in the making of meaning' (Halliday & Greaves, 2008, pp. 74, 79) we set out to explore oral texts, looking for correspondences between the lexico-grammatical and semantic patterns described and their phonological realizations. Our analysis has been based mainly on the developments in SFL phonology and on Discourse Intonation Theory, and we have observed linguistic features within the systems of *Tonality*, *Tonicity* and *Tone*, and paralinguistic ones, concerning tempo, articulation, extension of segments, volume, pitch span, among others. Our auditory perceptions have been validated by means of the computer software Praat. As a result, we have found some consistent tendencies in the realizations of both textual and interpersonal meanings through particular phonological choices.

1 Background to this presentation

This presentation includes results from a research project carried out at the National University of La Pampa, Argentina, in which we have explored oral texts in English, and the importance of intonation choices in the configuration of oral genres. Observing oral texts from the genre theory point of view (Martin & Rose, 2007, 2008) allows us to consider them as semantic units in themselves, units which realize social processes with a certain communicative function. Martin and Rose (2007, 2008) describe different genres, mentioning their constitutive stages and phases with the communicative functions they fulfil. These authors also refer to the lexico-grammatical and semantic choices which characterize stages, and those which may signal a change in stage or phase. However, in this characterization little is said about the phonological choices in oral texts.

As regards intonation systems, some studies focus on the meanings projected by intonation choices in units larger than the tone unit. Brazil, Coulthard and Johns (1980), Brazil (1997), O'Grady (2010, 2013, 2014), Tench (1996, 2011), Wennerstrom (2001), Wichmann (2000), among others, refer to the textual function of intonation in segmenting texts into 'paratones' ('pitch sequence' for Brazil et al.), in a way similar to a paragraph in writing; and the role of tone in the staging of information (Halliday & Greaves, 2008, O'Grady, 2013). Besides, the interpersonal function of intonation has been explored with respect to the attitudes and the communicative functions projected by speakers within a certain context. Some work by Tench (2005) and O'Grady (2014) also relate these meanings to the constitution of texts as a whole, from a generic configuration.

An approach towards the meaning of phonological choices from a genre perspective allows for explanations grounded in a wider context, that of the whole text as a semantic unit, instead of the local meaning accounts that derive from the micro

context of each tone unit. In this understanding, we set out to explore phonological choices from a generic perspective.

1.1 Corpus and method of analysis

As a corpus for our study we collected recordings from the internet from various sources. We observed oral texts taken from different media such as the BBC, CNN, NPR, Radio Times, The Guardian, and others; we explored interviews of different kinds, stories read aloud, phone-in radio programmes, lectures and essays on various topics, among others.

Once we had listened to the whole text or programme, we carried out a macro analysis in order to find segments which were suitable for generic description. We then concentrated on those sections of the texts, transcribed them, and analysed them in terms of their generic configuration, following SFL theory (Eggins & Slade 1997; Martin & Rose, 2007, 2008).

After that, we continued with the phonological analysis to explore whether we could find correspondences between lexico-grammatical and semantic choices and phonological ones. We bases our analysis on SFL description of intonation systems (Halliday & Greaves 2008; Tench 1996, 2011), in combination with the Discourse Intonation systems (Brazil *et al.* 1980; Brazil 1997). Besides, we also observed paralinguistic features such as tempo, volume, pitch span, placing in the voice range, clarity in the articulation, voice quality, among others (Brown, 1990). We carried out a perceptive analysis and then validated our results with the software for speech analysis Praat (Boersma & Weenik 1992-2017).

Within SFL, Tench (1996, p.2) distinguishes between a linguistic and a paralinguistic dimension of intonation. The linguistic one concerns choices the speaker makes within the systems of Tonicity, choosing where to place the tonic; Tonality, the way the material is chunked into information units; and Tone, the choice of pitch movement on the tonic. The paralinguistic dimension concerns the messenger, 'the speaker's state of mind, their degree of politeness and their effort to associate or dissociate' from the listener.

Discourse Intonation (DI) systems comprise Prominence, the words the speaker chooses to highlight as a 'sense selection' from an existing paradigm; Key and Termination, which involve selections on pitch level in a three element system of high, mid and low, on the first prominent syllable in the tone unit (Key) and on the tonic syllable (Termination); and Tone, which implies a selection in pitch movement between proclaiming –the fall and the rise-fall – referring –the fall-rise or the rise – and the level tone. These systems, though not equivalent to the SFL systems, can be complementary in the analysis of texts (see Pascual et al. 2010, 2013). Prominence roughly coincides with salience, though DI emphasizes the decision on the part of the speaker to make a particular word prominent. Though pitch level is included in SFL phonology as a higher level of delicacy for each tone, in DI these systems are independent from Tone, and add a particular meaning of their own.

2 Textual meanings

In the oral realization of texts, intonation has an important role in projecting textual meanings. 'Speakers' intonation choices project an organization on their texts, which they use to guide their hearers' interpretative choices' (O'Grady 2013, p. 126). In this

way, we started our analysis of corpus samples focusing on the phonological realizations of the different stages and phases that constitute genres, and the marks that may signal a change in stage or phase.

2.1 Introductions to interviews

One of the text-types we explored was what we call 'general interest interviews', in which the host of a radio or television programme interviews an expert or authorized voice on a certain topic, relevant in the news at the time of the interview. These are extended interviews (between 10 and 30 minutes long approximately) in which interviewees are asked about their opinion on a usually controversial matter.

We noticed that the introduction to the interview, which the interviewer produces before greeting their interviewee, was prone to generic description. These are short, usually formal pieces of language, which although apparently unscripted, do not show the typical dysfluencies of spontaneous speech, and thus seem to be carefully planned beforehand. They exhibit a simple syntax, with a few clauses per sentence, and a synoptic structure which presents the main parts of the message in a clear and concise manner. We defined these texts' communicative function as 'enticements', a text with the purpose of informing the audience about the interview to come and of seducing it to stay tuned and watch or listen to it. As regards this genre's composition, we recognised three recurrent stages in this part of the interviews analysed (ten in all): Guest presentation, Link with current news, and Topic introducer; and another stage present in seven of them which we called Addressing the audience. What follows is a transcript of one of these texts (Text 1):

Text 1: BBC HARDtalk - Tracey Emin (http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=DH1F4Xrf0Uk)
Addressing the audience
Welcome to Margate, a traditional English seaside town which is home to the Turner Contemporary art gallery.
Guest presentation
My guest today is Tracey Emin, who was raised in Margate and who's become an artist of international renown
Link with current news
–she has an exhibition currently on in her old home town.
Guest presentation
Her work is always deeply personal. She's made an extraordinary journey from wild youth to pillar of the British cultural establishment.
Topic introducer
But just how blurred has the line been between her art and her life?

In our initial analysis of all the samples, we described a total of 47 of these stages, observing and describing the changes from one stage to another signalled by lexico-grammatical and semantic choices. In our phonological analysis we found a consistent tendency of speakers' selection of high Key (in DI, high pitch on the onset syllable, first prominence in the pre tonic segment) to signal these changes –Key selection is a relative value, the result of the comparison with the preceding Key choice. The high pitch choice realizes the beginning of something new, different or contrastive with what has come before. Predictably, this pattern occurred in 40 out of the 47 cases (representing an 85%). Another important prosodic feature in the transition from one stage to another is the declining of pitch towards the end of the finishing stage, frequently reaching a low value on the Termination, and the presence of pause.
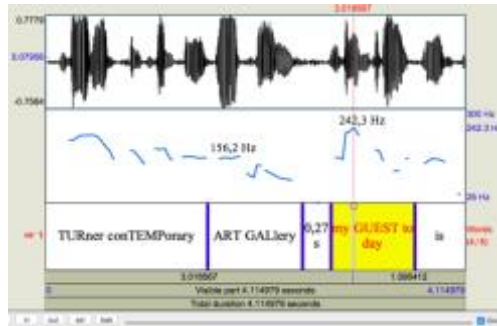
Figure 1: Praat Image showing pitch line at the beginning of 'Guest Presentation' stage.

Figure 1 above, a picture taken from Praat, shows one of those stage shifts from the sample quoted above (Text 1), the change from Addressing the audience to Guest presentation. The pitch window shows the previous declination with a preceding Key choice at 156.2 Hz on the syllable 'ART', followed by a low Termination on 'GAL', and an initial Key at 242.3 Hz on 'GUEST'. A pause of 0.27 seconds separating the stages can also be observed.

The seven occasions in which speakers chose a Key different from high at the beginning of a stage concerned mid-Key choices. This selection implies that the section adds to what has happened before in the expected way, without any contrast intended. Four of these choices start the optional stage Addressing the audience. In these cases, this initial key choice can be explained by the fact that this is the opening stage of the text, happening immediately after the programme's typical musical backdrop. The host addressing the audience is what is expected.

The three remaining cases correspond to the 'Guest presentation' stage, and represent instances in which the order of the stages and/or the lexico-grammatical structure chosen postpone the name of the guest to later in the utterance. In this way, the beginning of this stage in Text 3: "*My guest today is psychiatrist Dr Steve Peters*" is realized with mid Key on the syllable 'GUEST', to climb up to high Key on 'STEVE', in a later tone unit. In this particular case, the Guest presentation stage happens after the Link with current news and the Topic introducer, and thus the beginning of this stage is presented as expected.

The Praat image below (Figure 2), shows the pitch line with the declination on the final tone unit of Topic presentation, with a Termination on TAL on 136 Hz, low pitch for this speaker; a pause of 0.43 seconds –the pitch line in the picture showing background music – mid Key on GUEST at the beginning of Guest presentation stage and a climb up to high Key (205 Hz) in a later tone unit in which the guest's name is introduced.
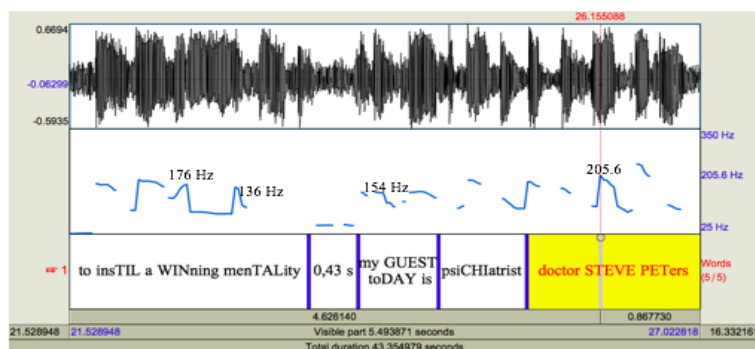
15

Figure 2: Praat image showing the beginning of the 'Guest presentation' stage in medium pitch and the jump up to signal the name of the guest, later in the stage.

2.2 Stories

In many of the samples in our corpus we have recognized segments of texts that can be described as belonging to one of the genres in the family of 'stories'. Following the same procedure described above, we have reached similar conclusions. In a series of three interviews from the BBC, we identified 'observations' produced by the interviewees. After describing the different stages and phases and carrying out the phonological analysis, we found that in 62.5% of the cases the change in stage or phase was signalled phonologically with high Key. The remaining 37.5% showed mid Key, and these cases usually corresponded to stages or phases which were very short. (Rivas & Germani, 2016).

In the case of a story read aloud from the Storynory web site, we found that 10 out of 12 stages started with high Key, and in the case of these stories the stages were also separated by long pauses (3.5'' average).

Within radio interactions in two phone-in programmes from Radio 4, we described 'recounts' and one 'narrative'. These stories are different from the others previously described, because they tend to be co-constructed between the caller to the programme and the host herself. It was interesting to see that when the host interrupted the caller because she wanted to advance the recount or narrative, her interruption caused certain disruption, as it usually started with a pitch higher than the one being used by the caller, louder volume and faster tempo, to indicate a change in stage. But when the host's intention was that the caller expanded on what s/he was saying without changing stages in the generic contribution, these interruptions were done in medium pitch, and volume and tempo similar to the caller's speech.

3 Interpersonal meanings

Intonation realizes interpersonal meanings. The analysis of these meanings depends very much on the particular genre and the contextual features in each case, but there are some regularities that can be mentioned.

3.1 Introduction to interviews

In these short texts, the interpersonal function comes at the forefront in the stage 'Guest presentation', as the host introduces their guest in a way that seduces their audiences to stay tuned. Given this function, most of the appraisal choices speakers make are related to judgement and engagement, and they show positive values, aimed at generating alignment of views in the audience. Phonologically, most of these short

16

utterances are given falling intonation, a 'telling' tone which suggests the speaker is presenting a piece of news, information meant to enlarge the area of common ground shared with the audience. The choices in Tonality segment texts into very short units, emphasizing the information presented. Besides, particular phonological choices are used on the realization of appraising words, which are focused on by means of jumps up in pitch, which result in high Key choices in the interior of stages and phases. This 'interpersonal' use of Key suggests a particular unexpected sense selection within an existing paradigm of options, and highlights the word's semantic load. The transcript below shows the choices mentioned above.

Text 2: BBC HARDtalk - Steven Berkoff (http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=wx2rbtzuSZY)
— **Addressing the audience**
‖ HWELcome to `HARDtalk ‖ I'm Alan L`LITtle ‖
— **Guest presentation**
‖ my HGUEST toDAY ‖ is the acCLAIMED ˌWRITer ‖ ACtor and di`RECtor ‖ STEVen `BERKoff ‖ he spent more than HFIFty `YEARS ‖ in THEAtre and `FILM ‖ HROCKing the eˇSTABlishment ‖ with his outSPOKen and often `ANGry ‖ `VIEWS ‖ his WORK >RANges from ‖ apPEARances in a CLOCKwork `ORange ‖ and the GIRL with the DRAgon tat`TOO ‖ to ADapTAtions of FRANZ `KAFka's ‖ meta L`MORphosis ‖
— **Link with current news**
he's H`ALso written ‖ many of his `OWN plays ‖ ONE of which has been ap`PEARing in ‖ HERE at the EDinburgh FEStival `FRINGE ‖
— **Topic introducer**
‖ HHE be H`LIEVES ‖ the ART world is LETting us all `DOWN ‖ by aBANdoning SERious quality ˇDRAMa ‖ to purSUE MASS L`AUDiences ‖ so HWHAT is `THEAtre ‖ ˌART ‖ or ENter L`TAINment? ‖

Figure 3. Transcript of one 'introduction to interview' with intonation marks.

In the transcript above, tone units are separated with double bars (‖). Prominent syllables are transcribed in block capitals, tonic syllables underlined; high and low pitch choices are signalled with small capitals H and L respectively before the salient syllable, mid pitch remains unmarked. Tone is shown before the tonic syllable with a tonetic mark: ` for fall, ˏ for rise, ˇ for fall-rise, ^ for rise fall and > for the mid-level. As can be observed, high pitch highlights the interpersonal semantic load in the words "fifty", "rocking", "also" and the agent and process in the projecting clause "he believes".

4 Conclusions

This presentation shows just a sample of the work done as regards the phonological realization of different genres. The limitation of space does not allow for a more exhaustive presentation.

These explorations have had the shape of 'case-studies', given the limited number of texts collected and analysed for each type, under our working conditions and resources. Nevertheless, we have reached preliminary conclusions in the form of tendencies which need to be further tested with more research to come. Our results, though limited with respect to their representativeness, do show consistent tendencies in the role phonology plays in both signalling and realizing textual and interpersonal meanings. More work is necessary to confirm our findings.

A genre approach to the meanings projected by the phonology allows us to demonstrate what Halliday and Greaves (2008) claim, that 'the prosodic resources of the phonological system, its intonation and rhythm, are […] central to the workings of

a language […]' and that 'phonology is an essential component in the making of meaning' (2008, pp. 74, 79).

References

Boersma, P. & Weenink, D. (1992-2014): Praat. Doing phonetics by computer (Version 5.4.02) [Software]. Disponible en http://www.praat.org

Brazil, D., Coulthard, M. and Johns, C. (1980). *Discourse intonation and language teaching.* London: Longman, 1980.

Brazil, D. (1997). *The communicative value of intonation in English*. Cambridge: C.U.P.

Brown, G. (1990). *Listening to spoken English.* (2nd ed.) London: Pearson Education.

Halliday, M. & Greaves, W. (2008). *Intonation in the grammar of English*. London: Equinox.

Martin, J.R. & White, Peter R. (2005): *The language of evaluation. Appraisal in English.* Hampshire, Palgrave Macmillan.

Martin, J. & Rose, D. (2008). *Genre relations. Mapping culture.* London: Equinox.

Pascual, G., Germani, M. & Rivas, L. (2010). La unidad tonal. Una mirada comparativa de la entonación en la conversación en inglés. In Castel, V. & Cubo de Severino, L. *La renovación de la palabra en el bicentenario de la Argentina. Los colores de la mirada lingüística* (pp. 987-993). Mendoza: Editorial FFyL, UNCuyo.

Pascual, G., Rivas, L. & Germani, M. (2013). El movimiento tonal: una mirada teórica comparativa de la relación entre entonación y significado en interacciones en inglés. In Labastía, L. *Cuestiones de Fonética, Fonología y Oralidad* (pp. 33-48). Mendoza: Editorial FFyL, UNCuyo.

O'Grady, G. (2010). *A grammar of spoken discourse. The intonation of increments.* London: Continuum.

O'Grady, G. (2013). Choices in Tony's talk: Phonological paragraphing, information unit nexuses and the presentation of tone units. In O'Grady, G., Barlett, T. & Fontaine, L. (eds). *Choice in language. Applications in text analysis* (pp. 125-157). London: Equinox.

O'Grady, G. (2014). The use of Key in projecting face-threatening acts in televised political debate. *Text and Talk, 34* (6). (pp. 685-711).

Rivas, L. & Germani, M. (2016). Analysing correlations between generic patterns and prosodic realizations in interviews in English. *International Journal of Language Studies, 10* (2). (pp. 103-126).

Tench, P. (1990). *The roles of intonation in English discourse.* Frankfurt am Main: Peter Lang.

Tench, P. (1996). *The intonation systems of English.* London: Casell.

Tench, P. (2005). Intonation and categories of meaning. Cardiff University, Wales, UK. Available at http://www.paultenchdocs.co.uk/?p=36.

Tench, P. (2011). *Transcribing the sound of English.* Cambridge: CUP.

Wennerstrom, A. (2001). *The music of everyday speech. Prosody and discourse intonation.* Oxford: OUP.

Wichmann, A. (2000). *Intonation in text and discourse. Beginnings, middles and ends.* London: Longman.

Introducing a new topology for (multimodal) discourse analysis

Monika Bednarek[a] & Helen Caple[b]

The University of Sydney[a], UNSW Sydney[b]
Dept. of Linguistics, John Woolley Building, The University of Sydney, Sydney NSW, 2006, Australia
School of the Arts and Media, UNSW, Kensington NSW, 2052, Australia
monika.bednarek@sydney.edu.au, helen.caple@unsw.edu.au

Abstract

The analysis of contemporary discourse in its multimodal richness is a very complex undertaking. In this paper, we explore ways of systematically approaching the analysis of multimodal textual data. We introduce a new topology for situating discourse analytical research, and briefly discuss two example studies to illustrate this topology in relation to corpus linguistics and (multimodal) discourse analysis. We end by describing Kaleidographic, a dynamic and interactive visualization tool for displaying the results of such complex analyses. Both the topology and Kaleidographic can also be used in monomodal discourse analytical projects.

1   Introduction

With the increasing multimodal complexity of contemporary communication, the task of the linguist/semiotician to unpack meaning-making is becoming commensurably difficult. It is a task that increasingly involves multiple methods, e.g. corpus linguistics plus (multimodal) discourse analysis, collaboration between researchers with specialist expertise, and the use of software that is able to aid the researcher in first analysing the data synchronously, and then presenting the findings in a manner that is meaningful.

In taking on the linguistic analysis of such complex communication, the researcher must ask a range of questions: what is the unit of analysis? Does she separate out the different semiotic modes involved in the text and examine each in turn, or view the text as a multimodal communicative act (van Leeuwen 2005: 120) and examine the combination of semiotic modes from the outset? At the same time, the analyst needs to consider whether to focus on patterns *across* texts (a 'text-as-corpus' perspective), or to focus on patterns *within* texts (a 'text-as-text' perspective).

In this paper, we present a new way of reflecting upon and positioning one's research explicitly in these terms. We look first at what it means to consider 'text-as-text' versus 'text-as-corpus', and then introduce a topology for situating research that allows the researcher to position the various aspects of the analysis in relation to the object and focus of study. We briefly discuss two studies using this topology and introduce a new tool for visualizing the results of such complex analyses.

2   Text-as-text versus text-as-corpus

Tognini-Bonelli (2010: 19) proposes that the difference between approaching a text and approaching a corpus is that a text is typically read whole, read horizontally, read for content, read as a unique event, read as an individual act of will and as a coherent communicative event. In contrast, a corpus is read fragmented, read vertically, read

for formal patterning, read for repeated events, read as a sample of social practice and not read as a coherent communicative event. For instance, Figure 1 and Figure 2 both concern the same type of text – the blurb that is on the back of DVD box sets advertising a TV series. Figure 1, from a corpus linguistic study that examines such blurbs (Bednarek 2014), shows repeated patterning of one of the most frequent lexical words in the corpus (*season*). Such a study aims to uncover insights into this kind of advertising as a social practice. Concordances, one of the key techniques in corpus approaches, allow the analyst to read vertically, as seen in Figure 1.

```
1    (can it master the renegade software called Turk?) – Season 2's 6-disc action arsenal is locked, loaded, ready
2         of his - perhaps the world's - destiny. "We call this season SUPERMAN in Training," series co-creator Alfred
3                                  The 4400: The Third Season continues the breathtaking and mindboggling
4    DVD with all 12 thrilling episodes in DEXTER: The Third Season. Having faced his darkest demons and eluding the
5       reach unimaginable heights in ALIAS' spectacular third season. Special Agent Sydney Bristow awakens to an
6   the answers you've been looking for in the explosive third season of the show USA Today calls "the most gorgeous,
7           upside down as the action accelerates through the season's final frame.
8      stories that never aired and an alternate ending to the season finale, where the fate of humanity takes an
9   high-definition technology make this a truly spectacular season of a one-of-a-kind show.
```

Figure 1 Selected instances of the lemma *season* in DVD blurbs

In contrast, one can also analyse the text as a coherent communicative event, looking at its content and structure; for example, one could closely examine one particular DVD blurb such as that for the American television series *The Wire*. Figure 2 shows how this blurb starts by appraising and introducing the series in relation to its audience before it goes on to describing the storylines. However, based on the analysis of this unique text it is impossible to make the claim that this is what happens in *all* DVD blurbs.

```
The Wire Season 5 DVD blurb

One of television's most critically acclaimed programs, the Peabody Award-winning drama series
"The wire" continues to challenge viewers with a "cop show" unlike anything on air. The fifth and
final season of "The wire" centers on the media's role in addressing—or failing to address—the
fundamental political, economic and social realities depicted over the course of the series,
while also resolving storylines of the numerous characters woven throughout the narrative arm of
the show
```

Figure 2 DVD blurb for *The Wire* (season 5)

Yet, rather than seeing these two examples as the difference between approaching a text and approaching a corpus Bednarek (2013) has argued that these differences are better seen as ways of 'reading' or 'analysing' text in general, whether or not individual texts, or corpora are concerned. For example, one can actually treat one individual text as corpus, i.e. analyse it vertically and for textual patterning rather than analysing it horizontally and for coherence. This can be a highly useful exercise, as the following brief example will show.

Figure 3 comes from Bednarek and Caple's (2012) analysis of one news story from *The Wall Street Journal* about the election of Barack Obama as US president in 2008. Corpus software was applied to this one story to find recurrent patterns, in essence treating one text as if it was a corpus. Figure 3 shows concordances for all instances of *first* in this one story, clearly demonstrating how the comparison functions to foreground the many different ways in which this event was historically a 'first', i.e. appraises it as novel and unusual.

Such patterns may easily be missed through manual analysis but become apparent at a glance when using concordancing. Other researchers have undertaken similar corpus linguistic analyses of individual texts. For example, Stubbs (1996) notes that '[i]n the analysis of two short texts, computer-assisted methods are not necessary. However, […] even here, concordances can be useful in order to display conveniently and clearly the repeated patterns' (Stubbs 1996: 82). Such an approach can therefore be useful even when individual texts are concerned; however, it is wise to combine this 'text as corpus' perspective with a 'text as text' perspective (for example, analysis of discourse semantics or genre structure).

1	dominates voters' concerns Sen. Barack Obama was elected the nation's first African-American president, defeating Sen. John McCain decisively
2	Obama sweeps to historic victory - nation elects its first African-American president amid record turnout; turmoil in economy
3	appear on the Republican ticket. And Sen. Obama broke ground as the first black party nominee for president. "Obama is documentation of
4	million, a sum made possible when he opted to forgo public financing, the first candidate to do so since the system was implemented in the wake of
5	less than four years of national political experience. Sen. Obama is the first northern Democrat elected president since John F. Kennedy in 1960.
6	fiercely in areas of traditional Republican strength. He won Virginia, the first time a Democratic candidate has taken the state since Lyndon
7	Although a preliminary figure, his 51% of the popular vote marks the first time since Mr. Johnson that a Democrat had clearly won more than
8	ushers in a period of dominance for Democrats in Washington for the first time since the early years of President Bill Clinton's first term. With T
9	contend for a party nomination. Gov. Sarah Palin of Alaska became the first woman to appear on the Republican ticket. And Sen. Obama broke
10	campaign in U.S. history, was a watershed in many ways. It featured the first woman - New York Sen. Hillary Clinton - to seriously contend for a

Figure 3 Instances of *first* in one news story

The other important point with respect to these two approaches concerns the fact that reading vertically, for formal patterns and for repeated events is a perspective that is not just associated with automatic computerised corpus analysis. For instance, Bednarek (2006) reports on the discourse analysis of 100 British news texts. Despite the discourse analytical orientation of this project, the 100 texts were mainly treated as a corpus. That is, the focus was on the analysis of recurrent meanings made *across* the 100 texts rather than the development of meanings *within* texts, even though those texts were mainly analysed manually. This study is mentioned here to illustrate that a perspective of 'texts-as-corpus' can actually be a manual analysis, where the researcher may count instances of a particular linguistic feature across texts, for example using a Word document or Excel spreadsheet. Thus, a 'text-as-corpus' perspective can proceed via manual analysis, via computer-assisted manual annotation or via fully-automated computerised analysis (Bednarek 2013). The point is the perspective that is adopted rather than *how* this is undertaken. Adding in consideration of the multimodal dimensions of the text brings further complexity to the task, and is a point we take up below. Triangulation – combining different perspectives and techniques – is the best option where possible, and in order to clarify which perspective is being considered at a particular stage in the analysis, we propose a new topology for situating research.

3   A new topology for inter- and intra-textual (multimodal) discourse analysis

In taking on the analysis of contemporary communication, researchers need to both choose the texts for analysis, and think about whether they use a 'text-as-corpus' or 'text-as-text' perspective. If the data is multimodal, they also need to consider if they focus on one mode (e.g. language) or several (e.g. language and image). A *topology* (Martin & Matthiessen 1991) is useful here, allowing the researcher both to reflect upon her approach and to explicitly position her study in these respects. Figure 4

shows the new topology proposed in Bednarek and Caple (2017), which can be used by any discourse analyst to clearly position their research.

We distinguish between four zones of analysis, depending on whether the research focuses on one semiotic mode (intrasemiotic) or more than one (intersemiotic), and whether it focuses on patterns *across* texts (intertextual) or *within* texts (intratextual). Thus, Figure 4 shows that researchers can situate their study as being intrasemiotic or intersemiotic (horizontal axis in Figure 4), and intratextual or intertextual (vertical axis in Figure 4). These zones are considered to be clines or regions, rather than strict separate categories. That is, the term *topology* is used in analogy to Martin and Matthiessen (1991) to refer to scalar rather than categorical distinctions which are typically represented in taxonomies. This makes it possible to talk about approaches that are *mainly* intrasemiotic or *more* intertextual than intratextual.
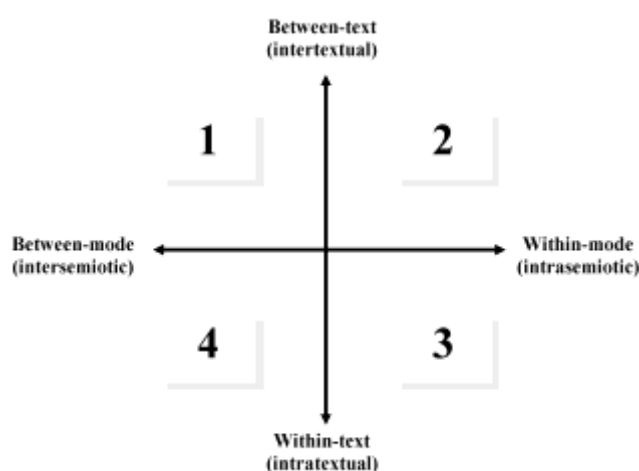
Figure 4 A new topology for situating research

In our own research, we have used this topology in studies that combine corpus linguistic analysis with qualitative multimodal discourse analysis – an approach that we have called *corpus-assisted multimodal discourse analysis*, or CAMDA (Bednarek & Caple 2014, 2017; Bednarek 2015).

The first study (Bednarek & Caple 2017) examined 99 online news items constituting 'most shared news' on the social media platform Facebook, investigating the construction of news values across words and images. We started with separate corpus linguistic and visual analyses, that is, we examined language and images separately from each other. Each of these analyses were situated in Zone 2 of the topology in Figure 4 – they examined patterns across the 99 news items, but focused on one semiotic mode respectively. These analyses showed that the establishment of news values conforms to the strengths of each mode. We then switched the perspective to Zone 1 of the topology (investigating intersemiotic patterns across the 99 texts), which revealed that the construction of news values *accumulates* across semiotic modes. This suggests that both semiotic modes are important, since they each construe different, complementary aspects of an event as newsworthy.

Investigating a much larger corpus, a new study by Caple (in progress) considers the ways in which the words and images used in more than 6000 Instagram posts co-construct (dis)affiliation with the different political parties that contested the 2016

Australian federal election.[5] Corpus linguistic analysis of the verbal component of these posts shows that Instagrammers (people posting words and images to Instagram) are well-versed in the use of hashtags both to signal the topic of their posts and to reference the target of their appraisal, and are not afraid to voice their opinions on the performance of political parties and to affiliate with some parties (Labor and the Greens) and not with others (overwhelmingly distancing themselves from the Liberal/National Coalition). This strand of the analysis focuses on one mode (language), examining patterns across all 6000 posts and is hence situated in Zone 2 of the topology in Figure 4.

In order to investigate the multimodal aspects of these texts, the results from this corpus linguistic analysis were used to downsample to a more manageable data set of 982 posts for closer multimodal analysis (comparing posts mentioning the Greens and the Liberal Party). Comparing affiliation in visual *and* verbal text in this smaller data set showed that Instagrammers are more likely to show their feelings for a party visually than verbally with 15% of posts relating to the Greens expressing affiliation only in the image. By shifting the perspective to Zone 1 of the topology and mapping the two sets of analyses onto each other, additional meanings made at the intersection of words and images can be revealed. Briefly here, among Instagrammers showing their affiliation with the Greens, the image, either solely or in combination with the hashtag or the caption (39%), is far more likely to show affiliation with the Greens than the verbal text is by itself (23%). At the same time, Greens supporters used these same posts to express their disaffiliation with the Liberal Party through images, captions and hashtags.

In sum, the two studies showed that a topology can be highly useful in explicitly distinguishing different strands of analysis in discourse analytical projects that bring together multiple approaches. However, displaying the results of such complex analyses in a way that is meaningful and revealing of both patterns across modes and within texts, as well as patterns across texts is very difficult to achieve. To this end, we have created a visualisation tool that is capable of visualising such patterns. This visualisation tool is called *Kaleidographic* (Caple & Bednarek 2017) and is briefly introduced in the next section.

4   Visualising inter- and intra-textual patterns: Introducing Kaleidographic

Kaleidographic is a visualization tool that is capable of demonstrating relations between multiple variables. It is both dynamic and interactive. Both of the studies mentioned above present their results using Kaleidographic, and Figure 5 shows a still shot of the Kaleidographic View of News Values (Bednarek & Caple 2017), which can be viewed in its dynamic and interactive form at www.newsvaluesanalysis.com/kaleidographic/.

---

[5] Instagram is an image-centric social media platform, launched in October 2010. By December 2016, it had amassed more than 600 million subscribers (Instagram 2016).
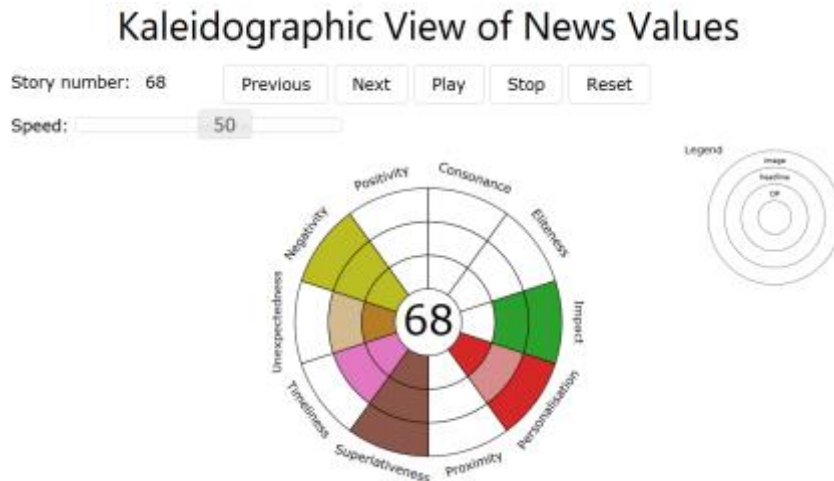
Figure 5 Kaleidographic View of News Values

Each layer in the visualization in Figure 5 shows (when coloured in) the construction of news values in different parts of a news story (image, headline and opening paragraph), i.e. between modes and different textual elements. As Kaleidographic 'plays' one can see patterns in each text of the analysed corpus, hence allowing one to explore relations across texts. The number of segments and layers can be increased or decreased to suit the data that the user wants to compare. As the tool is activated and segments 'light up', patterns are revealed between variables that would be difficult to perceive in static or linear diagrams. Adjusting the speed of the sequence gives a more holistic view of the data, while slowing down the sequence or manually moving through the sequence enables the user to spend more time with individual data points and to explore the combinations of meanings being displayed at any one time. Alternatively, one can choose to focus on one or two segments or layers of analysis at a time (blocking out all other segments/layers) and explore how specific data points interact with each other. We invite readers to play with Kaleidographic in its interactive form online.[6]

Arguably, this visualization tool is useful for (multimodal) discourse analysis, but it can also be adapted for use with other types of data (for example, exploring survey answers). We are therefore currently working on making the tool freely available to researchers.

5 Conclusion

It has long been acknowledged that communication is multimodal and to focus only on the analysis of verbal elements of a multimodal communicative act risks missing much of the meaning potential of a text. It is also important to consider both intratextual and intertextual patterns in multimodal (and monomodal) data. But in the attempt to bring different approaches together, matters quickly become complex. This paper has presented a way into the analysis of texts that unpacks some of this complexity and has offered a range of approaches that researchers can explore in analysing how contemporary communication works. Our new topology aims to increase both researcher reflexivity and transparency (through explicit positioning), in

---

[6] The Kaleidographic of the expression of affiliation with Australian political parties during the 2016 federal election through the social media platform Instagram can be viewed at www.helencaple.com/kaleidographic/

both monomodal and multimodal discourse analysis, while Kaleidographic helps to present findings in a meaningful way.

References

Bednarek, M. (2006). *Evaluation in Media Discourse*. London/New York: Continuum.

Bednarek, M. (2013). Principles for applying Appraisal theory. Plenary presented at *Appraisal Symposium 2013*, University of New South Wales, Sydney, 20-21 February 2013.

Bednarek, M. (2014). 'An astonishing season of destiny!' Evaluation in blurbs used for advertising TV series. In G. Thompson & L. Alba-Juez (Eds.), *Evaluation in Context* (pp. 197-220). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Bednarek, M. & Caple, H. (2012). *News Discourse*. London/New York: Bloomsbury.

Bednarek M. & Caple, H. (2014). Why do news values matter? Towards a new methodological framework for analyzing news discourse in Critical Discourse Analysis and beyond. *Discourse & Society* 25(2): 135-158.

Bednarek, M. & Caple, H. (2017). *The Discourse of News Values: How News Organisations Create Newsworthiness*. New York/Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Caple, H. (in progress). Analysing the multimodal text. In C. Taylor & A. Marchi (Eds.), *Corpus Approaches to Discourse: A Critical Review*. London: Routledge.

Caple H. & Bednarek, M. (2017). Kaleidographic [Computer Software]. Created by AntLab Solutions (Laurence Anthony), Tokyo, Japan. http://www.newsvaluesanalysis.com/kaleidographic/

Instagram (2016). 600 million and counting. *Press News*, 21 Dec 2016, available at: https://instagram-press.com/2016/12/21/600-million-and-counting/ accessed 17 Feb 2017.

Martin, J. R. & Matthiessen, C. M. I. M. (1991). Systemic typology and topology. In F. Christie (Ed.). *Literacy in Social Processes* (pp. 345–383). Darwin: Centre for Studies in Language in Education, NT University.

Stubbs, M. (1996). *Text and Corpus Analysis*. Oxford: Blackwell.

Tognini-Bonelli, E. (2010). Theoretical overview of the evolution of corpus linguistics. In. A. O'Keeffe & M. McCarthy (Eds.), *The Routledge Handbook of Corpus Linguistics* (pp. 14-27). London/New York: Routledge.

van Leeuwen, T. J. (2005). *Introducing Social Semiotics*. London/New York: Routledge.

Teddy Bear, Teddy Bear:
Modal Hybridity and the Co-constructed Blog

Rachael Adlington

University of New England
Armidale NSW 2351
radlingt@une.edu.au

Abstract

This paper explores the ways in which written language in blogs adopts the affordances of speech, as encountered in a study of blogs authored by primary school-aged children. The affordances of different modes of representation are bound to the materiality of each mode such that, for example, speech and writing are materially different, resulting in different affordances. However, writing in an online space, such as a blog, is materially different to writing on paper, and understanding language as a modally-dependent meaning making resource becomes problematic.

I explicate the role of NEGOTIATION of the blog, *Baseball Kid*, to establish the speech-like moves apparent between post author and readers as commenters. Then, I share the dynamic APPRAISAL analysis of one post, *Teddy Bear*, to illustrate the distinctive techno-semiotic nature of genre instantiated in blogs. Here, a recount is construed as a written text in the post, but co-constructed through the dialogic interactions of the blog author and his reader-commenters. Finally, I propose the notion of 'modal hybridity' to account for the impact of commenting on the roles played by language in blogs.

1   Introduction and context

Blogs invite '… new techno-social practices' (Gillen & Merchant, 2013) including co-authorship between blog author and reader. Within these practices, the blog's technological features, such as commenting and tagging, challenge the role of written language and while alphabetic text still dominates, it is given less space in preference to images (Domingo, Jewitt & Kress, 2015). The potentials and limitations of a mode of representation are bound to the materiality of that mode, such that writing and speech are materially different forms of language, with different affordances (Kress, 2005). However, in an interactive online space, such as a blog, written language adopts decidedly 'speech-like' characteristics as blog authors and *reader-commenters* engage in dialogue to co-construct instances of genre, as this paper will explicate.

The socio-semiotic perspective on interpersonal meanings is that all utterances, be they written or oral, construe stance. All verbal communication is dialogic, and to speak or write is always in anticipation of '… the responses of actual, potential or imagined readers/listeners' (Martin & White, 2005, p. 92). Blog authors make linguistic choices[7] to position themselves in relation to what has gone before, and also position readers as responders. In this, blogs are no different to other written texts. However, blog readers might respond to posts with comments, contributing novel content as co-authors.

This paper explores the deployment of interpersonal resources by blog authors and readers, and the impact of co-contributions on the construal of genre. The blog, *Baseball Kid*, is analysed with respect to the systemic functional linguistic systems of

---

[7] Blog authors also include other semiotic resources in the posts that form part of the dialogue with readers. However, the focus of this paper is the deployment of linguistic resources in co-authorship.

MOOD and NEGOTIATION (normally associated with speech (Martin & Rose, 2007) but used here to illuminate 'dialogue' between interactants), and APPRAISAL, as well as the register variable of tenor. I conclude by proposing the notion of 'modal hybridity' to account for the written and speech-like generic instantiation in blogs, afforded by commenting.

The blog analysed here is part of a larger study of 48 blogs authored by 5- to 8-year-old children in out-of-school settings. *Baseball Kid* was selected for closer analysis owing to its unique display of blog co-construction. Analysis of MOOD and NEGOTIATION was based on descriptions provided by Eggins (2004) and Halliday (2004). Dynamic APPRAISAL analysis (Macken-Horarik, 2003) captured the prosody of evaluative language in a single post, *Teddy Bear*, and its comments. Analytical tools were modified to account for the asynchronous and non-linear relationship between posts and comments (see Adlington, 2016).

2   Co-constructed blogs: *Baseball Kid*

Baseball Kid contains 8 posts, most of which are school genre recounts. All posts attract comments, and in total, 17 individuals add 42 comments consisting of 303 ranking clauses. Reader-commenters are adults (n=12) and children (n=5), and almost all are the author's family members. The blogging context in terms of tenor is one of unequal power or status. E.J., the author is a child, novice blogger and novice user of written language. In contrast, adult reader-commenters are expert users of both written language and blogs. By virtue of age, more equal power relations exist between E.J. and child reader-commenters.

2.1   MOOD and NEGOTIATION in *Baseball Kid*

Both E.J. and his reader-commenters occasionally use **interrogatives** (4% of clauses). One function of interrogatives is to realise the interactions between people that are fundamentally a 'turn-taking activity' (Eggins & Slade, 1997, p. 25). It is predictable, then, to see interrogatives in the blog because E.J. and his reader-commenters take turns in interacting; E.J. posts and readers respond. The grammatical resource of **imperative** also realises interactions between people, so, again, it is not surprising to see imperatives (4% of clauses) in E.J.'s blog. However, imperatives are typically associated with exchanges of goods and services, so it is perhaps unusual to see imperatives in an online space.

The vast majority (86%) of the clauses in the posts of *Baseball Kid* are **declaratives**, which are congruently associated with giving information. This is unsurprising, given that declaratives dominate written texts, especially '… where feedback between writer and reader is not possible' (Eggins, 2004, p. 332). However, declarative dominance construes a distant relationship between author and reader (Eggins, 2004), and the giving of *so much* information by E.J. is at odds with the interactive context in which E.J.'s posts are situated, and where it would be reasonable to predict a much higher level of, say, interrogatives. The apparent incompatibility of declaratives with interaction is a conundrum, but I suggest that the high level of declaratives highlights grammatical tension in the blog as both written text and interactive space.

Analysis of MOOD did not give the explanatory power needed to understand the kinds of interactions occurring across the blog, how these realise the tenor relations between the author and the readership, or how meanings are co-construed. Further

analysis of the blog as an interactive, co-constructive space was undertaken using the tools of NEGOTIATION.

E.J. **demands information** using the congruent form of interrogatives, which sometimes elicit responses, for example:

> **E.J.** *Can you hit like that?*
>
> **Loni-Loo** *you know ej i once was a baseball player, but not as good as you are*

Demanding information signals the blog's interactivity and encourages comments. Indeed, while the capacity for response to questions in written texts is minimal and question use is largely rhetorical (Eggins, 2004), it is possible and *desirable* for readers to respond to questions posed in blogs in a similar fashion to those posed in spoken conversation.

Demanding goods and services from readers is an uncommon linguistic strategy used by E.J.. Infrequency is predictable, as while E.J. is in a relatively high position of power as the blog author, he is at the same time in a relatively low position of power as a child when compared with his mostly-adult responders. Indeed, when E.J. uses an imperative to demand comments from his readers, he 'softens' it with the next clause (in **bold**) by stating his fondness for comments (and those who comment):

> **E.J.** *Don't forget to put a comment please.* ***I like getting comments from you***

The congruent grammatical realisation of an offer is a modulated interrogative (Eggins, 2004), none of which are seen in E.J.'s blog. However, E.J.'s readers infer an offer (in **bold**), made in concert with the surrounding text:

> **E.J.** *Don't forget to put a comment please. I like getting comments from you.*
>
> ***I like reading your blogs too.....especially making comments.***

Here, the third move is interpreted as an offer of reciprocity; in other words, 'I will comment on your blog, if you comment on mine'. Certainly, two readers understand E.J.'s move as an offer, and respond with statements indicating acceptance (in **bold**):

> **Marla** ***Send me your email address so I can add you to Emma's blog list*** *- she'd love to hear your comments.*
>
> **Johnnie** ***Hope to hear from you*** *just in case this is my blog gymnasticskid.blogspot.com.*

The offer, combined with adjacent interactive moves, serves to establish the tenor relationship between E.J. and his readers as collaborative co-authors, despite the otherwise unequal power relation between the interlocutors in terms of age and experience in blogging and writing.

In total, 86% of the clauses in E.J.'s blog are statements through which E.J. **gives information** to his readers. As a written text, the blog is typical in this regard, as discussed above. By contrast, and in keeping with the blog's speech-like dialogic nature, it is to the statements of E.J.'s posts that the majority of comments respond, for example:

> **E.J.** *He has put out 150 big fires and 500 little fires.*
>
> **Lynell** *He sure has put out a lot of fires.*

Significantly, approximately half of the statements in E.J.'s blog attract almost two-thirds of comment clauses, but the reason for this high level of interaction around the seemingly *un*-interactive provision of information is so far hidden. The reasons as

to why some initiating types garner more responses perhaps lie in the consideration of what is at stake in terms of power and solidarity between the author and the readership should reader-commenters respond (or otherwise). In other words, what *else* is going on in the statements (and other initiating moves) of this blog in terms of the construal of power and solidarity, and what is the impact of this on the text as an instance of genre? To explicate, the role of the evaluative resources of APPRAISAL in fostering co-authorship between E.J. and his family members is explored in the next section.

2.2 Evaluative resources in *Teddy Bear*

APPRAISAL analysis of *Teddy Bear* revealed how the co-authors work together to achieve the generic purpose of the text (to 'tell what happened' as a recount). It also showed how two other social goals, and driving forces, are obtained in this instance:

- The blog author evaluates himself through positive selections of JUDGEMENT, and positions his readers to affirm this stance.

- All co-authors deploy evaluative resources to bond and strengthen family ties with each other at a distance.

2.2.1 Phase 1: setting (Orientation stage of recount)

The Orientation stage of a factual recount sets the context and provides background information for the ensuing telling of events (Humphrey et al., 2012), and the setting phase of *Teddy Bear* realises this purpose. The author deploys repeated punctuation to intensify the message, emphasising the significance of events and capturing the attention of the readers:

> **E.J.** *I was in a play!!!*

2.2.2 Phase 2: event 1 – audition (Record stage of recount)

The author makes considerable use of ENGAGEMENT resources in this phase, contrasting the author's negative ATTITUDE (fear and disinclination) about auditioning, with positive (tenacity), as well as a smaller part with the author's bigger one:

> **E.J**. *It was **scary** (Aff: imp –) but (Con: dis: count) **I did it** (Jud: ten +).*
>
> *I **didn't want to** (Aff: inc –) do **the bigger part** (App: val +)*
> *but (Con: dis: count) **my mom made me** (Jud: ten +).*
>
> *I tried for the grey fox*
> *but (Con: dis: count) I got **a bigger part** (App: val +) which was the bear.*

Countering is used to disclaim one evaluation and replace it with another, thus Contracting the dialogic space for disagreement (Martin & White, 2005), and E.J. uses countering to establish himself as tenacious. One reader-commenter adds to this phase, expressing satisfaction with E.J's actions and reinforcing notions of tenacity:

> **Grammy** *We are so **glad** (Aff: sat +) that you went ahead and did the Bear part.*
> *… it really **feels good** (Aff: sat +) when we **do something that is hard for us** (Jud: ten +).*

The comment is geared towards achieving the 'family bonding' social goal and is supportive of E.J. in overcoming his insecurities. At the same time, the comment contributes towards achieving the goal of co-constructing E.J.'s self-portrayal as a

capable child, by reinforcing the value of tenacity in E.J. (who 'did the Bear part' despite his disinclination) and in general.

2.2.3 Phase 3: event 2 – practice (Record)

The post author shifts his negative AFFECTIVE stance to a positive one, and establishes himself as a capable child, complementing notions of tenacity:

> **E.J.**   *At practice I did **good** (Jud: cap +) and I **liked** (Aff: hap +) it.*

2.2.4 Phase 4: event 3 – performance (Record)

The fourth phase maintains the ATTITUDINAL stance of phase 3. In addition, the post author Contracts the dialogic space for alternatives:

> **E.J.**   *Everyone said (Con: pro: end) I did a **good** (Jud: cap +) job. ...*
> *They [Grammy and Grampy] (Con: pro: end) **liked** (Aff: sat +) it a lot.*

Each responding comment aligns with the evaluative position of the author, as well as each other, seen in the harmony of ATTITUDE (Jud: cap +). In addition, GRADUATION is achieved using adverbials ('such' and 'so'), graded core words ('great') and repetition of punctuation, strengthens the evaluative stance of commenters. Further intensification occurs across the post and comments clauses through the repetition of evaluative lexemes ('good', 'job'):

> **Grammy**   *You did <u>such</u> (For: int) a **good** (Jud: cap +) job.*

> **Erin**   *I know (Exp: ent) you did a **<u>great</u>** (Jud: cap +; For: int) job!*

> **Loni-Loo**   *i bet (Exp: ent) you did <u>sooooo!!!!!!</u> (For: int) **good** (Jud: cap +)*

I suggest the comments align with both the post and each other so strongly not only because the space is Contracted, but also because familial solidarity is put at risk by not conforming to the evaluative 'line'. Further, the temporal sequence of comments is such that the first commenter (Grammy) has a large amount of evaluative sway, as both eyewitness and family matriarch. Grammy's affirmation and upscaling of E.J.'s evaluation is a powerful stance to counter, and further strengthened as subsequent commenters fall into line. In other words, reader-commenters align positions to maintain solidarity with the post author, as much as they do so to maintain solidarity with each other. This results in the strong construal of E.J. as a capable child in both post and comments.

Commenters who did not see E.J.'s performance also achieve familial bonding, this time through the alignment of ATTITUDE (Aff: inc +):

> **Erin**   *I **wish** (Aff: inc +) I could have seen you in your play!*

> **Loni-Loo**   *i **wish** (Aff: inc +) i could have been their with you and see you shine (Jud: cap +) !!*

> **Lynell**   ***Wish** (Aff: inc +) I could have been there.*

2.2.5 Phase 5: re-orientation (Re-orientation stage of recount)

The fifth phase of the text, re-orientation, does not make use of the resources of APPRAISAL in the verbiage. This phase is realised in and by the post on its own.

2.2.6 Phase 6: judgement (Judgement stage of recount)

The final phase is realised by the evaluative resources of both post and comments. Here, E.J. maintains positive JUDGEMENT of his own behavior (propriety). E.J.

canvasses the opinion of the readership, but also limits the response such that it aligns with that of the author. Indeed, Lynell reinforces E.J.'s stance through reiteration, expressing satisfaction about his behaviour, and *entertaining* and rejecting the alternative.

> **E.J.** Do you think I am a **scary** *(Jud: prop –)* bear? *(Exp: ent)*
> *I was a **nice** (Jud: prop +) bear.*
>
> **Lynell** **Glad** *(Aff: sat +)* to hear that you were a **nice** *(Jud: prop +)* bear.
> *I can't imagine (Exp: ent) you being **mean** (Jud: prop +).*

The ensuing comments realise the social goals of building solidarity between family members and the co-construction of E.J. as a capable and good child.

The phase concludes with three comments regarding E.J.'s costume, in which positive AFFECT and APPRECIATION is expressed, and, in which alternative expressions are restricted by the use of *endorsement*:

> **E.J.** *[image] Every one **liked** (Aff: sat +) my costume best. (Con: pro: end)*
>
> **Lynell** *E.J. Your costume is <u>totally</u> (For: int) **the best**. (App: qual +) Where did you get it?*
>
> **HoLLy** *you look like one <u>**awesome**</u> (App: qual +; For: int) bear!*
> *what a **cool** (App: qual +) costume!*
>
> **Loni-Loo** *you <u>really</u> (For: int) **stand out** (App: qual +) ej<u>!!!!!!!!</u> (For: int)*

3 A case for modal hybridity

Baseball Kid uses language in its written mode in a similar way to how it might be used in paper-based generic instances; this is made apparent by the resemblance of posts to generic school-based written recounts and the dominance of declaratives across the blog. However, analyses of *Baseball Kid* from a dialogic perspective reveal speech-like moves between author and reader, and the instantiation of genre in which post and comments combined constitutes an instance of text. The post drives prosodic realisation of Teddy Bear, whereby the post author sets up the evaluative prosody and deploys ENGAGEMENT resources to position his readers. In this space, readers are encouraged to comment, but are also constrained in the evaluations they might make, lest familial solidarity be put at risk. Through dialogic interactions, readers and post author collaboratively construe the author as capable, good and tenacious, and thus co-construct the evaluations in the text as instance of recount.

Writing in an online space that incorporates comments perhaps necessarily adopts some of the affordances of the mode of speech. Rather than characterise language as written or spoken in this context I suggest, then, the deployment of language as a semiotic resource in blogs displays **modal hybridity**. In other words, the linguistic 'modes of representation' of writing and speaking, as described by Kress (2005)[8], are merged or *hybridised* in blogs. By characterising the blog as modally hybrid, I account for the impact of the technological affordance of commenting on the roles played by language in blogs.

---

[8] As opposed to mode as register in SFL, described, for example, by Hasan (1985) in terms of language role, process sharing and medium, and channel.

References

Adlington, R. (2016). *Young children's online authoring: the Techno-semiotic co-construction of blogs* (Doctoral thesis, Australian Catholic University). Retrieved from http://researchbank.acu.edu.au/theses/618/.

Domingo, M., Jewitt, C. & Kress, G. (2015). Multimodal social semiotics: writing in online contexts. *The Routledge Handbook of Literary Studies*. London: Routledge.

Eggins, S. (2004). *An Introduction to Systemic Functional Linguistics*. London: Continuum.

Eggins, S. & Slade, D. (1997). *Analysing Casual Conversation*. London: Cassell.

Gillen, J. & Merchant, G. (2013). Contact calls: Twitter as a dialogic social and linguistic practice. *Language Sciences, 35*, 47-58. Retrieved from http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.langsci.2012.04.015

Halliday, M. A. K. & Matthiessen, C. (2004). *An Introduction to Functional Grammar* (3rd ed.). London: Hodder Arnold.

Hasan, R. (1985). Part B. In M. A. K. Halliday & R. Hasan (Eds.), *Language, Context, and Text* (pp. 52-118). Victoria: Deakin University Press.

Humphrey, S., Droga, L. & Feez, S. (2012). *Grammar and Meaning*. Sydney: Primary English Teaching Association of Australia.

Kress, G. (2005). Gains and losses: new forms of texts, knowledge, and learning. *Computers and Composition, 22*, 5-22.

Macken-Horarik, M. (2003). Appraisal and the special instructiveness of narrative. *Text, 23*(3), 285-312.

Martin, J. R. & Rose, D. (2007). *Working with Discourse: Meaning Beyond the Clause* (2nd ed.). London: Continuum.

Martin, J. R. & White, P. R. R. (2005). *The Language of Evaluation: Appraisal in English*. Hampshire: Palgrave MacMillan.

Evaluative Language in English and Chinese Business Communication: An Appraisal of Text Producers' Persuasion

Nga-Ki Mavis Lasne

Department of Languages and Intercultural Studies, Heriot-Watt University
Edinburgh, EH14 4AS
United Kingdom
NML1@hw.ac.uk

Abstract

This pilot study aims to gain some insights of the evaluative strategies in English and Chinese used by three multinational luxury clothing companies: Chanel, Dior, and Louis Vuitton. Data are the English and Chinese blog entries taken from these companies' online corporate blogs. Texts totalling 914 English words and 939 Chinese words are examined. To examine evaluation in this study, Martin and White's (2005) Appraisal theory is adopted. According to White (2015), the analytical framework of Appraisal theory should be regarded as an ever-developing research project, and it can and should be adapted to fit the analysis of texts in different contexts (Hommerberg & Don, 2015; Macken-Horarik & Issac, 2014). For this reason, an adapted Appreciation framework of Appraisal theory, containing some luxury and fashion specific sub-types, is employed because this study focuses on the evaluation of artefacts in the luxury clothing industry. The finding suggests that the Chinese data contains substantially more Reaction, the only form of Appreciation that is related to emotion, than the English data. Therefore, this study concludes that the text producers of the Chinese data may take a relatively more emotional approach to persuade than the text producers of the English data. It highlights the flexibility of the Appraisal framework by a field-specific and bilingual application and it draws attention to the different evaluative strategies used in the English and Chinese data even where the targets of evaluation are the same.

1   Evaluation is Context-Dependent

'Evaluation is a highly context-dependent phenomenon' (Fuoli & Hommerberg, 2015, p. 316). To study evaluation in language, many scholars have adopted and adapted Martin and White's (2005) analytical framework of Appraisal theory to texts from different contexts: media texts (Bednarek, 2008; White, 1998), academic writing (Hood, 2006); business discourse (Fuoli, 2012; Fuoli & Hommerberg, 2015) etc. This study of evaluation is in the context of luxury and fashion under the genre of online corporate blog, which is a type of business-to-customer (B2C) marketing communication (Minett, 2002; Swani, Brown, & Milne, 2014). It is also a bilingual study in English and Chinese. This study hopes to highlight the flexible applicability of Appraisal theory in a field-specific and bilingual scope and inform practice in producing such texts in English and Chinese.

1.1   The Context of Luxury and Fashion

Luxury is a nebulous concept and it changes across culture (Kapferer & Bastien, 2009; Vigneron & Johnson, 2004; Yeoman, 2011). To this study, what is regarded as luxury can be different to English- and Chinese-speaking luxury companies and their customers. However, one thing that can be agreed on in both English and Chinese cultures is that luxury is exclusive (Dubois, Laurent, & Czellar, 2001; Yeoman, 2011; Zhan & He, 2012). This exclusivity of luxury can be represented by several values in

these cultures: authenticity, high quality, uniqueness and premium prices (Dubois, Laurent, & Czellar, 2001; Yeoman, 2011; Zhan & He, 2012). These values can be argued as specific to the context of luxury. In terms of fashion, it can be defined as 'an unplanned process of recurrent change against a backdrop of order in the public realm' (Aspers & Godart, 2013, p. 174). This definition of fashion can not only be applied to garments and accessories which are the main focus in this study, but can also be applied to a range of other artefacts such as cosmetics, furniture, architecture and many others that are not in the clothing industry. The word "recurrent" in this definition implies modernity, where artefacts described as "new", "seasonal", "fashionable", "timeless", "classic" etc. can be regarded as positive in the context of fashion. All these specific social values contribute to the adapted framework of Appraisal theory in the next section.

2   Appraisal Theory and an Adapted Appreciation Framework

Martin and White's (2005) Appraisal theory consists of three domains: Engagement, Attitude and Graduation. This study only focuses on Attitude because the aim of this study is to understand how persuasion is achieved by identifying the text producers' attitude presented in the text, rather than her/his presence (Engagement) or the degree of force emanated by the choice of lexis or other linguistic or semantic features (Graduation). Under Attitude, there are Affect, Judgement and Appreciation. Appreciation is the only sub-type the theoretical framework of this study is developed upon, as most targets of evaluation are artefacts e.g. mostly garments and accessories, also cosmetics, furniture, architecture and other objects in the clothing industry, rather than the text producers' emotions (Affect) or human behaviour (Judgement). Appreciation has three sub-types: Reaction (related to emotions), Composition (related to balance and structure) and Valuation (related to social worth) (Martin & White, 2005). The Appreciation framework employed here is adapted because sub-types under Valuation are established to reflect some institutionalised values that are specific to the context of luxury and fashion. This is because when something is being evaluated in terms of social worth, what is considered positive or negative in one field may not be the same in the other (Hommerberg & Don, 2015; Macken-Horarik & Issac, 2014). This taxonomic versatility of Valuation enables the Appreciation framework to be applied to texts in different contexts. Figure 1 below gives an overview of this adapted Appreciation framework. The subtypes in this framework are derived from the discussion of section 1 and are further explained in the next paragraph.
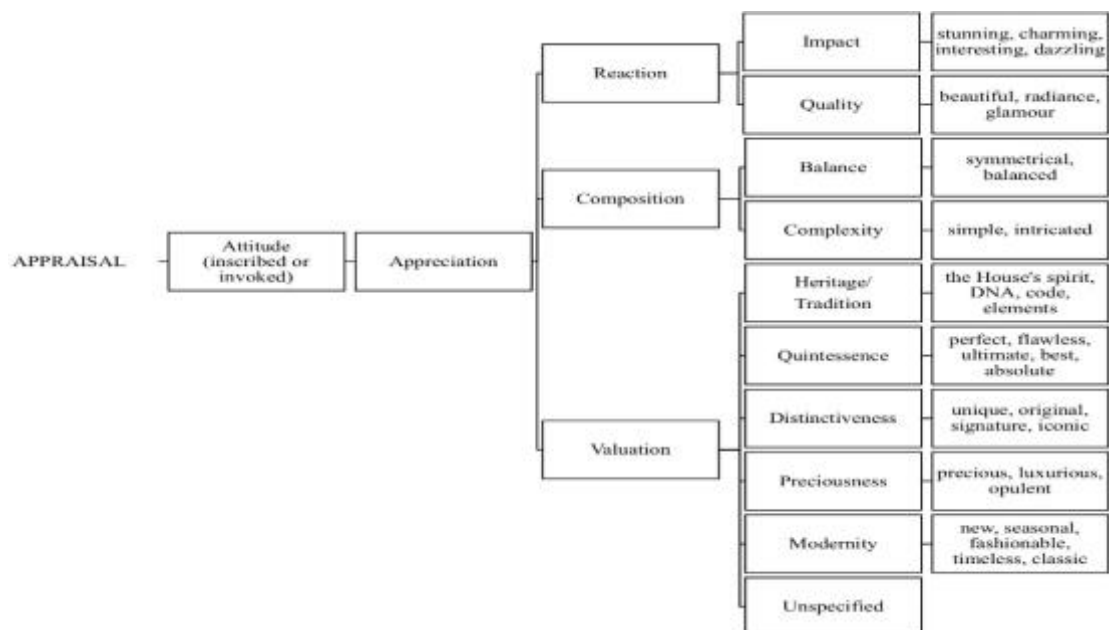
Figure 1: The Appraisal Framework of Appreciation adapted to the Language of Luxury Fashion (adopted from Martin & White, 2005, p. 38 and Hommerberg & Don, 2015, p. 9).

In the above figure, the sub-types of Reaction, Composition and Valuation are listed with some lexical examples. These examples are for reference only and are by no means exhaustive. In addition, these sub-types can be realised in invoked attitudes i.e. without explicit evaluative lexical items but also possess positive or negative meaning. The subtypes under Reaction and Composition remain the same as in Martin and White's (2005), while the subtypes under Valuation correspond to the luxury and fashion specific values discussed in section 1.1: Heritage/Tradition (related to authenticity), Quintessence (related to high quality), Distinctiveness (related to uniqueness), Preciousness (related to premium prices) and Modernity (related to the temporal characteristic of fashion). For all the other lexical items or linguistic units that indicate a certain positive or negative value but cannot be classified into one of the above five sub-types, they are labelled as "Unspecified" for the time being. When more data is examined in the future, more specific sub-types of Valuation may be added.

3   Data and Methodology

The data is taken from the online corporate blog of three luxury clothing companies: Chanel, Dior, and Louis Vuitton. These three brands are chosen because they are three of the most searched luxury clothing brands online in China (百度 (Baidu），2017) which also have an online corporate blog. One blog entry per brand, chosen randomly, in both English and Chinese[9] are taken as the data for this pilot study. This data

---

[9]The primary data can be accessed below, all retrieved Feburary 28, 2017:
Texts taken from Chanel (blog entry on 25/01/2017).
http://chanel-news.chanel.com/en/home.page.7.html (English)
http://chanel-news.chanel.com/zh_CN/home.page.6.html (Chinese)
Texts taken from Dior (blog entry on 03/03/2017)
http://www.dior.com/diormag/en_int/search?search=show%20report (English)
http://www.dior.cn/diormag/zh_cn (Chinese)
Texts taken from Louis Vuitton (blog entry on 18/10/2016)

amounts to 914 English words and 939 Chinese words after the Chinese characters has been segmented into meaningful units. Both quantitative and qualitative methods are employed. The former aims to unveil general patterns of the evaluative strategies used in the data by showing a distribution of the specific types and sub-types of Appreciation, and the relative percentages of individual evaluative lexical items in the English and Chinese data, while the latter gives a closer textual examination in explaining how such general patterns emerge.

4   Findings and Discussion

Table 1 below gives a summary of the Appreciation analysis, listing the number of instances of different types and sub-types of Appreciation and the total number of individual evaluative lexical items found in the English and Chinese data. The rows in grey give the total number of instances in the three main types of Appreciation: Reaction, Composition and Valuation; the rows in white below each of them are the breakdown of their sub-types. The last row in the table shows percentages of individual evaluative lexical items found in the English and the Chinese data respectively.

	English	Chinese
Reaction	**13**	**39**
in Impact	5	13
in Quality	8	26
Composition	**49**	**56**
in Balance	13	21
in Complexity	36	35
Valuation	**62**	**66**
in Heritage/Tradition	13	13
in Quintessence	8	12
in Distinctiveness	3	6
in Preciousness	6	4
in Modernity	10	14
in Unspecified	22	17
Percentage of Evaluative Lexical Items (Individual words)	**7.33% (67 over 914 words)**	**11.5% (108 over 939 words)**

Table 1: Summary of Appreciation found in the data.

The above statistics suggest two main differences between the English and the Chinese data. With the same targets of evaluation i.e. garments or other artefacts in the luxury clothing industry, the Chinese data appears to have: 1) three times more instances of Reaction (see the Reaction row in Table 1) and; 2) use 56.89% more evaluative lexical items[10]. These two main differences can be illustrated by two examples below which are taken from the data.

---

http://eu.louisvuitton.com/eng-e1/articles/divines-icones (English)
http://www.louisvuitton.cn/zhs-cn/articles/divines-icones (Chinese)
[10] From 7.33% in the English data to 11.5% in the Chinese data, that is an increase of 56.89%.

4.1   Difference 1: Chinese data has more instances of Reaction

Example 1

> *(English) via a **perfect** pair of jeans*
>
> *(Chinese)* 还有**亮眼的**牛仔裤
>
> *(Back Translation) and [the] **eye-catching** jeans*

This example illustrates the first difference indicated in Table 1 – more instances of Reaction in the Chinese data than in the English. In the English text above, the adjective "perfect" is an Appreciation of Valuation, as it is an assessment of the value of the "pair of jeans" against other jeans available from the competitors of Louis Vuitton, it is neither related to emotions (Reaction) or the making of the jeans (Composition). Under the sub-types of Valuation (see Figure 1), it is about the Quintessence of the product. Being "perfect" means "the pair of jeans" is as good as a pair of jeans can be. It can be argued that the English text producer in this instance tries to attract the text receivers' attention to this pair of jeans by highlighting their worth in comparison to other jeans. However, in the corresponding Chinese text, the adjective becomes "eye-catching". It is under Reaction – Impact, because this "pair of jeans" can "catch" people's eyes, which means that these jeans can create an emotional impact on people. It can be inferred that the Chinese text producer in here adopts a different approach in attracting the text receivers – an emotional appeal. Reaction is the only type of Appreciation that is related to emotions in Martin and White's (2005) Appraisal framework, the significantly higher number of instances of Reaction in the Chinese data can suggest that the Chinese text producer is more inclined to persuade by influencing the text receivers' emotions.

4.2   Difference 2: Chinese data has more evaluative lexical items

Example 2

> *(English) "Icons" is the **perfect** wardrobe*
>
> *(Chinese)* "Icons"系列是**完美的时尚杰作**
>
> *(Back Translation) "Icons" is [the] **perfect fashion masterpiece***

This example exemplifies the second difference indicated in Table 1 – comparatively more evaluative lexical items are used in the Chinese data than in the English. In the English text above, there is only one evaluative lexical item – "perfect". As explained in Example 1 earlier, "perfect" is a Valuation of Quintessence, as it suggests that "Icons", the target of evaluation, may be the best of all the wardrobes available on the market. In the Chinese text, the Chinese text producer not only retains the word "perfect", a positive Valuation of Quintessence, but s/he also adds two more evaluative lexical items "fashion" and "masterpiece". "masterpiece" is also considered as a Valuation of Quintessence, as it is implied that the target of evaluation is made from the hands of the master, which may be the best craftsmanship available. On the other hand, "fashion" in Chinese can be Shizhuang (时装, fashion in the sense of clothing) or Shishang (时尚, fashion in the sense of being modern). In the above example, the Chinese text producer uses the word "时尚". This is a Valuation of Modernity: "Icons" is something up-to-date or fashionable. By adding two more evaluative lexical items, the Quintessence of the target of evaluation is further emphasized and its Modernity is highlighted. Throughout the entire data, the Chinese has more evaluative lexical items than the English. It can be deduced that the Chinese

text producer may prefer a relatively more overt way by employing more explicitly evaluative lexical items i.e. inscribed attitudes to persuade.

5 Conclusion

This study set out to identify evaluative strategies used in the sampled English and Chinese corporate blog entries of three of the most searched multinational luxury clothing brands online in China: Chanel, Dior, and Louis Vuitton. Through an application of an adapted Appreciation framework of Appraisal theory, it can be observed that the Chinese data of the same genre appears to contain considerably more instances of Reaction and relatively more evaluative lexical items. From these it can be concluded that the Chinese text producer adopts a relatively more emotional and overt approach to persuade. The framework will be further extended to account for the visual images that come with the text, which can offer a more holistic view of evaluations performed by ensembles of text and image. This study, despite certain caveats like any other, still contributes by building a context-independent (luxury and fashion) semantic framework on top of the more generalised Appraisal framework and extending its application to more than one language (English and Chinese).

References

Aspers, P. & Godart, F. (2013). Sociology of Fashion: Order and Change. *Annual Review of Sociology*, *39*, 171–192.

Bednarek, M. (2008). *Emotion Talk across Corpora*. Houndmills, Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.

Dubois, B., Laurent, G. & Czellar, S. (2001). Consumer rapport to luxury: Analyzing complex and ambivalent attitudes. *Les Cahiers de Recherche*.

Fuoli, M. (2012). Assessing Social Responsibility: A Quantitative Analysis of Appraisal in BP's and IKEA's Social Reports. *Discourse & Communication*, *6*(1), 55–81.

Fuoli, M. & Hommerberg, C. (2015). Optimising transparency, reliability and replicability: Annotation principles and inter-coder agreement in the quantification of evaluative expressions. *Corpora*, *10*(3), 315–349.

Hommerberg, C. & Don, A. (2015). Appraisal and the Language of Wine Appreciation: A Critical Discussion of the Potential of the Appraisal Framework as a Tool to Analyse Specialised Genres. *Functions of Language*, *22*(2), 161–191.

Hood, S. (2006). The Persuasive Power of Prosodies: Radiating Values in Academic Writing. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, *5*(1), 37–49.

Kapferer, J.-N. & Bastien, V. (2009). The Specificity of Luxury Management: Turning Marketing Upside Down. *Journal of Brand Managment*, *16*(5–6), 311–322.

Macken-Horarik, M. & Issac, A. (2014). Appraising Appraisal. In G. Thompson & L. Alba-Juez (Eds.), *Evaluation in Context* (pp. 67–92). Amsterdam; Philadelphia: John Benjamins.

Martin, J. R. & White, P. R. R. (2005). *The Language of Evaluation: Appraisal in English*. London; New York: Palgrave Macmillan.

Minett, S. (2002). B2B Marketing: A Radically Different Approach for Business-to-Business Marketers. *Financial Times Management*, *10*.

Swani, K., Brown, B. P. & Milne, G. R. (2014). Should Tweets Differ for B2B and B2C? An Analysis of Fortune 500 Companies' Twitter Communications. *Industrial Marketing Management*, *43*(5), 873–881.

Vigneron, F. & Johnson, L. (2004). Measuring Perceptions of Brand Luxury. *The Journal of Brand Management*, *11*(6), 484–506.

White, P. R. R. (1998). *Telling Media Tales: The News Story as Rhetoric*. University of Sydney.

White, P. R. R. (2015). The Appraisal Website. Retrieved July 20, 2016, from http://www.grammatics.com/appraisal/

Yeoman, I. (2011). The changing behaviours of luxury consumption. *Journal of Revenue and Pricing Management*, *10*(1), 47–50.

Zhan, L. & He, Y. (2012). Understanding Luxury Consumption in China: Consumer Perceptions of Best-known Brands. *Journal of Business Research*, *65*(Fashion Marketing and Consumption of Luxury Brands), 1452–1460.

百度 (Baidu). (2017). 今日奢侈品品牌排行榜 (Today's Luxury Brands Ranking). Retrieved March 22, 2017, from http://top.baidu.com/buzz?b=270&fr=zx_right

The Lexicogrammar of Negation in US Presidents' Inaugural Speeches

José Manuel Durán

Universidad de Belgrano, Buenos Aires, Argentina
Palestina 830. 1°A (C1182ADH) Ciudad Autónoma de Buenos Aires
joseduranlinguist@yahoo.com.ar

Abstract

This paper reports a quantitative analysis of the frequency of lexicogrammatical negation per clause and its correlation with SFL features in a corpus of political speeches. The corpus is made up of the 45 inaugural speeches (122,848 words) delivered by US presidents. The corpus was automatically tagged with the aid of WordSmithTool and UAM CorpusTool and manually checked. Grammatical negation is realised through negative polarity items and contrastive and concessive conjunctions and adverbs. Lexical negation comprises negatively evaluated lexical items and negative words. Results show that polarity items in my corpus are much higher than those in finite main clauses in the COBUILD Corpus (Halliday & James, 1993). Additionally, grammatical negation is found to be twice as frequent at clause level than at the level of the noun group. Besides, negation at the level of the clause is strikingly highly systematic, e.g. equiprobable for modality. At the level of the verbal group the most frequent types of processes under the scope of negation are material and relational, while there is greater proportion of existential and relational process clauses under the scope of *no*-negation. This contribution aims at broadening our knowledge of the lexicogrammatical features of this register, which has increasingly attracted the attention within SFL (Durán 2008; Krizsán 2011).

1   Introduction

It has been shown that grammatical choices are sensitive to register (Halliday & Matthiessen, 1999; Matthiessen, 2015). Thus one of the tasks of the grammarian is to try and unravel the register choices that disrupt the overall frequencies of the patterns of a certain grammatical system. The system of polarity has been found to be skewed towards positive polarity (Halliday & James, 1993). However, patterns of negative polarity are expected to be richer and more complex in political speeches than in overall language (Lavandera, 2014, p. 326). This expectation has driven me to study the frequency of lexicogrammatical negation per clause and its correlation with SFL features in a corpus of political speeches. This contribution aims at broadening our knowledge of the lexicogrammatical features of this register, which has increasingly attracted attention within SFL (Durán, 2008; Krizsán, 2011; Martínez Lirola, 2012; El-Falaky, 2015; Koutchadé, 2015; Nur, 2015).

Grammatical negation is realised through negative polarity items such as *not*, *never*, *no* and contrastive and concessive conjunctions and adverbs such as *although*, *but* and *however*. Lexical negation comprises negatively evaluated lexical items such as *corrupt*, *war* and *evil* (Martin & White, 2005). This paper reports the frequency of lexicogrammatical negation per 100 clauses in a corpus of political speeches. The corpus, made up of all the inaugural speeches delivered by US presidents, was scrutinised for all instances of negative polarity and analysed from an SFL perspective. The paper is organised as follows. First, all frequencies [11] of lexicogrammatical negation per 100 clauses for each inaugural US presidential speech

---

[11] To make results comparable, figures are reported in percentages of clauses.

are shown. Section 2.1 refers to the most pervasive instances of grammatical negation and their correlation with some SFL features. Subsections 2.1.1 and 2.1.2 analyse two of the most recurrent grammatical types of negation. Finally, some concluding remarks are given.

2 Results and Discussion

The realisations of lexicogrammatical negation display a wide range of possibilities, as can be seen in the following examples taken from presidential speeches. Examples (1) to (4) are instances of grammatical negation realised by functional words that clearly show negative polarity present in the Mood element. Thus the corresponding mood tag that could have been added would have been respectively (1) *is it?* (2) *can there?* (3) *can they?* and (4) *will it?* Additionally, example (5) exhibits a case of lexical negation present in this case in the noun group in thematic position in the first clause and in the verbal and noun groups in rhematic position in the second clause. The overall frequencies are shown in Figure 1 below.

(1) *But every difference of opinion is **not** a difference of principle. [Jefferson 1801]*

(2) *There can be **no** turning back. [Wilson 1913]*

(3) *Such dreams can **never** be realized by any agency of mine. [Harrison 1841]*

(4) ***Nothing** will be wanting on the part of this Government to extend the protection of our flag over the enterprise of our fellow-citizens. [Johnson 1865]*

(5) *The **enemy** was advancing. The snow was **stained** with **blood**. [Obama 2009]*
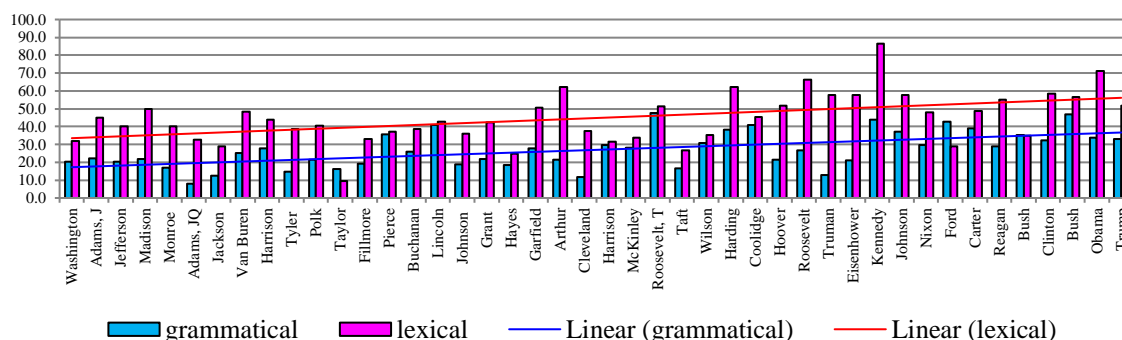
Figure 1: Frequency of grammatical and lexical negative items per speech

Figure 1 summarises the frequencies of grammatical and lexical negation per 100 clauses in all the speeches analysed. Two points are worth mentioning: negation is far more frequent in inaugural US presidents' speeches than in the finite clauses found by Halliday and James (1993). Additionally, there is a growing tendency of both types of negation diachronically. This is explained by the fact that later US presidents tend to choose more overtly polar expressions in their inaugural speeches than earlier ones. The following subsection focuses on grammatical negation while lexical negation will be left unanalysed in this paper.

2.1 Grammatical Negation

Grammatical negation is realised by both polarity and concessive items. The occurrences of the most frequent grammatical negative items are shown in Figure 2. It can be seen that *not*-negation is twice as frequent as negation through the negative determiner *no*. We can thus deduce that negation at clause level doubles negation at

the level of the noun group. This is in line with the findings in Biber et al. (1999, p.170), who contrast the frequencies of *not* and *no* in four different registers. Considering the rate of *not*-negation over *no*-negation and both the results in Biber et al. (1999) and those in my corpus, inaugural political speeches could be located between news and academic and fictional registers.

Figure 3 displays the frequencies of the most recurrent negative polarity items in each of the inaugural presidential speeches. Since *not* and *no* negation cover 47 % of all instances in my corpus, they are analysed in the following subsections.
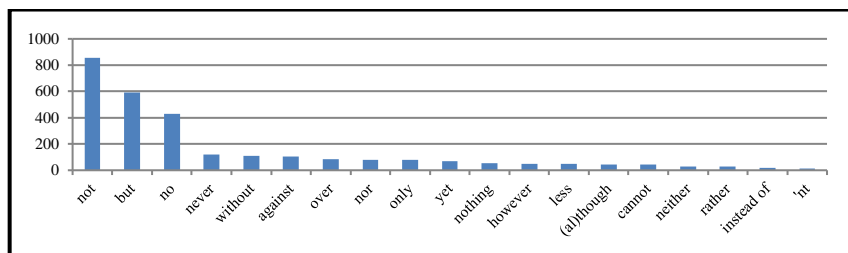

Figure 2: Occurrences of grammatical negative items
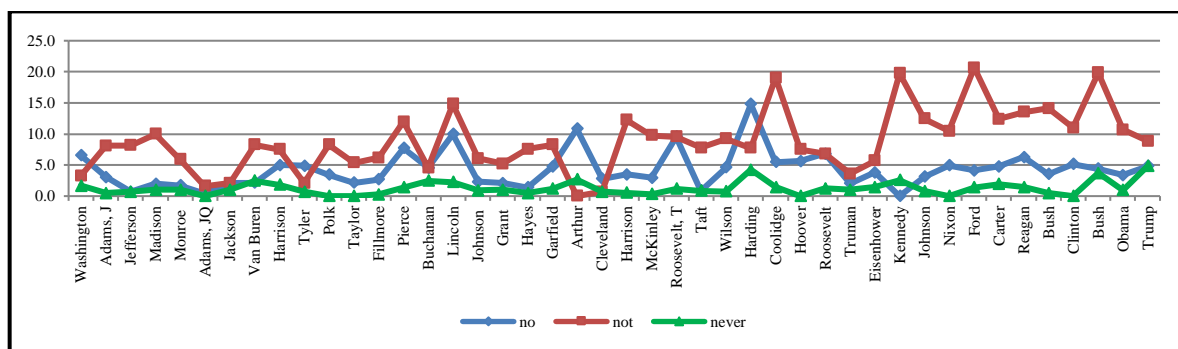
Figure 3: Frequencies (per 100 clauses) of most pervasive negative polarity items

2.1.1 *Not*-Negation

Tables 1 to 3 below specify the correlation of *not*, the most recurrent polarity item, with some grammatical features. As shown in Table 1 below, the particle *not*[12] has scope over the whole clause thrice more frequently than over all the other groups together in the Residue. Still, examples (6) to (10) below illustrate some of the infrequent instances of *not* affecting the prepositional phrase and adverbial, nominal, adjectival and pronominal groups, respectively.

Clause	PP	AdvG	NG	AdjG	PrG	T
681 (77%)	77 (9%)	52 (6%)	39 (4%)	34 (4%)	5 (1%)	888

Table 1: Scope of *not*

(6) *In your hands, my dissatisfied fellow-countrymen, and **not** in mine, is the momentous issue of civil war. [Lincoln 1861]*

(7) *We know in our hearts, **not** loudly and proudly but as a simple fact, that this country has meaning beyond what we see, and that our strength is a force for good. [Bush 1989]*

(8) *But it should be so conducted that all the world may see in it, **not** a menace, but an instrument of security and peace. [Coolidge 1923]*

---

[12] Here all instances *not*, *cannot* and *'nt* have been grouped together.

(9) *It should all be put upon an enduring basis, **not** subject to easy attack, nor its stability to doubt or dispute. [McKinley 1897]*

(10)   *It may be foreign nations who govern us, and **not** we, the people, who govern ourselves (…). [Adams 1797]*

	main		finite		active		declar		modal		Pres	Past	Fut	T
	+	--	+	--	+	--	+	--	+	--				
N	424	257	641	40	568	113	651	30	335	346	462	132	87	681
%	62	38	94	6	83	17	96	4	49	51	68	19	13	100

Table 2: Features of clauses polarised by *not*

Table 2 exhibits some predictable results: negation at the level of the clause is highly skewed toward declarative, finite and active (96 %, 94% and 83%, respectively). This suggests that the systems of Mood, finiteness and voice are independent of polarity. Moreover, negation in main clauses is preferred to that in subordinating and embedded ones. However, negative clauses are unexpectedly equiprobable for modality[13]. This is remarkable compared to the findings in the literature. For example, Biber et al. (1999, p. 486) obtain that English clauses are highly skewed towards non-modalised ones (83 % vs. 17 % modalised). More specifically, in a corpus of US presidential speeches of 4,429,976 words (Ahrens, 2015), modalised clauses constitute a highly marked choice (< 5 %). This may imply the hypothesis that negative polarity in political speeches favours the choice of modalised clauses.
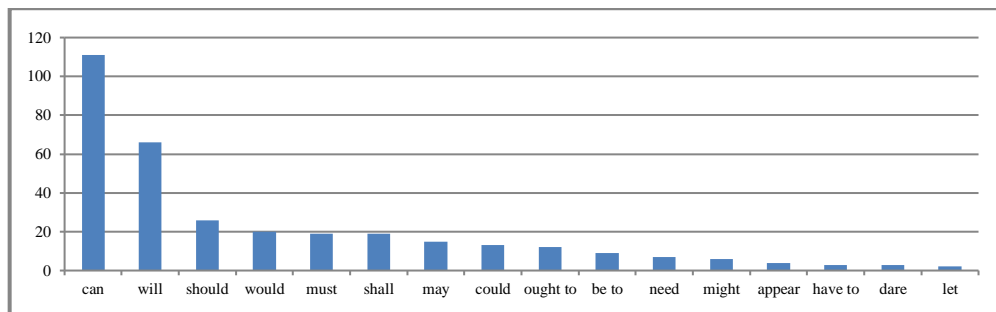

Figure 4: Occurrences of modal auxiliaries in clauses polarised by *not*

What is more, the relative frequency of modals in each of the modalised polar clauses in my corpus (Figure 4) displays a different pattern from that in Biber et al. (1999, p. 486). A further hypothesis to be tested in a larger corpus would be how the systems of polarity and modality intersect. Is it true that negative polarity favours the choice of modal *can* in the first place and *should* in the third place? Or is this the preferred pattern irrespective of the polarity chosen? If so, is this a feature of the register political speeches or a systematic feature of English?

Finally, the analysis of process types in the negatively polarised clauses shows that material processes are preferred to all other process types together (Table 3). This can probably be explained by US presidents' needing to position themselves as leaders of action (Durán, 2008). Thus, politicians choose negatively polarised clauses to report what their former leaders did and to pave the way for what they themselves would do in the new period (Example 11); to express a condition of why they do not act in a certain way (Example 12); to argue that they cannot merely take a specific course of

---

[13] Cf., however, Halliday (1991, p. 48).

action (Example 13); or to proclaim that they do not and will not shirk an institutional duty (Example 14).

Mat	Rel	Men	Vb	Bh	Exist	T
365 (54%)	205 (30%)	91 (13%)	8 (2%)	7 (1%)	5 (1%)	681

Table 3: Process types of clauses polarised by *not*

(11)   *[T]he representatives of this nation (...) **not** only broke to pieces the chains which were forging (...) [Adams 1797]*

(12)   *If I do **not** sink under the weight of this deep conviction (...) [Madison 1809]*

(13)   *[W]e now realize (...) that we **cannot** merely take but we must give as well (...) [Roosevelt]*

(14)   *I do **not** shrink from this responsibility – I welcome it. [Kennedy 1961]*

2.1.2 *No*-Negation

The choice of *no*-negation in speeches increases the percentages of negation in existential and relational process clauses from 1% to 13% and from 30% to 34% respectively, and reduces material ones from 54% to 39% (Cf. Table 3). This allows politicians to exploit grammatical metaphors packed in the nominal group (Example 15) and to express their principles as unquestionable truths (Example 16), which renders inaugural speeches more objective. A further examination of the most frequent lexical items that collocate with the negative determiner *no* reveals interesting results (Figure 5). Among the most frequent choices are political institutions (*nation*, *people*, *power*, *government*, *country*), arguments for an action (*reason*, *motive*, *purpose*) and incongruent realisations of predication (*doubt*, *appeal*, *failure*, *fear*). This is on the one hand a natural consequence of the field of the corpus under study, namely inaugural political addresses. On the other hand, however, politicians resort to seemingly innocent wordings in their persuasive addresses to fully exploit the resources that language offers them. Thus, (17) and (18) below exemplify instances of grammatical metaphors whose more congruent realisations would respectively be the proposition *that nobody appeals to force* and the proposal *We/You should not / Don't be afraid*.
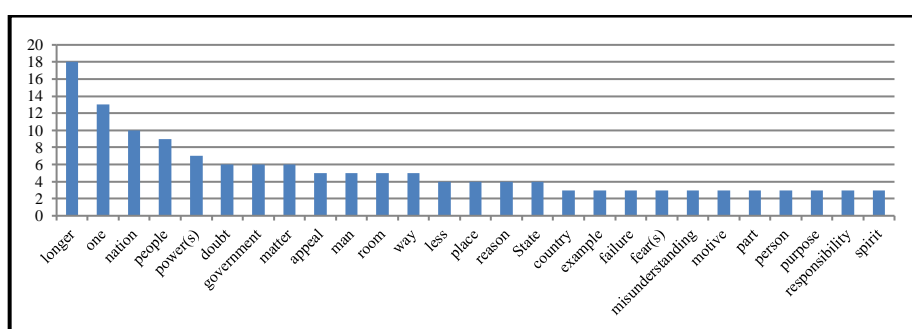
Figure 5: Most frequent occurrences of collocations with *no*

N	Adv	Pr	T		Bare	Pos	Pre	Both	T
377 89%	32 8%	16 4%	**425**		143 38%	117 31%	76 20%	41 11%	**377**

Table 4: Categories polarised by *no* and noun modification

(15)   *In doing this there needs to be **no** bloodshed or violence (...) [Lincoln 1861]*

(16)   ***No** man can be fully free while his neighbor is not. [Nixon 1969]*

44

(17)   *[T]he events of the last four years have established, we will hope forever, that there lies **no** appeal to force. [Johnson 1865]*

(18)   *(...), America is totally unstoppable. There should be **no** fear. [Trump 2017]*

(19)   *I / We can do **no** less. [Roosevelt 1933 / Clinton 1993]*

(20)   *[I]f we despise our own government, we have **no** future. [Carter 1977]*

Naturally, the unmarked category determined by *no* is a noun (89%, see Table 4), while the second frequent category is adverb (Example 19). Additionally, 38 % of the noun groups with the non-specific Deictic *no* have not been expanded by either post- or premodification (Example 20). This suggests that politicians choose *no*-negation to make short assertions on their interpretation of reality and their future actions rather than expand the noun group with controversial information. When they do resort to Premodification of the noun group, they prefer Epithets (42%, Example 21), while if Postmodification is chosen, 71% is realised through prepositional phrases, of which the most common (38%) is the preposition *of*.

(21)   ***No** reasonable man of any party will expect the Administration to be so (...)* *[Pierce 1853]*

3   Conclusions

US inaugural presidential speeches have been found noticeably biased towards negation. Presidents feel the need to portray themselves as men of action and therefore choose an antithetical opponent to establish their future policies. Still, as it would seem inappropriate for presidents to start a political period with a prevalence of negation, they strategically create their enemy with the most powerful weapon, namely language. And interesting as it may be to unravel the ambiguities created in the lexicon through the 'weasel words' that politicians coin in their speeches (Fairclough, 2000), I have found it no less profitable to identify the patterns at the grammatical end of language.

Of course, some choices in the patterns of grammatical structures present in a corpus will naturally affect other subsystems at a deeper level of delicacy compared to their overall frequencies in the language. This paper has shown that the register of US inaugural presidential speeches increases the choice of negative polarity and that this increase is systematically progressive. Additionally, clausal negation influences the degree of modality to the extent of equiprobable, while *no*-negation disrupts the frequency of process types.

References

Ahrens, K. (2015). *Corpus of political speeches*. Hong Kong Baptist University Library, Retrieved from http://digital.lib.hkbu.edu.hk/corpus/

Biber, D., Johansson, S., Leech, G., Conrad, S. & Finegan, E. (1999). *Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English*. Harlow, Essex: Longman.

Durán, J. M. (2008). The analysis of political discourse applied to Bush's and Kerry's speeches. In N. Nørgaard (Ed.), *Systemic functional linguistics in use: Odense working papers in language and communication* (pp. 267-282). Odense: University of Southern Denmark.

El-Falaky, M. S. (2015). Vote for Me! A corpus linguistic analysis of American presidential debates using functional grammar. *Arts and Social Science Journal, 6*(4).

Fairclough, N. (2000). *New Labour, New Language?* London: Routledge.

Halliday, M. A. K. (1991). Towards probabilistic interpretations. In M. A. K. Halliday & J. J. Webster (2006). *Computational and quantitative studies* (pp. 42-62). London: Continuum.

Halliday, M. A. K. (1992). Language as system and language as instance: The corpus as a theoretical construct. In J. Svartvik (Ed.), *Directions in corpus linguistics* (pp. 61-78). New York: de Gruyter.

Halliday, M. A. K. & James, Z. L. (1993). A quantitative study of polarity and primary tense in the English finite clause. In J. M. Sinclair, M. Hoey & G. Fox (Eds.), *Techniques of description: Spoken and written discourse* (pp. 32-66). London: Routledge.

Halliday, M. A. K. & Matthiessen, C. (1999). *Construing Experience through Meaning: A Language-Based Approach to Cognition*. Malden, New York: Continuum.

Koutchadé, I. S. (2015). Discourse analysis of General Muhammadu Buhari's official acceptance speech: A systemic functional perspective. *International Journal of English Linguistics*, *5*(5), 24-36.

Krizsán, A. (2011) *The EU is Not Them But Us! The First Person Plural and the Articulation of Collective Identities in European Political Discourse*. Cambridge: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.

Lavandera, B.R. (2014). *Variación y significado. Y discurso*. Buenos Aires: Paidós.

Martin, J. & White, P. R. R. (2005). *The Language of Evaluation: Appraisal in English*. New York: Palgrave.

Martínez Lirola, M. (2012) The relation of meaning to wording in Mandela's speech of inauguration as President: A systemic functional analysis of rhetorical devices, marked syntax and appraisal. *Journal of Modern Languages, 22*, 19-31.

Matthiessen, C. M. I. M. (2015). Register in the round: Registerial cartography. *Functional Linguistics, 2*, 1-49.

Nur, S. (2015). Analysis of interpersonal metafunction in public speeches: A case study of Nelson Mandela's presidential inauguration speech. *The International Journal of Social Sciences*, *30*(1), 52-63.

The representation of social actors in debates on the 2006 Thai coup

Ingrid Wijeyewardene

University of New England
Armidale NSW
iwijeyew@une.edu.au

Abstract

This paper analyses the discursive responses of two Thai political scientists/ public intellectuals to the 2006 *coup d'état* in Thailand. The coup marked a critical point in a conflict that continues to shape and transform the Thai socio-political context. To construct a persuasive argument and to convince their audiences to accept their interpretations of the events, the two writers represent social actors in different ways, making some prominent over others, foregrounding some, backgrounding others, and excluding some actors altogether. The paper identifies the representations of social actors in the two texts by drawing on van Leeuwen's (2008) social actor network. The writers deploy different patterns of linguistic choices that engage with key social actors represented in the texts, including the government, the military, and the people. These actors are brought into greater or lesser relief depending on the purpose and position of the writers. The representations convey views that the writers are promoting or rejecting with respect to the nature, causes and legitimacy of the coup and some of the competing discourses that were occurring at the time. The study contributes to our understanding of how writers negotiate difficult and sensitive contexts.

1 Introduction

The 19th September 2006 coup in Thailand marked a critical point in a political conflict between socially conservative forces and interests, loyal to the monarchy and led by the military on the one side, and the popularly elected government of Prime Minister Thaksin Shinawatra on the other. At the same time, the coup triggered a struggle between Thailand's conservative elites and what was to become an increasingly vocal opposition movement, a struggle that still continues today. This conflict played out not only in the streets but also in the media and in public and academic discourse by academics, public intellectuals and political activists supporting or opposing the coup and engaging in debates such as the legitimacy of the military's staging of the coup, the legitimacy and transgressions of the Thaksin government and the position of "the people" in a Thai democracy.

The two political scientists in this study, Khien Theeravit and Pitch Pongsawat, are both highly regarded public intellectuals in Thailand. These texts were selected as representative of the debates that were polarising the country at the time. Khien is a retired, conservative political scientist. He was a staunch defender of the actions of the military in staging the coup to oust the Thaksin government. His text, "The right to stage the coup", was published online on the *Thai World* website on October 13, 2006. Pitch is a Marxist political scientist. Pitch's (2007) text, "The coup of 19 September turned citizens into subjects" opposes the coup and challenges the actions of the coup leaders.

This paper is situated broadly within systemic functional linguistics to explore the realisation of experiential meanings in the two texts (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014). More specifically, the paper draws on van Leeuwen's (2008) categories for the representation of social actors. According to van Leeuwen, social actors may be

explicitly identified or obscured; they may be classified, specified or represented through their utterances; they may be appraised, objectified or represented as abstractions. They may also be represented in ways that deviate from an accepted norm. In addition, they are allocated roles such as Agent-Actor or Medium-Goal in the transitivity of the clause. This analysis of the texts helps to reveal the position of the writers on the debates about the 2006 coup. They refer to institutions and structures of power in Thai society such as governments, the state and the military. They also specify groups of people caught up in the events of the coup. These representations illustrate some of the ways that the writers used to negotiate this fraught context.

2   Khien Theeravit

Khien's representations of the different social actors reveal his pro-conservative ideological stance on the political debates that were widespread in Thailand at that time. Through sometimes covert strategies of representation, and logogenetic patterns (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014, p. 659) created by variations in the representations of government, the military and people, Khien positions these social actors in particular ways that has the effect of legitimising the actions of the military while delegitimising the Thaksin government.

2.1   Government

Different representations of *government* in Khien's text contribute to Khien's justification for the staging of the coup. *Government* is both genericised and specified in the text. It is represented in generic terms to establish a norm of behaviour, as in the following example:

> (1)*...wâa* **rátthabaan** *mii wáy|| phɯ̂â pòkpɔ̂ŋ lǽʔ bɔrikaan khon khɔ̌ɔŋ prachaakhom|||*
>
>   *... that* **governments** *exist|| to protect and administer the people of a community|||*

Generic realisations of *rátthabaan – government,* such as the example above help Khien to construct a normative view of how governments should behave to build his argument that deposing the Thaksin government was both justified and legitimate. When *government* is genericised, it occurs as Medium (Actor-Medium and Existent-Medium) in the clause, so it assumes a passive role as the first clause in example (1) above and example (2) below:

> (2) **rátthabaan** *ca sîn saphâap pay|| mɯ̂a Ø mây sǎamâat ráksǎa khwaamchɯ̂amân (trust) khɔ̌ɔŋ prachaachon ʔaw wáy dây|||*
>
> *A* **government** *will be wiped out|| when (it) cannot retain the trust of the people|||*

The normative position that is established with the genericisation and passivation of *government* contrasts with the specified representation of *government* in Khien's text. The most common, explicit, identifiable representation is of *rátthabaan tháksǐn – Thaksin government*. There are not only specified and named examples of this social actor, but also other references to the Thaksin government that are more covert as in *rátthabaan thɔɔrarâat – tyrannical government* and *fàay "phûu ráay" thaaŋ kaanmɯaŋ – a politically "criminal" group/side*. These representations fall under the category of appraisement in van Leeuwen's (2008) social actor network. Appraisement adds an interpersonal, evaluative dimension to the representation. In

48

this case, the evaluation is negative, which contributes to the process of delegitimisation. In the second example, the *Thaksin government* is represented as *phûuráay – criminal.* This representation falls not only under the category of appraisement, but also under the category of deviation in van Leeuwen's social actor network. Deviation occurs when a social actor is represented as taking part in activities that he or she would not normally be eligible to be involved in. As van Leeuwen (2008) states, '[d]eviation almost always serves the purpose of legitimation: the failure of the deviant social actor confirms the norms' (p. 51). The representation of the Thaksin government as a criminal contradicts the norms that Khien established earlier of how governments should behave. This strategy further delegitimises the Thaksin government, justifying the need for the coup. Finally, in terms of role allocation, the Thaksin government is more frequently realised as Actor-Agent:

(3) ***rátthabaan tháksǐn*** *dây lámʒ̂ət sǎnyaa prachaakhom sám lǽæw sám lâw |||*

*The **Thaksin government** violated the social contract again and again|||*

The representation of the Thaksin government as Actor-Agent, coupled with negative appraisal choices, such as *violated* in example (3) and *a politically "criminal" group/side* above, adds to the negative portrayal that Khien intends to create.

2.2 Military

The military is another key actor represented in Khien's text in generic terms to establish a normative understanding of their role, as in the following example:

(4) ***thahǎan*** *pen kɔɔŋ kamlaŋ tìt ʔaawút khɔ̌ɔŋ rát|| (Ø míʔ chây khɔ̌ɔŋ rátthabaan ....)|| ...**thahǎan** thùuk khâatmǎay hây pen khrɨ̂aŋmɨɨ khɔ̌ɔŋ phûunam fàay bɔríhǎan...|||*

*the **military** is the armed force of the state|| (it) is not of a government...|| ... **the military** is expected to be a tool of the executive leader...|||*

However, the expectations about the role of the military are scrutinized as Khien attempts to provide the justification for the 2006 military coup. One strategy that he uses to achieve this, while maintaining the generic representation of military, is to include the notion of political rights for the individual, thus conflating the institution and the individual:

(5) ***thahǎan*** *<<mɨ̂a Ø thɨ̌ɨ ʔaawút lǽæw>> ca tɔ̂ŋ thùuk tàt sìt khân phɨ́ɨnthǎan nay thaaŋ kaanmɨaŋ pay dûay |||*

*the **military/ soldiers** <<when (they) carry weapons>> must have their basic political rights cut also|||*

In terms of role allocation, the military is cast here first in the role of Actor-Medium and then in the role of Client-Beneficiary, affected by the actions of others. The slippage between institutional rights and individual rights serves a rhetorical purpose as it constructs a view of the sacrifice of the military which helps to legitimate its actions when it comes to staging the coup. The tension that is created by the conflation of the role of the military as an institution and the political rights of the individual helps to establish the caveat that is needed to legitimise the actions of the military. This construal of the military as a passive participant continues, as in the following example, where it first occurs as Goal-Medium and then as Carrier-Medium:

(6) *lǽʔ "phûuráay [[thîi mii ʔàtthíphon" lǽʔ mii ʔamnâat thaaŋ kaanmɨɨaŋ]] tɔ̂ŋkaan dɨɨŋ* **phûak khǎw** *khâw pay ||| thahǎan yɔ̂ɔm ʔɨ̀ɨʔàtcay mâak nay rɨ́ɨaŋ kaanwaaŋtua|||*

and "criminals [[who have influence" and political power]] need to pull that group (military) in ||| The military is likely very frustrated about this behaviour|||

Khien uses these representations of the military as adversely affected by the actions of the government to legitimate the actions of the military group that staged the coup and delegitimise Thaksin and the Thaksin government.

Once the role of the military, the problems of this role and the illegitimacy of the Thaksin government have been established, Khien then specifies the military group that staged the coup, representing it as Agent in the clause:

(7) *nay thîI sùt* **klùm thahǎan** *… kɔ̂ dây tàtsǐncay tham rátthaprahǎan|| khôon lóm rátthabaan tháksǐn loŋ|||*

Finally **the military group** *… decided to stage the coup|| to topple the Thaksin government|||*

The effect of this logogenetic patterning for the representation of the military leads the reader to the conclusion that the military was led unwillingly to stage the coup. The representation of the military, first in generic terms to establish the expected role of the military and the problems with these expectations and then as a specified group that staged the coup, serves Khien's purpose to justify the staging of the coup by the military. In terms of role allocation, the *military* is also represented both as Actor-Agent and as an affected participant. However, the pattern of representation for the *military* is in stark contrast to the pattern identified for *government*. That is, while the same pattern is used with the generic representation establishing the norm, the specific military group that staged the coup is not held to account in the same way as the Thaksin government. So while the military is represented as both Agent and Medium, it is portrayed more positively to position the reader in support of the military.

2.3 People

The representation of people is also strategically managed to create a particular effect. People are represented in generic terms as "the people" or "the population" and remain an anonymous, homogenous group. This use of generic terms such as *phûu, khon, phûu-khon – people* again assumes a norm. Khien's strategy in construing people in this way is to assert the natural rights of "the people" in overthrowing a government that violates the social contract. Groups of people are also specified in terms of their political proclivities, as in:

(8) *fàay [[thîi hěn chɔ̂ɔp]] lǽʔ fàay tɔ̀ɔtâan kaan tham rátthaprahǎan khɔ̌ɔŋ thay khráŋ níi*

the side [[that was in favour of]] and the side opposing the staging of this Thai coup

The specified representations of groups of people such as the groups in example (8) depict a polarised political landscape of supporters and opposition. The effect of these binary representations is to encourage readers to adopt a position that is essentially anti-Thaksin.

While the Thaksin government is a key social actor, the individual, Thaksin Shinawatra, is backgrounded in the text. Thaksin occurs only as modifier to

50

government, as an abstraction as in *"ráb ɔ̀ɔp Tháksǐn" – Thaksinism, Thaksinomics*, or embedded as verbiage in a nominal group:

(9) *phûu [[thiî ʔɔ̀ɔk maa tàkoon "Tháksǐn.... sûu ... sûu"]] kàp fàay troŋkhâam [[thiî ʔɔ̀ɔk maa takoon "Tháksǐn ... ʔɔ̀ɔk pay"]]*

People [[that came out to shout "Thaksin… fight… fight"]] and the opposite side [[that came out to shout "Thaksin… get out"]]

The effect of this backgrounding is to delegitimise Thaksin the individual by stripping him of any agency, influence or credibility in Thai politics.

3   Pitch Pongsawat

Pitch's choices for the representation of social actors in his text reflect his stance on the coup and the political situation in Thailand at the time. Pitch's goal in writing this text was to challenge the explanations of the coup-makers for why the coup was necessary. To achieve this goal, Pitch makes people, the military, the coup group (the interim, post-coup administration) and the state rather than the government most prominent in the text. As the analysis outlined below indicates, these representations often occur in covert forms, in cryptogrammatical patterns (e.g., Halliday, 1987) which suppress agency or lack of it and which need a close inspection of the representations to bring these patterns to light.

3.1   The state

The *state – rát* is classified in Pitch's text as an overarching social force that is made up of various elements, including the military, the monarchy and the government. Mostly, the state is referred to in generic terms and as modifier for certain abstractions as in *konkay rát – state mechanisms* and *ʔamnâat rát – state power*. *The state* is also more overtly represented as possessivated (van Leeuwen, 2008) with the use of *khɔ̌ɔŋ – belong* as in *sàttraawút rɯ̀ɯ khrɯ̂aŋmɯɯ khɔ̌ɔŋ rát – weapon or tool of the state* and *khamsàŋ khɔ̌ɔŋ rát – order of the state.* As van Leeuwen notes, this strategy backgrounds the agency of the social actor. These representations provide a clue, then, to the importance accorded to this social actor in Pitch's text. The state is also represented as being made up of various parts or elements. At the forefront in this text are the coup group and the military. In the following example, the military is identified specifically as being a part of the state, and the state is again realised as modifier in the nominal group:

(10) *kaan thiî thahǎan nay thǎanáʔ rát nán…*

the fact that the military in the position of the state…

The state is also activated, realised as Assigner-Agent in the transitivity of the clause in the following:

(11) **rát** *ʔeeŋ tàaŋ hàak||* **thiî** *tham hây phonlamɯaŋ pen phrâay*

(it was) **the state** *itself||* **that** *caused citizens to be subjects*

These representations suggest that the state is essentially authoritarian in nature, despite the fact that it plays a subordinate role in the grammar.

3.2 The military

The military is another key actor in Pitch's text, represented in generic terms as in *khwaam-sămphan ráwàaŋ **thahăan** kàp phonlarɨan – civil-military relationship*, classified by nationality as in *thahăan thay nán – the Thai military*, and possessivated as in *khwaamchɔɔ́ptham thaaŋ kaanmɨaŋ khɔɔ́ŋ thahăan – the political legitimacy of the military*. It is also circumstantialised, following van Leeuwen's (2008) network, as in *kaantham rátthápraháan **dooy thahăan** – the staging of the coup **by the military*** and represented as an abstraction, as in *phalaŋ phadètkaan – the power of a dictatorship*. Many of these instantiations of the military are activated. That is, it is the military that exercised its political legitimacy and that staged the coup. In the transitivity of the clause, the military is also activated, represented as Actor-Agent as in the following example:

(12) *mɨ̂a nán lὲʔ ca pen hûaŋ caŋwàʔ [[thîî thahăan sâaŋ khwaam-chɔɔ́ptham nay kaan khâw sɛ̂æk-sæ̂æŋ thaaŋ kaan mɨaŋ dooy troŋ]]*

Right then is the time [[that the military builds legitimacy for direct political intervention]].

These representations feed into Pitch's position on the military coup of 2006, contradicting Khien's position. The military is also specified as *khanáʔ rátthaprahăan – the coup group*, that is, the particular military group that staged the coup. This social actor is the most highly agentive participant in Pitch's text, realized as Initiator-Agent and as Actor-Agent as in the examples below:

(13) *kaanthiî khanáʔ rátthaprahăan sòŋ kamlaŋ thahăan pay pracamkaan taam sămnákŋaan khɔɔ́ŋ sɨ̀ɨmuanchon*

the fact that the coup group sent a military force to be stationed at the offices of the mass media

(14) *mɛ́æ wâa dâan nɨ̀ŋ Ø ca dây yóklɨ̂ək rátthathammanuun chabàp 2540*

even though on the one hand (the coup group) annulled the 1997 constitution

Therefore, unlike in Khien's text, there is no sense in Pitch's text that the military was an unwilling participant, forced to act. On the contrary, the military is highly implicated in the coup. However, the attribution of responsibility for involvement in the coup can occur in an embedded clause as in example (12) or a fact clause as in (13). This means that the proposition is unarguable (Martin, 1992, p. 486), so any apportioning of blame is downplayed.

3.3 The people

Another key difference in Pitch's text from Khien's text is the complex representation of people, classified in terms of class or social hierarchies. This is captured by nouns such as *phrâi,* a very culturally loaded word in Thai carrying feudal undertones, which Pitch translates into English as *subject,* and *phonlamɨaŋ – citizen.* These social actors are represented exclusively as generic and classified participants and are very passive compared to the state and the military. This can be observed in terms of role allocation as in example (11) above and (15) below where *phrai* appears as Token-Medium:

(15) **phrây samăy mày** cɯ̀ŋ pen phuû [[**thiî** khɯ̆n tɔ̀ɔ rát…

modern state subjects are thus people [[**that** depend on the state…

Phrai also occurs as modifier in the nominal group, but in contrast to the *state*, it is passivated as in *kaankhúmkhrɔɔŋ phrây* – *the protection of phrai* and *khwaamcoŋrákphákdii khɔ̆ɔŋ phrây* – *the loyalty of phrai*. What is interesting in the representation of these social actors, particularly *phrai*, is the way they are subsumed by or subjected to the actions of the *state*, and this subjection is encoded in the linguistic choices in this text. The construal of *phrai* taps into ideological discourses in Thai of "the people" as uneducated and politically naïve. However, the coupling of *phrai* with *citizen* challenges the ideological import of this social actor. This is another example of deviation following van Leeuwen's (2008) social actor network because *phrai* are locked out of any participation in political life whereas citizens, ordinarily, are not. Thus, the merging of citizens with *phrai* represents citizens in a role that they are not normally associated with. This deviation represents the challenge that Pitch makes against the view that the phrai are politically agentless.

4 Conclusion

The data presented above on the representations of government, state, the military and the people, albeit necessarily brief, illustrate two contrasting positions on the 2006 coup in Thailand. The analysis of experiential meanings in the two texts offers an insight into the different patterns of representation of various social actors that convey the writers' opposing positions on the nature, the causes and the legitimacy or not of the coup. In addition, a close analysis of experiential meanings highlights strategies that the writers use to attribute responsibility or blame in a difficult and sensitive context.

References

Halliday, M. A. K. (1987). Language and the order of nature. In N. Fabb, D. Attridge, A. Durant, & C. MacCabe (Eds.), *The linguistics of writing: Arguments between language and literature* (pp. 135-154). Manchester: Manchester University Press.

Halliday, M. A. K., & Matthiessen, C. M. I. M. (2014). *Halliday's introduction to functional grammar* (4th ed.). London: Routledge.

Martin, J. R. (1992). *English text*: *System and structure*. Philadelphia: John Benjamins.

Pongsawat, P. (2007). "kaan rátthaprahăan 19 kanyaa 2549 khɯɯ kaan tham hây phonlamɯaŋ klaay pen phrây" [The 19 September 2549 coup turned citizens into subjects]. *Fáa Diaw Kan [Same Sky]*, Special Ed., 58-88.

Theeravit, K. (2006, 13 October). Sìt nay kaantham rátthaprahăan [The right to stage the coup]. *Thai World*. Retrieved from http://www.thaiworld.org/th/thailand_monitor/answer.php?_id=578

van Leeuwen, T. (2008). *Discourse and practice: New tools for critical discourse analysis*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Developing EFL Students' Descriptive Writing through Alternative Joint Construction

Dian Ekawati[1], Siti Nuraeni Muhtar[2], R. Nadia R.P. Dalimunthe[3], Nia Kurniawati[4]

Universitas Islam Negeri (UIN) Sunan Gunung Djati Bandung, Indonesia
Jl. A.H Nasution No. 105 Cipadung Bandung, West Java, Indonesia
[1]dian_ekawati@uinsgd.ac.id [2]siti.nuraeni@uinsgd.ac.id [3]rn.dalimunthe@uinsgd.ac.id
[4]niakurniawati29_ftk@uinsgd.ac.id

Abstract

This study attempts to explore how Alternative Joint Construction (AJC) can improve the fifth-semester-English-Education-Department students' academic descriptive writing in large Indonesian English as a Foreign Language (EFL) Classrooms with Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) and a Genre-Based Approach (GBA). AJC combines Derewianka's (1999) whole-class-model and Emilia's (2010) small-group-model of Joint Construction to be a Group-Class-Group-Class (GCGC) model that merges the advantages of those models. The implementations of traditional Joint Construction caused serious problems: teachers' difficulties in guiding, supervising, and providing feedback to the students' Joint Construction due to the big number of students. Therefore, previously identified issues with the students' descriptive writing—such as (1) the students' incohesive and incoherent flow of information exchange, (2) the red herring of a personal perspective, and (3) lexicogrammatical issues—were not optimally improved. The result of this case study shows that AJC eliminates various problems in the implementation of traditional Joint Construction. The students' writing also improved in some respects: (1) more cohesive and coherent text, (2) a less personal perspective, and (3) lexicogrammatical improvement in some parts of their writing. In sum, Joint Construction with the GCGC model is recommended for teaching academic descriptive writing in large EFL classrooms with similar characteristics to this Indonesian context.

1   Introduction

Genre-Based Approaches have been increasingly influential in English Language Teaching (Derewianka, 2003) particularly in teaching writing, as reflected by studies focusing on the effectiveness of the approach in teaching writing activities (e.g. Badger & White, 2000; Derewianka, 2003; Hyland, 2007; Khodabandeh, 2014). This study also highlights the use of SFL GBA to develop EFL students' writing of descriptive texts in an Indonesian context where the writing classes consist of a large number of students.

In implementing SFL GBA in teaching writing, there are four aspects to consider. The first is the text types: descriptive, recount, narrative, report, spoof, procedural, and so on (Feez & Joyce, 1998; Gerot & Wignel, 1995; Hyland, 2004). In this study, descriptive texts are selected to be the focus of research because of the urgency of learning descriptive texts for the first task in the IELTS writing test and in the 5th semester EFL writing syllabus. The second is that Systemic Functional Linguistics sees language as a social semiotic (Halliday, Hasan & Christie, 1989; see also Emilia, 2010), and is a 'theory of language in context' (Teich, as cited in Emilia, 2010): The way to learn how language works is by considering the way it is used in actual contexts, cultural and situational (Halliday et al., 1989; see also Emilia, 2010). The third is the basic principles of GBA: language learning is a social activity or process (Halliday et al., 1989), teachers provide explicit teaching and apprenticeship guidance (e.g. Emilia, 2010). GBA suggests that the teacher teaches language explicitly,

including text organization; and linguistic forms that characterize different genres (Feez & Joyce, 1998). This is to realize how social context can be brought into the language learning process. In addition, regarding teacher's role in GBA, the teacher-student relationship is one of apprenticeship where the teacher takes an authoritative role of expert on language (Emilia, 2010). The last is the SFL GBA model to be implemented. One such model is Rothery's (as cited in Hasan & Williams, 1996) that includes four stages: Building Knowledge of the Field (BKOF), Modelling, Joint Construction (JC), and Independent Construction (IC) (Emilia, 2016).

This study focuses on the activities in the joint construction stage, although the other stages are also conducted. This stage is chosen because of its importance in preparing the students to write independently (Emilia, 2016). While previous studies highlight the employment of traditional joint construction consisting of students-students or students-teacher writing activities (Emilia, 2016), this study proposes alternative joint construction in which students-students and students-teacher writing activities are combined as one procedure. This combination is believed to be able to improve EFL students' ability in writing descriptive texts in an Indonesian context with large classes. Large classes create 'issues and challenges in writing class' (Emilia, 2016), especially regarding providing effective feedback to the students, which is a popular 'method of interaction and communication between teacher and students' (Leng, 2014). Thus, the procedure in the joint construction stage is a focus of this study.

This study is a case study in terms of purpose and scope. The participants involved were 45 EFL students in the fifth semester of a State Islamic University in Indonesia. There were four stages employed to collect the data: Diagnostic test, Meeting I, Meeting II, and Meeting III. The diagnostic test was employed to identify the students' problems in writing Descriptive Texts (DT); Meeting I involved implementing traditional joint construction; Meeting II involved in-group joint construction; and Meeting III involved Group-Class-Group-Class (GCGC) Joint Construction. The data collection approaches used in these stages were observation and writing tests.

2 Results and Discussions

2.1 Data from Observation

This section elaborates the process of the SFL GBA stages employed in this study from Meeting I to Meeting III. In Meeting I, Derewianka's Whole Class Model (2003) was implemented in which the four stages of SFL GBA—divided into 11 detailed steps—were also employed. Steps 1-2 are Building Knowledge of the Field (BKOF) and Building Knowledge of the Text (BKOT) respectively (Emilia, 2016, p. 46). In BKOF, the students were asked to examine several charts regarding different issues, and to answer questions about (a) whether or not they had already read the charts and (b) what they knew about the topic. Meanwhile, in BKOT, the students were equipped with knowledge about kinds of chart, genre, theme, and rheme. Although Emilia (2016) insists that this step is intended to provide students with knowledge about the topics rather than with knowledge about the text, the combination of BKOF and BKOT seemed to be necessary for these students for two reasons. First, the topic presented is an everyday topic which is presented in a bar chart and relatively easy to understand. Second, the students in the research site

lacked knowledge about the genre and SFL concepts such as theme and rheme. These conditions made the combination necessary. This decision is in line with what Emilia (2016, p. 44) states, that the SFL GBA model allows for adaptation in the learning process and cycle based on students' needs.

Step 3 involves Modelling in which the students learn about descriptive texts using a prepared text, and analyze the generic structure and linguistic features of the text based on the theories that had already been explained in BKOT. While Emilia (2016, p. 62) still puts comprehension checks of the content of the text in Modelling, the research activities in this stage focused on 'building up students' understanding of the purpose, overall structure, and the linguistic features of the particular text type' (Gibbons, 2002: 61; see also Derewianka, 1990 cited in Nurviyani, 2013).

Steps 4-9 are Joint Construction that consists of drawing an idea map, writing an identification, and then a description, and providing teacher's feedback. Almost all the activities in this stage were done individually. In addition, the teacher's feedback was given to the whole class. The last stage is Independent Construction in which they wrote a different text individually as homework (Step 10).

In Meeting II, Emilia's Small Group Model (2016)—divided into 9 detailed steps—was employed. In this small group model, grouping was conducted at the beginning of the class (Step 1). Steps 2-4 belong to Building Knowledge of the Field (BKOF) and Building Knowledge of the Text (BKOT) in which the students' knowledge about (a) content of the bar chart discussing transportation system (Step 2), (b) genre of descriptive writing (Step 3), and (c) SFL theory of theme-rheme (Step 4) was built. Steps 5-7 belong to the Modelling Stage in which the students examined descriptive writing based on a bar chart (Stage 5-6). A review of the purpose, the generic structure, and linguistic features of descriptive texts was done before and after the students analyzed them in class discussion (Stage 5-7). This was to provide the students experience of using theories of the genre to analyze a text. In Stage 8-9 named Joint Construction, the students wrote a text together in a group of three (between students). They began with (a) sharing their understanding of the content of the bar chart, (b) outlining the idea map, (c) writing an identification and (d) writing a description. They worked together in small groups. Assessment of the students' progress was conducted by the teacher during the writing process. The teacher visited every group, and gave them advice and correction (Stage 9). In this stage, comprehensive scaffolding in Modelling did not feature strongly as Emilia (2016, p. 78) states 'when students actively participate in the writing process, comprehensive scaffolding in BKOF and Modelling may be reduced'. The participants were found to be involved more actively in this second meeting. Feedback was provided once in the group. The activities in this joint construction stage can be categorized as one complete process since they cover the steps that should be undertaken by the teacher and students; namely: researching the topic, pooling information, jointly constructing a text, and assessing the students' progress (Derewianka, 2003; Hasan & Williams, 1996; Nurviyani, 2013). The effectiveness of the teacher's feedback will be further explained in Section 2.2.

In Meeting III, named Alternative Joint Construction (AJC) with the Group-Class-Group-Class (GCGC) model, the steps were shorter than those in Meeting II, especially in Building Knowledge of the Field and Modelling. This is because re-explaining the materials such as theme-rheme to the students was considered unnecessary due to their understanding of the materials presented in previous

meetings. In this AJC, as in Meeting II, comprehensive scaffolding in Modelling did not feature strongly. This happened due to the students' familiarity with the concept of genre and SFL theme and rheme. In addition, in contrast to activities in Joint Construction in Meeting I and II, teacher's feedback was provided (a) two times—after writing group identification, and after analyzing theme and rheme in identification and description, and (b) in two modes—group feedback, and class feedback.

In terms of the process of equipping the students with writing skills, the activities in Alternative Joint Construction in Meeting III or the GCGC Model are considered more enriching and empowering for the students for three reasons. First, the students were involved in group and class activities at the same time. This exposed them to more comprehensive thinking processes: they read the text to understand, shared with group members to share their understanding, and confirmed their understanding with a teacher in class discussion. Second, the students were receiving more feedback from the teacher. Third, they were also involved in collective decision making in selecting idea maps. These three aspects in the Joint Construction stage provide alternative ways to conduct Joint Construction Stages to enrich and empower students and their writing skills.

2.2   Data from Students' Writing

This section elaborates on data taken from the students' individual writing in the diagnostic test before the implementation of traditional Joint Construction, the individual constructions after the implementation of traditional Joint Constructions, and the individual construction after the alternative Joint Construction.

A Diagnostic Test was given to the students before the teaching-learning process. In this test, the students were asked to write a report describing the information about 'Online Sales for Retail Sector in Jakarta,' illustrated by two pie charts. The students' texts were then assessed based on the scoring rubric postulated by Rose (in Emilia, 2016). This involved five aspects: genre (involving purpose and staging), register (involving field, tenor, and mode), discourse (involving phrases, lexis, conjunction, reference, and appraisal), grammar, and graphic features (spelling, punctuation, and presentation).

	Genre	Register	Discourse	Grammar	Graphic features
Students' average score in diagnostic test	0.875	1.13	1.35	2.05	2.45

Table 1: The Students' Average Score in the Diagnostic Test[14]

Table 1 shows the students' average score in each aspect. The students' texts are weak in the aspect of genre, register, discourse and grammar. This weakness subsequently caused three main writing issues: incohesive and incoherent flows of information exchange, the red herring of a personal perspective, and lexicogrammatical issues. The students failed to link their ideas and message cohesively and coherently. Their texts had unclear schematic structures or/and errors at discourse level. Forty-three students' texts did not have a main topic. Students started their text with excessive detail which did not summarize the overall

---

[14] The maximum score possible in each individual band (e.g. Genre, Register) was 3 in all three tasks reported in this paper. Each task had a different topic.

information in the pie chart. This absence also meant that some themes of following clauses provided new information, which contributed to making the texts less cohesive and coherent.

In addition, by inserting their opinions in the texts using the modals 'can' and 'must', mood adjuncts, and first-person pronouns, student texts took an unexpected personal, argumentative perspective. Thus, the purpose of descriptive writing was not achieved. Another issue was accuracy in lexicogrammar, including issues of subject-verb agreement, tense, plural-singular, passive-voice and clause construction.

After the implementation of traditional joint construction in Meeting I and II, many but not all of the students' writing problems were reduced. In general, the most improved aspects of the students' individual writing were genre and register. Other aspects, such as discourse, grammar, and graphic-features, did not show any improvement. Table 2 illustrates the average score of the students' individual writing on a second test after the implementation.

Two aspects of the students' writing improved. First, the students' texts had a clearer schematic structure, with identification and description. The identification introduced the topic by providing general information about the bar chart. The description, additionally, tried to be coherent with the identification. Second, the personal perspective also decreased. The use of English modals and first-person pronouns were reduced. These appeared in only four students' texts and they did not significantly impact the stance, but only made the texts less formal. The presence of the students' own opinion also declined. The students systematically outlined the information illustrated in the chart and did not include arguments in their texts. Unfortunately, themes with new information were still found, which caused the thematic progression to be less flowing. The most unimproved aspect was lexicogrammar. The lexicogrammatical issues, which were identified in the diagnostic test, were still present in all texts, including errors in subject-verb agreement, tense, plural-singular, passive-voice, and clause construction.

	Genre	Register	Discourse	Grammar	Graphic features
Students' average score in diagnostic test	0.875	1.13	1.35	2.05	2.45
Students' average score after traditional joint construction	3	2.11	1.35	1.3	2.45

Table 2: The Average Score of the Students' Writings in the Diagnostic Test and in the Individual Construction after the Traditional Joint Construction

After the implementation of the AJC with GCGC Model, the students' texts improved in some respects. This improvement is illustrated in Table 3. It shows the average score of the students' individual writing after the Alternative Joint Construction, compared to the average score of their previous writing. The most improved aspects of the students' individual writing were genre and register. Aspects of writing such as lexis, conjunction, and grammar also improved.

	Genre	Register	Discourse	Grammar	Graphic features
Students' average score in diagnostic test	0.875	1.13	1.35	2.05	2.45
Students' average score after traditional joint construction	3	2.11	1.35	1.3	2.45
Students' average score after alternative joint construction	3	2.48	1.6	2.175	2.16

Table 3: The Average Score of the Students' Writings in the Diagnostic Test, in the Individual Construction after the Traditional Joint Construction and after the Alternative Joint Construction

This improvement influenced the cohesion and coherence of the students' texts. Even though the texts became more complex, the students systematically outlined the information and compared the information. This progress did not interfere with cohesive and coherence ties. Their texts still had a clear schematic structure and smooth thematic progression. Additionally, the misleading clues were omitted. Students' personal arguments were absent from the texts. The use of English modals and mood adjuncts also declined. In only one student's text, the first-person pronoun 'we' appeared, but it did not significantly impact the stance. It only made the text less formal. Nonetheless, problems in sentence structure remained. Errors in subject-verb agreement, tenses, and passive-voice construction were still present in all students' texts, but the number of errors decreased.

3   Conclusions and Recommendations

This study has explored how the AJC process in the form of the GCGC model can improve students' descriptive writing using SFL GBA. It indicates that the students' writing improved to be (1) more cohesive and coherent, (2) to have a less personalised perspective, and (3) to have lexicogrammatical improvement in some areas of their writing. In sum, Alternative Joint Construction with the GCGC model is recommended for teaching academic descriptive writing in large EFL classrooms since it provides more opportunities for teacher feedback to students for writing improvement. Moreover, further research should be conducted to see whether AJC is able to improve student writing in other genres.

References

Badger, R. & White, G. (2000). A process genre approach to teaching writing. *ELT Journal*, *54*(2), 153–160. https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/54.2.153

Derewianka, B. (2003). Trends and Issues in Genre-Based Approaches. *RELC Journal*, *34*(2), 133–154. https://doi.org/10.1177/003368820303400202

Emilia, E. (2010). *Teaching writing (developing critical learners)*. Bandung: Rizqi Press.

Emilia, E. (2016). *Pendekatan berbasis teks (dalam pengajaran bahasa inggris)*. Bandung: Kiblat Buku Utama.

Feez, S. & Joyce, H. (1998). *Writing Skills: Narrative and Non-Fiction Text Types*. Phoenix Education.

Gerot, L. & Wignel, P. (1995). *Making sense of functional grammar*. Sydney: Gerd Stabler Antipodean Educational Enterprises (AEE).

Halliday, M. A. K., Hasan, R. & Christie, F. (1989). *Language, Context, and Text: Aspects of Language in a Social-Semiotic Perspective* (2nd edition). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Hasan, R. & Williams, G. (1996). *Literacy in Society*. Longman.

Hyland, K. (2004). *Genre and Second Language Writing*. University of Michigan Press.

Hyland, K. (2007). Genre pedagogy: Language, literacy and L2 writing instruction. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, *16*(3), 148–164. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2007.07.005

Khodabandeh, F. (2014). Argumentation Across L1 and L2: Examination of Three Instructional Treatments of Genre-based Approach to Teaching Writing. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *98*, 968–975. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2014.03.506

Leng, K. T. P. (2014). An Analysis of Written Feedback on ESL Students' Writing. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *123*, 389–397. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2014.01.1437

Nurviyani, V. (2013). The English teachers' understanding of genre-based approach, *1*.

The linguistic construction of critical 'self-reflection' in social work and business

Namala Tilakaratna and Eszter Szenes

Centre for English Language Communication, National University of Singapore and Academic
Enrichment, Learning Centre, The University of Sydney
elcnlt@nus.edu.sg
eszter.szenes@sydney.edu.au

Abstract

The use of *reflective* assignments such as critical reflection essays, learning journals and reflective journals is widespread in higher education. These tasks are used to uncover *critical thinking in action* and assess how students' *knowledge-in-waiting* transforms into *knowledge-in-practice* (Gulwadi, 2009). However, there is little consensus about how to teach and assess these types of assessment. This paper, as part of an ongoing study on knowledge practices of critical thinking (Szenes, Tilakaratna and Maton, 2015), reports on how successful students demonstrate the capacity to critically reflect on practice in a manner that is valued within their disciplinary contexts. Drawing on the APPRAISAL framework from Systemic Functional Linguistics we show, through analyses of high-scoring student assignments, that successful students draw on the resources of negative AFFECT and JUDGEMENT to target and manage their emotions and opinions to demonstrate critical self-reflection within reflective assignments. By making explicit the evaluative resources by which these students construct critical 'self-reflection' in reflective assignments, this study intends to contribute to demystifying the linguistic demands of demonstrating critical thinking in applied disciplines.

1 Introduction

Critical reflection refers to how people make 'judgements about whether professional activity is equitable, just and respectful of persons or not' by drawing on 'personal action' examined within wider socio-historical and politico-cultural contexts (Hatton & Smith, 1994, p. 35). It is often taught and assessed through the use of a wide variety of assignments, such as learning and reflective journals and reports, reflection papers, case studies, or narratives (Carson & Fischer, 2006; Fook & Gardner, 2013; Fook, White & Gardner, 2006; Ryan & Ryan, 2013). Despite the popularity of reflective assignments across a range of disciplines, there is little understanding of what constitutes evidence of critical reflection (O'Connell & Dyment, 2011). It is typically considered a 'creative' process with little structure (Crème, 2008; Fook & Gardner, 2007). As a result, critical reflection tasks are considered a particularly difficult assignment to teach and assess.

This paper, as part of an ongoing project on demystifying critical thinking in applied disciplines (Szenes, Tilakaratna and Maton, 2015), will uncover how high-achieving students demonstrate critical 'self-reflection' in social work and business reflective assignments. Due to space constraints, we only report on a selected high scoring assignment from each discipline. Specifically, we will show that high-achieving students have the capacity to make themselves both the sources as well as targets of evaluation so that their emotions and their behaviour function as the objects of study. This 'intrusion' of the personal must be transformed from negative affect into couplings of negative self-judgement in order to demonstrate a shift in ATTITUDE from emotions to opinions. Construing this shift through couplings is crucial in reflective writing for demonstrating the capacity for self-reflection, a skill considered

necessary for undergraduate students for future 'transformation' into professional practitioners in the fields of social work and business.

2   The theoretical framework for classifying evaluative language: Appraisal

In order to describe the evaluative resources that are used by successful students in writing reflective assignments, we draw on the discourse semantic system of APPRAISAL (Martin & White, 2005). From its three interacting domains, ATTITUDE, GRADUATION and ENGAGEMENT, we will only draw on ATTITUDE, which consists of emotions (AFFECT), judgments of behaviour (JUDGEMENT) and evaluation of things (APPRECIATION).

A further aspect of appraisal that we need to take into consideration is the fact that items of appraisal and their targets, triggers, emoters and appraisers can combine in ways that constitute 'any number of coordinated choices from system networks' (Martin, 2008, p. 39; Zhao, 2010). These combinations, termed "couplings", consist of 'the linking of at least two types of relations at one point' in an unfolding text (Zhao, 2010, p. 206). This paper will explore couplings of attitudinal meanings and their targets to understand what kinds of values are stabilised over the course of the unfolding reflective writing tasks.

3   Description of the data

3.1   The social work critical reflection essay

The assignment chosen for analysis here was taken from a published volume of exemplary student critical reflection essays in social work. Students were required to focus on 'their emerging identity as "new graduate social workers" about to enter the workplace' and were asked to '*select a critical incident* from their field education experience using Fook (2002, pp. 98-100)'. Drawing on a systemic-functional understanding of genre as a 'staged, goal oriented social process'(Martin & Rose, 2008, p. 6) and resources of theme, appraisal and transitivity and semantic gravity (see Szenes, Tilakaratna and Maton, 2015) five distinct stages were identified in the student's essay of which three are obligatory and described below:

(Introduction) ^ Critical Incident[15] ^ Excavation ^ Transformation ^ (Coda)

In the Critical Incident stage of the essay, the writer narrates a difficult experience encountered during her field placement when, as a young female apprentice social worker, she was subjected to verbal sexual harassment by a young male patient (Jared), attending a drug and alcohol rehabilitation program. In this stage the personal pronoun "I" frequently occupies the position of Theme, which functions to draw attention to the student social worker's personal experiences. This 'personal' orientation of this stage is reinforced by references to specific human participants and the use of material processes that serve to concretize the student's experiences as shown in the example below:

---

[15] Throughout this paper *Critical Incident* mention function label with initial letter capitalized will refer to the generic stage, while *critical incident* with small letters will be used to refer to the actual event the student social worker discusses in her assignment.

...I arrived at the unit at about lunchtime when the residential worker was starting to prepare lunch. He complained that the clients did not help with the preparation as they were supposed to...

In the Excavation stage that follows, the student contrasts her initial reaction – which was to report the incident and the resulting consequences for the male client – with a new understanding of the incident from a disciplinary perspective following her reflection. This shift from the 'concreteness' of the critical incident in the previous stage to its more 'abstracted' interpretation from the perspective of disciplinary knowledge is signaled by more abstract nominal groups in Thematic position, for example:

*As **I** approached one of the clients, **I** asked 'Jared, could you please give us a hand in the kitchen?'* → *In my incident **the emerging themes that I believe warrant further investigation** relate to professional practice, namely the issue of boundaries, gender and power.*

In the final Transformation stage, the student elaborates on what changes need to be made to *her* practice and subsequently how *she* has been 'transformed' through the process of critical reflection. The student uses high obligation modals along with mental processes and thematises herself and her profession in order to show a transformation in her personal practice, for example:

***I need to reconsider** my view of professionalism and **ascertain** my reasons for identifying as one.*

3.2   The business reflective journal

Our second text is a reflective journal assignment, which was designed to develop students' reflective practice and intercultural competence in the interdisciplinary unit *Business in the Global Environment*[16] at a large metropolitan Australian university. Students were required to critically reflect on their experience of multinational teamwork by examining their values, beliefs, assumptions and behaviours based on Solomon and Schell's (2009) model of intercultural competency (pp. 49-50).

Three distinct stages were identified in the highest scoring business reflective journal. They are as follows:

Excavation ^ Reflection ^ Transformation

In the Excavation stage of the journal, the writer identifies 'individualism' as a 'below the surface' value that underpinned his 'discounting' of teammates' opinions with regards to working on a group assignment in a multinational team. In the Reflection stage, the student concludes that it was opposing individualism with his international non-English speaking background peers' value of 'communitarianism' that resulted in his inappropriate and ignorant behaviour. In the final Transformation stage, the writer pledges that in future teamwork situations his behaviour will be

---

[16] In the old *Bachelor of Commerce* degree

guided by the newly acquired intercultural competence skills he gained by this reflective process.

4 The role of ATTITUDE in reflective writing

We now take a closer look at the stages of Critical Incident, Excavation and Reflection in the social work and business texts. We focus on similar couplings that were identified across the two assignments. In these stages, the students recount and then evaluate their personal experiences of the problematic incident that forms their object of study. These experiences are evaluated in relation to theoretical positions valued in the fields of social work and business.

4.1 Reactions in critical reflection

In the Critical Incident stage of the social work essay, the student primarily draws on resources of AFFECT to construe her feelings about the problematic incident. For instance, she uses subtypes of [insecurity: disquiet] to share feelings of anxiety that she has about the incident (underlined):

> The critical incident that **shook me up** and **challenged** me; I felt **uncomfortable** at being the centre of attention and specifically sexual attention).

Further choices of AFFECT used in this stage include negative surprise, targeting the client's reaction to her request (the attention **startled** me). This is followed by antipathy towards her objectification by the client (I **resented** being seen as an 'object'). As she moves from the Critical Incident to the Excavation stage, the student continues to construe emotions of [affect: disquiet] triggered by the critical incident (it *challenged* me).

As opposed to beginning their text with heightened emotion targeting the incident, as in the social work text, the writer of the business journal primarily focuses on evaluating his response to a problematic situation through references to valued theoretical concepts and notions of accepted practice. The student's emotional reaction in the business journal emerges only in the Reflection stage through the negative stereotyping of his Asian peers. While the Critical Incident stage of the social work critical reflection essay is saturated with emotions of unhappiness, antipathy and negative surprise, the business journal has only two instances of [affect: surprise][17] (analysing my behaviour… has led to some **astonishing** realisations; I was **surprised** by my long held belief that…) in macroTheme of the Reflection stage.

An overview of the resources of AFFECT deployed across the Critical Incident stage in social work and the Reflection stage in business shows a similar pattern students deploy for reflecting on the incident that forms the object of analysis in this task. Thus the first coupling found to have stabilised over the course of the Critical Incident in the social work essay and Reflection stage in the business journal, i.e. instances of [affect: surprise] or [disquiet] or [antipathy] are sourced to the student as the Emoter. In this coupling, the incident or problematic behaviour functions as the Trigger as shown in Figure 1 below:

| COUPLING 1 | student + critical incident/behaviour + negative reaction |
| | **Emoter** **Trigger** **Attitude: [– affect]** |

---

[17] The first instance is one of 'covert' affect where emotion is nominalised and grammatically realised as a type of appreciation (e.g. what is 'astonishing' is the 'realisations').

Figure 1: First stabilised coupling across two reflective assignments.

4.2 Judging behaviour in critical reflections

In addition to the coupling identified above, both texts have a further similar set of couplings emerging in the Excavation and Reflection stages where the students refer to their lack of experience or understanding, which makes them judge their own capacity as professionals. In the social work essay, these judgements are construed as feelings taking on the patterning of affect (I feel) but are also explicitly realised in the text as instances of inscribed judgement (**bold**) (e.g. I feel as though revealing my mistakes is a sign of **failure** – a verification of my **inadequacies** as a 'professional'; …irrespective of my **disapproval** of their behaviour). Significantly, these instances collectively target the students' behaviour towards their clients.

Similar instances of negative judgement targeting the student's behaviour (My *lack of* cultural knowledge; my **selfish** and **misguided** behaviour; [t]hrough my **discounting** behaviour) and negative judgement targeting the behaviour of others (the group members) is evident in the business critical reflection (I interpreted **the group's lack of direct communication** as a sign that allowed me to judge the other group members as **less academically gifted** than myself…).

In the Critical Incident and Reflection stages of the essays, both students are primarily focussed on confessing their lack of experience and understanding which results in their judgement of the client's or team members' behaviour in a professional situation. Here we have two further couplings developing in the Excavation stage of the social work essay and the Reflection stage of the business essay. The first includes the student as professional and their behaviour as the target of negative [judgement: capacity]; the second is the student as the source of negative [judgement: propriety] towards the client or other team members. These instances are shown in Figures 2 and 3 below:

COUPLING 2	student + student's own behaviour + self-criticism
	Appraiser **Target** **Attitude:** **[–judgement: capacity]**

Figure 2: Second stabilised coupling across two reflective assignments.

COUPLING 3	student + the client/other students + self-criticism
	Appraiser **Target** **Attitude:** **[–judgement: propriety]**

Figure 3: Third stabilised coupling across two reflective assignments.

5 Conclusion

This paper has shown how high-achieving students demonstrate critical reflection through the coupling of ideational and attitudinal resources across the stages of two reflective writing tasks. Our analysis revealed that critical reflection assignments across different academic disciplines such as social work and business can have a number of commonalities that stabilise over the course of the unfolding reflective tasks. Focussing on the resources of AFFECT for enacting emotion and JUDGEMENT for enacting opinion in particular, the analysis of two high-scoring student assessments showed that students use different types of evaluative language in different stages of the assessment in order to achieve the following specific purposes: sharing emotional reactions to the critical incident or behaviour that forms the focus of their reflective

tasks and then moving onto opinions which target the students' *own behaviour* as the object of study. Our study presents a preliminary analysis of the kinds of evaluative language that are valued in reflective writing tasks. Further research is required to determine the extent to which the resources of emotional reactions and self-judgment predominate in these tasks so that students can be made aware of the critical role of evaluative resources that need to be enacted for demonstrating mastery of the process of critical reflection.

References

Brookfield, S. (1998). Critically reflective practice. *The Journal of Continuing Education in Health Professions, 18*, 197-205.

Crème, P. (2008). A space for academic play: Student learning journals as transitional writing. *Art and Humanities in Higher Education*, *7*(1), 49-64.

Carson, L. & Fischer, K. (2006). Raising the bar on criticality: Student's critical reflection in an internship program. *Journal of Management Education*, *30*(5), 700-723.

Fook, J. (2002). *Critical deconstruction and reconstruction*. London: Sage.

Fook, J. & Gardner, F. (2007). *Practising critical reflection: A resource handbook*. New York: Open University Press.

Fook, J., White, S. A. & Gardner, F. (2006). Critical reflection: A review of contemporary literature and understandings. In S. White, J. Fook & F. Gardner (Eds.), *Critical reflection in health and social care*. London: Open University Press.

Gulwadi, G. B. (2009). Using reflective journals in a sustainable design studio. *International Journal of Sustainability in Higher Education*, *10*(1), 43-55.

Hatton, N. & Smith, D. (1995). Reflection in teacher education: Towards definition and implementation. *Teaching & Teacher Education*, *11*(1), 33-49.

Hood, S. (2010). *Appraising research: Evaluation in academic writing*. London: Palgrave Macmillan.

Knight, N. (2010). Wrinkling complexity: Concepts of identity and affiliation in humour. In M. Bednarek & J. R. Martin (Eds.), *New discourse on language: Functional perspectives on multimodality, identity and affiliation.* (pp. 35-58). London: Continuum.

Martin (2008). Tenderness: Realisation and instantiation in a Botswanan town. In N. Norgaard (Ed.), *Systemic functional linguistics in use: Odense working papers in language and communication*, *29*, 30-62.

Martin, J. R. & Rose, D. (2008). *Genre relations: Mapping culture*. London: Equinox Publishers.

Martin, J. R. & White, P. R. R. (2005). *The language of evaluation: Appraisal in English*. New York, NY: Palgrave Macmillan.

Mezirow, J. (1991). *Transformative dimensions of adult learning*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

O'Connell, T. S. & Dyment, J. E. (2011). The case of reflective journal writing: Is the jury still out? *Reflective Practice: International and Multidisciplinary Perspectives, 12*(1), 47-59.

Ryan, M. & Ryan, M. (2013). Theorising a model for teaching and assessing reflective learning in higher education. *Higher Education Research & Development*, *32*(2), 244-257.

Szenes, E., Tilakaratna, N. & Maton, K. (2015). The knowledge practices of critical thinking. In M. Davies, & R. Barnett (Eds.), The Palgrave handbook of critical thinking in higher education (pp. 573-591). New York: Palgrave Macmillan.

Solomon, C. M. & Schell, M. S. (2009). *Managing across cultures – the seven keys to doing business with a global mindset*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Zhao, S. (2010). Intersemiotic relations as logogenetic patterns: Towards the restoration of the time dimension in hypertext description. In M. Bednarek & J. R. Martin (Eds.), *New discourse on language: Functional perspectives on multimodality, identity and affiliation* (pp. 195-219). London: Continuum.

Using SFL to Personalise Learning in Early Childhood Classrooms

Dr Damon Thomas

University of Tasmania, Australia
Locked Bag 1307, Launceston, Tasmania, 7250
Damon.P.Thomas@utas.edu.au

Abstract

Personalised learning is a form of instruction that tailors teaching to individual student needs. As the educational possibilities of this approach receive growing attention internationally, this begs the question of what systemic functional linguistics (SFL) might offer in personalising learning so students view language as something that empowers them to deal with real issues. This paper reports on a case study that sought to personalise learning about narrative and persuasive writing in two early childhood classrooms in a low SES school in Tasmania. Using a design-based research approach, the case study investigated whether aspects of genre pedagogy could be taught in ways that are compatible with principles of personalised learning, finding that student control over particular text features was strengthened when teachers designed learning experiences that were perceived by children as meaningful.

1 Introduction

Personalised learning is an approach used by teachers to improve student learning through meaningful classroom experiences. It has been described, for example by Prain et al. (2015), as a route to a more socially inclusive education system that engages students as they perceive learning experiences as meaningfully aligned with their learning needs. Key features of personalised learning described in the literature (Duckworth et al., 2009; Hargreaves, 2005; Leadbetter, 2005; Sebba et al., 2007) include: stage-based student groupings; student goal setting; student choice around what and how they study; the co-design of learning experiences; reasoning about topics; and the provision of meaningful learning experiences.

Certain aspects of learning have been found to be difficult to personalise when working with children (Mahony & Hextell, 2009; Meyer et al., 2008). Reasonable concern has been raised about the extent to which children can choose what, how, when, where, and with whom they should learn. As such, two age-appropriate features of personalised learning were pursued in this study: the provision of meaningful learning opportunities; and enhanced meaning-making through claims about language choices.

1.1 Meaningful learning opportunities

From a socio-cultural perspective, meaningful learning is achieved when learners successfully participate in culturally valued activities that incorporate students' personal and social experience (Moje, 2007; Sfard, 1998). In English education, this might involve going beyond the development of knowledge of curriculum content, to providing authentic opportunities for learners to participate in the broader usefulness of literacy beyond the classroom. When students are positioned to understand why it

is useful to learn about English, and to experience the power of language to shape the thoughts and actions of others (Martin, 1989), it is more likely that they will perceive learning in English as personally meaningful and engaging.

1.2 Enhanced meaning-making through claims and choices

Student understandings of topics can be personalised when they are positioned to make and justify claims in their learning. As found in science education contexts, a focus on collaborative consultation between teachers and students can encourage collective meaning-making around claims, warrants and evidence, where the teacher guides, and students engage in reasoning (Kuhn, 2015; Tytler et al., 2013). Similar meaning-making potential can be achieved in English when students and teachers share detailed knowledge of available language choices and how these can be leveraged to achieve the purposes of various genres. When students can engage in decision-making about how to use language for different purposes, writing in English becomes more personalised and meaningful for learners.

1.3 How personalised learning relates to SFL

This section proposes connections between the features of personalised learning and SFL. As a social semiotic theory, SFL provides systematic descriptions of how language works in different contexts (Halliday, 1994). In the Australian context, SFL has been influential in the development of the *Australian Curriculum: English* (AC:E), which requires students to develop knowledge of how language can achieve various purposes cumulatively across the years (Derewianka, 2012). In this way, Australian educators are positioned by the AC:E to teach not only the *what* but also the *why* of English, as students come to perceive and use language as a tool to meaningfully *get things done*. Within the broader structures of SFL, genre is an important concept in achieving this. Genres, as described by Rose (2011), are 'staged, goal oriented social processes' (p. 209). A wide range of school-based genres have been developed by educational linguists, including story, persuasive, and informative genres, and the systematic teaching of genres has been termed *genre pedagogy* (Derewianka, 2012; Rothery, 1994). In the Foundation year (Prep), students learn about simple story and informative texts, while persuasive texts are introduced in Year 1 (ACARA, 2011). From these early experiences, teachers and students are led to focus on the various purposes of genres, and thus to consider how texts can be personally meaningful and useful in school settings and the wider community.

Writing cannot be personally meaningful without some description of language variety and metafunctions. There is clear need for a social semiotic theory of language like SFL, and an approach to teach language like genre pedagogy, to guide this learning, as without them, teachers and students lack detailed accounts of the choices available for unpacking and creating texts (Derewianka, 2012). Yet simply knowing such choices will not likely engage children if they are asked to write for their teachers and standardised tests only. As such, personalising learning with opportunities to experience the power of language is also important.

Furthermore, it would be challenging to empower children to reason about their writing choices without a shared understanding of text features. A key aspect of genre pedagogy is the development of *metalanguage* (i.e., a language for talking about text purpose and structure, and language features and functions) to unpack and explain how expert authors make choices in writing (Rothery, 1994). Developing a metalanguage shared by teachers and students democratises classrooms (Rose, 2004),

as learners can approach texts from the same starting point. Developing this metalanguage provides a platform for teacher and student reasoning about writing choices, and as such, SFL can usefully contribute to personalising learning in English, as students generate personal accounts for the ways texts meet social purposes.

2 Method

To investigate whether pedagogies derived from SFL and personalised learning might be integrated to develop children's writing skills more meaningfully, this study employed a design-based research (DBR) approach. DBR is an approach that defines a pedagogical outcome, and then focuses on how to create a learning environment that supports the outcome (Kennedy-Clark, 2013). The features of quality DBR studies, as described by Anderson and Shattuck (2012), include: being situated in real educational settings; focusing on the design and testing of a significant intervention; using mixed methods; implementing multiple cycles; involving a collaborative partnership between researchers and practitioners; evolving design principles; and having a practical impact on practice. This study was designed with each feature in mind. Following Brown (1992), the study's intervention was a collaboration between the researcher and teacher practitioners. The study took place in two Year 1/2 classrooms in a low SES school in Launceston, Tasmania. The researcher built relationships with the teachers and students throughout 2016, and a teaching intervention was carried out during Term 4 of the school year. Before the intervention, student work samples were assessed, finding that students in both classes struggled with many aspects of writing. While some wrote reasonably well, they were unable to effectively explain how they achieved success. In addition, the classroom teachers expressed a personal lack of knowledge about language and how to teach it.

2.1 First cycle: Teaching and learning narratives

Drawing on literature around effective writing instruction (e.g., Humphrey & Feez, 2016), the researcher designed a unit of four lessons on narrative writing, with input from the teachers. The key narrative features to be taught included the *generic staging* (i.e., orientation, complication, resolution), the notion of *complicating* the complication events by introducing multiple problems to the story, and character *reactions* to these complicating events. To introduce the topic and gather baseline data, both teachers selected picture books to read to their classes. One teacher chose *Grug,* by Ted Prior, and the other teacher chose *Click, Clack, Moo,* by Doreen Cronin. The teachers asked the children to write new narratives set in the same worlds and with the same characters. No scaffolding was provided, so students relied on prior knowledge to complete the task. The narratives were analysed for their use of the focus features to determine student abilities before the intervention. The results showed that 21 of the 30 students did not follow the generic narrative structure when writing their text, 24 did not include complicating complications, and 17 did not include character reactions in their texts.

The intervention took place over four Friday morning lessons, with the researcher and teachers co-teaching knowledge about the narrative features. Each week, students rewrote their initial narratives based on their new knowledge, and the unit concluded with students rewriting their initial narratives. The analysis of revised narratives revealed the following findings:

Class	Narrative structure				Complicating complication events				Reactions to the events			
	1st version		2nd version		1st version		2nd version		1st version		2nd version	
	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes
Belle's class (13)	10	3	4	9	10	3	3	10	9	4	2	11
Jenny's class (17)	11	6	5	12	14	3	7	10	8	9	4	13

Table 1: Student use of narrative features in two versions of their texts.

The analysis indicated that across the unit, improvements were made in how most students included the valued narrative features in their writing. Assisting with this was the development of a metalanguage shared by teachers and students to allow them to reason about writing choices. In an interview that followed the unit, the two teachers were asked about developing this metalanguage with the students:

> *Jenny: I think that the power of that shared language is something that at our school in the past we've probably done better in reading than writing. But to be able to say, here are three adults who I'm working with and they're all using the same words when they're talking about my writing. I think for our kids it just makes it a lot easier for them to understand what the expectations are.*

The teachers were asked whether they believed any aspect(s) of the narrative unit worked effectively and why. One teacher responded:

> *Belle: I think what really made those narratives better was complicating the complication. I think a lot of kids would write, I tripped over, and that was it, the complication was always so minute that I personally have never unpacked it enough to say, you know, a complication needs to be something deep. And so teaching the way you did with us was, let's complicate that small problem, and this worked for them because then it can become quite dramatic, and I don't think I had done that enough.*

In these reflections, the teacher focused on the importance of compelling complications, reflecting what Derewianka and Jones (2016) described as the central tension that holds reader attention. When asked to share more about this, the teacher commented:

> *Belle: I hadn't pushed them, or had the language to unpack that with them, and go, wow, we've just made tripping over sound pretty good, and I still want to keep reading! This is instead of a three line story: I tripped over, I got up, Mum put a Band-Aid on, it was all fixed, the end. And in a way, I used to think, yep, well that's what I asked for.*

Here, the teacher expressed how developing this metalanguage allowed her to push her students to more effectively achieve the purpose of the genre. Yet to ascertain whether the students could use this metalanguage to reason about their choices, six students whose writing showed improvement were interviewed. When asked to define narratives, one child responded:

> *Tom: Narratives are a kind of story where you have to use an orientation, a complicated complication, and a resolution, which is also known as the conclusion.*

The students were asked which version they thought was more entertaining, and all six pointed to the second versions. When asked how the versions differed, two children replied:

> *Ben: Mine are different because I added a more complicated complication.*

> *Lara: Reactions are also important because then people know how they [the characters] are feeling. This helps it to make sense.*

When asked why they thought it was useful to follow the generic structure of narratives, one student said:

> **Jack**: *Because if you don't have the orientation, the complication or the resolution, then who are the people, where are they, is there a problem, and how are they going to fix it? So we need them.*

This suggests the students could use the metalanguage to reason about their narrative choices. While they drew on the same metalanguage, they had diverse ways of communicating choices, leading to personalised understandings of the topic.

Yet despite improvements in most texts, and student capacity to reason with metalanguage, the teacher interview suggested an issue relating to their initial choices of picture books.

> **Belle**: *I don't think I put enough effort into choosing the narrative focus. We'd been doing Grug, and so I pulled it out because we were rushed to start it at the end of the term, so I don't think the kids in my room were at all motivated. I think they would have done better if I had a better starting point.*

> **Jenny**: *And I agree, because I probably wouldn't have used Click, Clack, Moo for this, but it was all of a sudden time to start and I needed a piece of work to use, so we did use it for that.*

These text choices not only negatively impacted upon student engagement in the lessons, as one teacher explained:

> **Belle**: *In hindsight, even I wasn't motivated. I didn't want to hear those stories. They were sort of old school, and I was already pulling my hair out that I'd used Grug, which is the most boring book that I never got into as a kid, and then I was in this situation of having to embark on the journey.*

Despite improvements in writing, the students and teachers did not appear to view this learning as meaningful. The design of the unit intensified the issue, as students repetitively rewrote the same *boring* narratives with a new focus each week. In keeping with the DBR approach, these findings informed the design of the second cycle on persuasive writing.

2.2 Second cycle: Teaching and learning persuasive texts

Persuasive writing was taught over four Friday morning lessons. Prior to the first lesson, students were asked to write a persuasive text without support on whether children should be allowed to eat lollies every day. Informed by Humphrey, Sharpe and Cullen (2015), the key persuasive features in this Year 1/2 unit included the generic staging of hortatory expositions (i.e., appeal, arguments, reinforcement of appeal), PEE phases within argument paragraphs (i.e., point, explain, example), and feeling words (i.e., evaluative language). The initial persuasive texts were analysed for their use of these resources, revealing that 31 of the 33 children who completed the task did not follow the structure of expositions, 20 did not include PEE phases in argument paragraphs, and 30 did not use feeling words in their texts.

For the persuasive writing intervention, students had an opportunity to argue about a topic in which many had expressed a personal interest: what they were required to do for daily PE each morning. Students were informed that their final texts would be shared with the principal, and could influence the daily PE program for 2017. Also, rather than asking students to rewrite the same text with a new focus each week, they wrote the texts gradually over four weeks as new concepts were introduced. Concluding the unit, students wrote persuasive texts to the principal. These texts were analysed and compared with the initial texts, as follows:

Class	Exposition structure				Point, explain, example				Feeling words			
	1st version		2nd version		1st version		2nd version		1st version		2nd version	
	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes
Belle's class (14)	12	2	2	12	7	7	0	14	12	2	1	13
Jenny's class (19)	19	0	4	15	13	6	12	7	18	1	2	17

Table 2: Student use of persuasive writing features in two versions of their texts.

As with the narrative unit, there were clear gains in terms of student use of valued persuasive features. In the interview, teachers were asked whether they thought the second unit was more meaningful and successful than the first.

> *Jenny: By breaking it down into manageable parts, the students could write enough because we weren't expecting them to write a full persuasive text today. It was, today we'll work on this bit, we'll work on this bit next time, so it was those bite sized pieces that made it achievable for most children.*

> *Belle: I think that because it was something that they could relate to, that they did every day, that they could actually truly take on a point of view, that this was a much richer learning experience.*

These responses suggest student engagement in learning increased when they could build a text gradually over consecutive lessons. Moreover, the opportunity to persuade their principal on an issue they found meaningful motivated students to learn and write in the second unit. Significantly, these findings challenge the disproportionate emphasis on NAPLAN-like writing tasks in schools (Dulfer, Polesel & Rice, 2012), as these tasks focus on *how* students write, rather than emphasising writing as a meaningful practice that can influence others.

3 Conclusion

Personalising writing instruction to make it more meaningful for students was made possible by applying language descriptions drawn from SFL. SFL provided descriptions of the focus genres, allowing students and teachers to develop a metalanguage that could be used to reason about text features. This knowledge led to writing improvements for most learners. While children can improve work without authentic opportunity to write, and without investing in the experience, the personalised learning literature suggests this is not as effective in the long term (Prain et al., 2015). Nevertheless, for SFL to achieve its great potential in reducing educational inequality (Rose, 2004), children's writing must genuinely realise the purpose of the genre. This requires teachers to consider reasons why children might need to write, and provide opportunities for them to do so. Otherwise, SFL-informed writing instruction is likely to become as meaningless to learners as the decontextualized grammar tasks of school curricula in the 1960s-1970s (Derewianka, 2012). This study used a DBR approach to advance modestly theory around meaningful writing instruction. Further research is required to investigate how other aspects of learning can be personalised in early learning settings, and to examine how SFL might personalise learning in upper primary, secondary and tertiary contexts.

References

Australian Curriculum, Assessment and Reporting Authority. (2011). *Australian Curriculum: English*. Retrieved from http://www.australiancurriculum.edu.au/english/curriculum/f-10?layout=1

Anderson, T. & Shattuck, J. (2012). Design-based research: A decade of progress in educational research? *Educational Researcher, 41*(1), 16-25.

Brown, A. (1992). Design experiments: Theoretical and methodological challenges in creating complex interventions in classroom settings. *Journal of the Learning Sciences, 2*(2), 141-178.

Derewianka, B. M. (2012). Knowledge about language in the Australian Curriculum: English. *Australian*

Journal of Language and Literacy, 35(2), 127-146.

Derewianka, B. M. & Jones, P. (2016). *Teaching language in context* (2nd ed.). South Melbourne, Victoria: Oxford University Press.

Duckworth, K., Akerman, R., MacGregor, A., Salter, E. & Vorhaus, J. (2009). *Self regulated learning: A literature review.* London, Centre for Research on the Wider Benefits of Learning.

Dulfer, N., Polesel, J. & Rice, S. (2012). *The experience of education: The impacts of high stakes testing on school students and their families*. Penrith, NSW: The Whitlam Institute.

Halliday, M. A. K. (1994). *An introduction to functional grammar* (2nd ed.). London: Edward Arnold.

Hargreaves, D. (2005). *Personalising learning: Curriculum advice.* London: Specialist Schools Trust.

Humphrey, S. & Feez, S. (2016). Direct instruction fit for purpose: Applying a metalinguistic toolkit to enhance creative writing in the early secondary years. *Australian Journal of Language and Literacy, 39*(3), 207-219.

Humphrey, S., Sharpe, T. & Cullen, T. (2015). Peeling the PEEL: Integrating language and literacy in the middle years. *Literacy Learning: The Middle Years, 23*(2), 53-62.

Kennedy-Clark, S. (2013). Research by design: Design-based research and the higher degree research student. *Journal of Learning Design, 6*(2), 26-32.

Kuhn, D. (2015). Thinking together and alone. *Educational Researcher, 44*(1), 46-53.

Leadbetter, C. (2005). *The shape of things to come: Personalised learning through collaboration*. London: DfES.

Mahony, P. & Hextell, I. (2009, September). *Building schools for the future and the implications for becoming a teacher*. Paper presented at the European Conference on Educational Research, Vienna.

Martin, J. R. (1989). *Factual writing: Exploring and challenging social reality* (2nd ed.). Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.

McLoughlin, C. & Lee, M. (2010). Personalised and self-regulated learning in the Web 2.0 era. *Australasian Journal of Educational Technology, 26*(1), 28-43.

Meyer, B., Haywood, N., Sachdev, D. & Faraday, S. (2008). *Independent learning: Literature review.* London: Department for Children, Schools, and Families.

Moje, E. B. (2007). Developing socially just subject-matter instruction: A review of the literature on disciplinary literacy. In N. L. Parker (Ed.), *Review of research in education* (pp. 1-44). Washington, DC: American Educational Research Association.

Prain, V., Cox, P., Deed, C., Edwards, D., Farrelly, C., Keeffe, M., Lovejoy, V., Mow, L., Sellings, P. & Waldrip, B. (2015). *Personalising learning in open-plan schools*. Rotterdam: Sense Publishers.

Rose, D. (2004). Sequencing and pacing of the hidden curriculum: How Indigenous learners are left out of the chain. In J. Muller, A. Morais & B. Davies (Eds.), *Reading Bernstein, researching Bernstein* (pp. 91-107). London, UK: Routledge Falmer.

Rose, D. (2011). Genre in the Sydney School. In J. P. Gee & M. Handford (Eds.), *The Routledge handbook of discourse analysis* (pp. 209-225). London: Routledge.

Rothery, J. (1994) *Exploring literacy in school English, write it right: Resources for literacy and learning.* Sydney, NSW: Metropolitan East Disadvantaged Schools Program.

Sebba, J., Brown, N., Steward, S., Galton, M., James, M., Celetano, N. & Doddy, P. (2007). *An investigation of personalised learning approaches used by schools.* Research Report RR843. Annesley, NG: DfES.

Sfard, A. (1998). On two metaphors for learning and the dangers of choosing just one. *Educational Researcher, 27*(2), 4-12.

Tytler, R., Prain, V., Hubber, P. & Waldrip, B. (2013). *Constructing representations to learn in science.* Rotterdam: Sense Publishers.

Examining interpersonal metaphor of modality in successful primary persuasive texts

Dr Vinh To and Dr Damon Thomas

University of Tasmania
Locked Bag 1307, Launceston TAS 7250, Australia
Vinh.To@utas.edu.au
Damon.P.Thomas@utas.edu.au

Abstract

Lexical metaphor is a familiar aspect of persuasive writing instruction in Australian primary schools. Another form of metaphor known as *grammatical metaphor* is far less commonly taught in school contexts, despite considerable research that describes it is a key feature of more advanced academic texts. This short paper adopted analytical frameworks from systemic functional linguistics (SFL) to investigate how one type of grammatical metaphor—known as *interpersonal metaphor of modality*—was used by Tasmanian primary school students who wrote the 16 highest scoring persuasive texts for the 2011 *National Assessment Program – Literacy and Numeracy* (NAPLAN) standardised writing test. The findings highlight how the high scoring primary school students used various types of interpersonal metaphor of modality to persuade readers, with particular differences across the Year 3 and Year 5 cohorts. The paper suggests that if primary school teachers teach their students about grammatical metaphor alongside lexical metaphor, this may assist young writers to better understand valued persuasive language features, and to make use of them in their writing.

1   Introduction and Theoretical Foundation

When persuasive language is used effectively in spoken and written texts, this increases the communicator's ability to participate and access power in democratic societies (Martin, 1989). Persuasive writing instruction has been a focus of recent school curriculum reform in the United States, United Kingdom, and Australia. In Australia, persuasive writing is one of two focus text types in the annual NAPLAN writing test. The writing test was introduced in Australia in 2008 with a focus on narratives. In 2011, the focus shifted from narratives to persuasive texts, leading Australian primary and secondary teachers to dedicate considerable time and effort to the enhancement of student persuasive writing skills (Australian Curriculum, Assessment and Reporting Authority [ACARA], 2015; Dulfer, Polesel, & Rice, 2012). Despite this, many students struggle to write persuasively. For instance, in 2015, 20.3% of Tasmanian Year 9 students failed to meet the national minimum standard for persuasive writing, compared with a national average of 17.7% (ACARA, 2015). As successful persuasive writing is vital for success in school, academic and professional settings (Hood, 2010; Iedema, 2000, Schleppegrell, 2013), it is crucial that it is carefully scaffolded across the school years. This involves a focus on evaluative language choices, including the use of metaphor of modality.

In the *Australian Curriculum: English* [AC:E] and school curricula throughout the world, metaphor, a common linguistic term, is presented as a rhetorical or figurative device that can be used for a range of purposes by developing *layers of meaning* in texts (ACARA, 2017). As a rhetorical device, metaphor can be traced back to the rise of classical rhetoric in Ancient Greece, where it involved 'a novel or poetic linguistic expression where one or more words for a concept are used outside of their normal conventional meaning to express a similar concept' (Lakoff, 1993, p.

202). This form of metaphor has a variety of names in different contexts, such as traditional metaphor, literary metaphor, and poetic metaphor, but from the SFL perspective, it is referred to as *lexical metaphor* (Halliday, 1985). By definition, lexical metaphor involves a variation in the meaning of a given expression. For example, the word *life* in the clause "Water is life" does not mean the state of being alive, but rather is *vital*.

While lexical metaphor is traditionally and widely used in schools for rhetorical and literary purposes, the notion of grammatical metaphor is considerably less familiar to school students and teachers. Grammatical metaphor involves a variation in how a meaning is expressed (e.g., instead of saying *John submitted his assignment late*, this can be constructed as *John's late assignment submission*, where the meaning of the clause *(John) submitted his assignment late* is encoded as a nominal group *John's late assignment submission*). Halliday (1994) outlined two main types of grammatical metaphor, including ideational metaphor and interpersonal metaphor. Ideational metaphor is divided into two sub-types: experiential metaphor and logical metaphor (Martin, 1992). Experiential metaphor is realised by construing processes as things (e.g., *explode-explosion*) or qualities as things (e.g., *free-freedom*). Logical metaphor is realised by construing causal relationship by a verb (e.g., *cause*) instead of a conjunction (i.e., *because*) (Martin, 1992). Interpersonal metaphor expresses the interpersonal relationships between the speaker/writer and the listener/reader. Interpersonal metaphor consists of metaphor of mood and metaphor of modality (Halliday, 1994). Interpersonal metaphor of modality is a concept deserving attention, as Taverniers (2003) explained that:

> Modal meanings are congruently realized in modal elements in the clause (i.e., modal operators, modal adjuncts or mood adjuncts), interpersonal metaphors are defined by Halliday as expressing modal meanings outside the clause. In this way, metaphors of modality are explicit realizations of modal meanings. Speakers can express their opinions in separate clauses in various ways. (p.10)

This means that a modal meaning—or a degree of certainty—is conveyed through modal items that occur within the clause which is being modally evaluated (Halliday, 1985; Halliday, 1994). For example, to express a high likelihood of something being true, it is possible to say:

> 1. This must be true.
> 2. This is definitely true.
> 3. It is certain that this is true
> 4. I am convinced that this is true. (Lock, 1996, p. 193)

In these examples, the first two involve one clause each, while the third and fourth involve two clauses each. Congruently, modal meanings are expressed by forms such as modality verbs (e.g., *may, might, must*) or modality adverbs (e.g., *possibly, probably*) as seen in Clauses 1 and 2. The first two use modal items *inside* the clause to increase the degree of certainty that this is true (i.e., *must* and *definitely*), so they are not metaphors of modality. Yet the third and fourth examples express modal meaning *outside* the clause (i.e., *It is certain that* and *I am convinced that*). These are considered examples of interpersonal metaphors of modality because what we are negotiating is whether 'this is true', not whether the speaker is convinced.

> *I am convinced that this is true, isn't it?*

> **Not**   *I am convinced that this is true, aren't I?*

Within the scope of this paper, we focused on how interpersonal metaphor of modality was used in high scoring expositions written by Tasmanian Year 3 and 5 students for the 2011 NAPLAN writing test, as various modal forms and meanings are introduced in the *AC:E* from Year 3. It is hoped that understanding more about high scoring students' use of interpersonal metaphors of modality in one context will be of interest to educators who prepare students for the NAPLAN writing test each year.

2   Data and Method of Study

Permission for obtaining the 60 highest scoring persuasive texts across year levels in 2011 was sought with the Tasmanian Department of Education. For the purpose of this paper, 16 expositions (i.e., eight texts per year level) were selected to investigate the use of interpersonal metaphor of modality in high scoring Year 3 and Year 5 texts. These texts were written at the same time, on the same topic. Due to privacy issues, it was a requirement of the Department of Education that only 10% of any one text could be published at a given time. While the full transcripts can therefore not be included in this paper, extracts from the high scoring texts have been provided to highlight the use of interpersonal metaphor.

The analytical model of interpersonal metaphor of modality is based on the classification of types, values and orientation of modality explained by Halliday and Matthiessen (2004) as seen in Table 1 and Figure 1 respectively as follows. However, it is important to note that only modal meaning expressed outside a clause will be identified as a metaphor of modality.

	Probability	Usuality	Obligation	Inclination
High modality	certain	always	required	determined
Medium modality	probable	usually	supposed	keen
Low modality	possible	sometimes	allowed	willing

Table 1: Types and values of metaphors of modality (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p. 620).
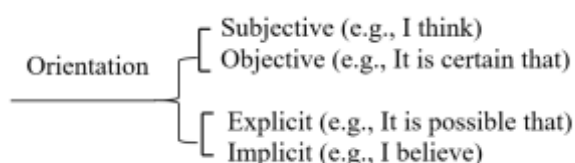

Figure 1: System of types of orientation in modality (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p. 619).

3   Findings and Discussion

3.1 Instances of Metaphor of Modality in High Scoring Texts

The study investigated interpersonal metaphors in high scoring NAPLAN texts, focusing on their uses of metaphors of modality. First, the instances of metaphor of modality in the texts were calculated.
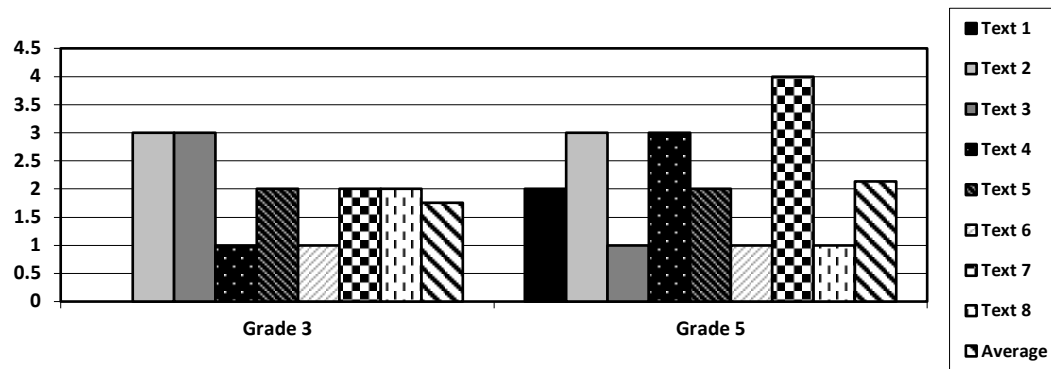
Figure 2: Instances of metaphor of modality in the high scoring Year 3 and Year 5 texts.

As shown in Figure 2, the results indicate that high scoring Year 5 texts had an average number of 2.13 instances of metaphor of modality per text, compared to an average of 1.75 instances in Year 3 texts. Of the eight Year 3 texts, two featured at least one instance of metaphor of modality, and five featured this language resource at least twice. By comparison, all eight Year 5 texts featured metaphor of modality at least once, with five students using it twice or more in their writing. On average, the number of instances of metaphor of modality increased across the primary years levels as shown in Figure 2.

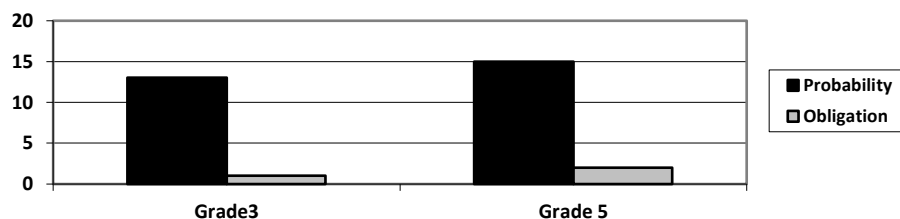## 3.2 Types of Metaphor of Modality in High Scoring Texts

Figure 3: Types of metaphor of modality in the high scoring Year 3 and Year 5 texts.

As is demonstrated in Figure 3, the most common type of metaphor of modality used by the writers was probability, with 13 instances in Year 3 texts and 15 instances in Year 5 texts. By contrast, obligation was used less often in the texts, with only one instance found across the eight Year 3 texts and two instances in the Year 5 texts. In short, the high achieving primary school writers mainly employed modality to express probability, and occasionally used modality of obligation.

Examples of probability

Example 1 (Year 3): In conclusion, <u>I strongly believe that</u> too much money is spent is being spent on toys and games

Example 2 (Year 5): <u>I am 100% sure that</u> too much money is spent on games

As these examples show, the successful Year 3 and Year 5 students often began or concluded their persuasive texts by responding directly to the NAPLAN prompt question (i.e., *Is too much money being spent on toys and games?*). Intensifiers like *strongly* or *completely* were often used to modify the verb *believe* to express probability. This choice at the start or end of the texts demonstrated a high degree of commitment to their stance on the issue, which may have made the following or preceding arguments seem more convincing to readers. As all selected texts were

expositions seeking to argue one side of the issue, it was expected that they would feature the use of modality of probability as shown in the above examples.

Modality of obligation is also important in persuasive writing for expressing the degree of *mustness* or how obliged someone should be to act in a certain way (Humphrey et al., 2012). While modality of probability was the main type of interpersonal metaphor of modality used in the high scoring texts, modality of obligation was occasionally used. The instances of modality of obligation identified in the data set are presented as follows:

Examples of obligation

Example 3 (Year 3): It is imperative that we stop as much money being spent on toys and games as we can. Toys and games are a waste of money

Example 4 (Year 5): It is vital for children to learn how to save money… This is crucial for their future financial safety.

3.3 Values of Metaphor of Modality in High Scoring Texts

When considering the values of modality, the successful Year 3 and Year 5 students used high and medium modality phrases to persuade readers, yet there were no instances of low modality. More specifically, the Year 3 texts featured eight instances of high modality (e.g., *I strongly believe that*), compared to 14 instances in Year 5 texts (e.g., *I am 100% sure that*), and there were at least three instances of medium modality in all 16 analysed texts. Interestingly, the Year 3 texts featured more medium modality than Year 5 texts, despite the texts having a lower average word count. As one-sided expositions are written to persuade readers about the state of a phenomenon (analytical exposition) or how they should behave (hortatory exposition), it was expected that high scoring texts would feature the use of high and medium modality. Confirming that this was the case in these texts supports the notion that successful persuasive writing in middle and upper primary school involves high levels of modality, in the same way as more advanced academic arguments. It should be stated though that had the analysed texts been discussions—which consider two sides of an issue before rendering a judgement—may have required students to temper statements with low modality to describe one side as less believable than the other. In this way, the choice of text type is a crucial factor to consider when teaching the appropriate use of modality. The results of the analysis are depicted in Figure 4 which highlights the use of high modality over medium modality across year levels.
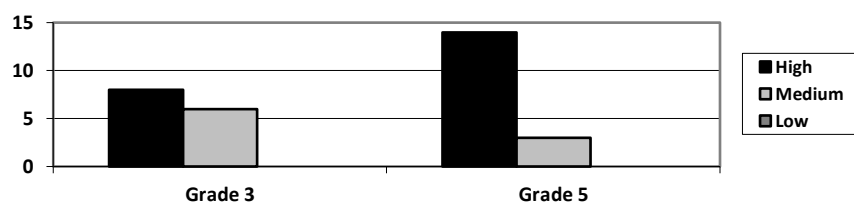

Figure 4: Values of metaphor of modality in the high scoring Year 3 and Year 5 texts.

The following examples highlight how high scoring primary school students used high and medium modality in their persuasive texts:

Examples of high modality

Example 5 (Year 3): I strongly believe that too much money is spent on toys and games

Example 6 (Year 5): I completely believe that far too much money is spent on toys and games

Examples of medium modality:

Example 7 (Year 3): In conclusion, that's why <u>I think that</u> too much money is spent on toys and games for all the reasons listed above!

Example 8 (Year 5): <u>I think</u> kids should be able to play on their own and should not have to use the mindless toys their parents buy for them!

3.4 Orientation of metaphor of modality

Regarding the orientation of modality in the high scoring persuasive texts, the analysis indicated that all 16 expositions featured 10 instances of objective modality, and 21 instances of subjective modality. Most revealing was the finding that high scoring primary school students used more subjective than objective modality. Specifically, Year 3 students used subjective modality nine times in their texts, while Year 5 students used it 12 times. By comparison, objective modality was used by Year 3 students and Year 5 students five times per year level. Figure 5 shows that while both types of modality orientation were used, subjective orientation was more common in the high scoring texts.
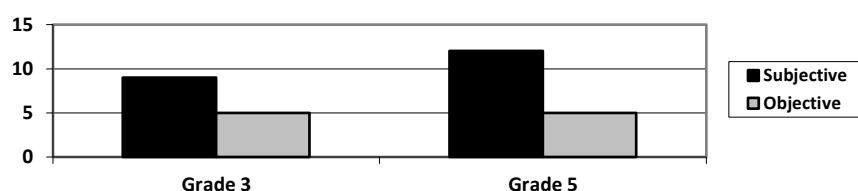

Figure 5: Orientation of metaphor of modality in the high scoring Year 3 and Year 5 texts.

In these high scoring texts, all uses of metaphor of modality were explicit. This is highlighted in the following examples.

Examples of objective modality

Example 9 (Year 3): <u>It is true that</u> some people become game addicts

Example 10 (Year 5): So as you can see <u>it is completely unnecessary</u> for people to spend so much on toys and games.

Examples of subjective modality

Example 11 (Year 3): <u>I believe</u> people should not buy computer games all the time because computer games affect your body.

Example 12 (Year 5): Now <u>I am sure you all agree with me that</u> toys are just a waste of money, time and skill and can also bully people!

4 Conclusion

To summarise, the results of the analysis highlight how high scoring primary school writers mainly used modality to express probability, in high values, and in subjective orientation to persuade their readers, while they occasionally used modality to express obligation, in medium values and objective orientation. In academic discourse, valued writing often involves a range of modality types, expressed with medium value, and in the objective orientation (Devrim, 2015; Thomson & Droga, 2012). While the language choices made in the high scoring persuasive texts were bound by the specific context, a picture begins to emerge about how successful young writers begin using different types, values and orientations of interpersonal metaphor of modality,

and how this eventually looks in valued academic texts produced in various workplace contexts.

References

Australian Curriculum, Assessment and Reporting Authority. (2015). *NAPLAN – National report for 2015*. Retrieved from https://www.nap.edu.au/_resources/2015_NAPLAN_national_report.pdf

Australian Curriculum, Assessment and Reporting Authority. (2017). *Australian curriculum: English*. Retrieved from http://www.australiancurriculum.edu.au/english/curriculum/f-10?layout=1

Devrim, D.Y. (2015). *Teaching grammatical metaphor: Designing pedagogical interventions.* UK: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.

Dulfer, N., Polesel, J. & Rice, S. (2012). *The experience of education: The impacts of high stakes testing on school students and their families*. Penrith, NSW: The Whitlam Institute.

Halliday, M. A. K. (1985). *An introduction to functional grammar*. London: Arnold.

Halliday, M. A. K. (1994). *An introduction to functional grammar* (2nd ed.). London: Arnold.

Halliday, M. A. K. & Matthiessen, C. M. I. M. (2004). *An introduction to functional grammar* (3rd ed.). London: Arnold.

Hood, S. (2010). *Appraising research: Evaluation in academic writing.* London: Palgrave Macmillan.

Humphrey, S., Droga, L. & Feez, S. (2012). *Grammar and meaning* (new ed.). Newtown, NSW: Primary English Teaching Association Australia.

Iedema, R. (2000). The language of administration: Organizing human activity in formal institutions. In F.

Christie & J. R. Martin (Eds.), *Genre and institutions: Social processes in the workplace and school* (pp. 41-73). London: Continuum.

Martin, J. R. (1992). *English text: System and structure*. Philadelphia: John Benjamins.

Lakoff, G. (1993). The contemporary theory of metaphor. In A. Ortony (Ed.), *Metaphor and thought* (2nd ed.) (pp. 202-251). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Lock, G. (1996). *Functional English grammar: An introduction for second language teachers*. Cambridge: Cambridge Language Education.

Martin, J. R. (1989). *Factual writing: Exploring and challenging social reality* (2nd ed.). Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.

Schleppegrell, M. J. (2013). The role of metalanguage in supporting academic language development. *Language Learning, 63*(1), 153-170.

Taverniers, M. (2003). Grammatical metaphor in SFL: A historiograhy of the introduction and initial study of the concept. In A. Simon-Vandenbergen, M. Taverniers & L. Ravelli (Eds.), *Grammatical metaphor: Views from systemic functional linguistics*. Amsterdam/Philadephia: John Benjamins.

Needing and Wanting in Academic Lectures:
Profiling the Academic Lecture Across Contexts

Rebekah Wegener[1], Bianca Schüller[1] and Jörg Cassens[2]

RWTH Aachen University[1] and University of Hildesheim[2]
Kármánstr. 17/19, 52062 Aachen, Germany[1]
Samelsonplatz 1, 34114 Hildesheim. Germany[2]
wegener@anglistik.rwth-aachen.de, bianca.schueller@rwth-aachen.de, cassens@cs.uni-hildesheim.de

Abstract

In this paper we outline the distribution of processes of needing and wanting in academic lectures across different disciplines, different phases in courses and individual lectures and different levels of education. In so doing, we consider who or what is needing and wanting and who or what is needed and wanted. This study forms part of a wider research program that uses multi-modal markers of importance to automatically extract key information from lectures as a step towards being able to identify and track contextually relevant importance in spoken language in real time for automatic summarization. We base our contextual analysis on the contextual models of Butt and Moore, which we further adapt for our purposes following Wegener (2011, 2015) and Cassens and Wegener (forthcoming) though they are not the focus of this paper.

1 Introduction and research questions

Meaning making is most often multi-modal and it is this feature that we make use of in outlining a model for an automatic and context dependent note-taking system for academic lectures, see Cassens and Wegener (2016) for an overview of the research program. Drawing on semiotic models of gesture and behaviour, linguistic models of text structure and sound, and a rich model of context, we argue that the combination of information from all of these through data triangulation provides a better basis for information extraction and summarization than each alone. Further, we suggest that by using a rich model of context that maps the unfolding of the text in real time with features of the context, we can produce query driven summarization. This paper focuses on the linguistic models of text structure.

The context of the research presented here is to examine the potential for using multi-modal markers of importance (behaviour, acoustic, and language markers) to automatically detect the structure of a spoken text and extract contextually important segments from the text. The research questions can be expressed as two interrelated questions: firstly, to what extent is it possible to use multi-modal markers to detect importance in a spoken text and can this be used for accurate automatic summarization? Secondly, to what extent is it possible to utilise multi-modal markers together with a rich context model to develop a query driven summariser for the production of contextually appropriate summarization?

Summarization is a difficult task and varies widely depending on the purpose or function of the summarization. Most recent work in natural language processing now integrates lexical, acoustic/prosodic, textual and discourse features for effective summarization (Maskey and Hirschberg, 2005). Only recently however, are behavioural features being taken into consideration (Hussein, 2016) and here only to summarise the movement in a video. Behaviour is frequently under-utilised as a

82

modality because it is treated as a contextual footnote to speech when it can be equally meaning bearing and can often signal meaning prior to verbalisation (Lukin et al., 2011). Extending our previous research (Butt et al., 2013, and Kofod-Petersen et al., 2009) on utilising shared features of behaviour, we now combine behavioural models with models for other modalities and a rich model of context.

2 Multi-modal models of context and Generic Structure Potential

Hasan (2004) makes a distinction between the social action and those aspects of social action which relate specifically to discourse, or to use her words are 'construed by discourse'. This distinction poses some problems for multi-modal research in that it restricts context of situation to discourse. Indeed, context of situation as Hasan models it includes the other modalities as part of the context rather than as the discourse. This restriction causes some problems for modelling alternate forms of communication such as meaning bearing behaviour, computer mediated communication of some forms or in general modelling non-human actors. Therefore, we have previously suggested (Cassens and Wegener, 2008) that Hasan's model of context (Hasan, 1999) be combined with Activity theory as outlined by Engeström et al. (1999). Combining the two theories allows for at least two important extensions. Firstly it allows for a much broader definition of discourse to include all forms of social action and secondly, it includes non-human actors as potential meaning makers, an important inclusion for ambient intelligence research. This combination allows for a comprehensive treatment of the different modalities in a coherent set of models as needed for our research. Details of our approach are outlined in Cassens and Wegener (forthcoming).

Hasan maps description at the level of context as a set of system networks (Hasan, 1996d). Her contextual configuration is a systemic approach to the specification of similarity and contrast across contexts, with the features themselves drawn from networks of field, tenor and mode. This is to present context as if it could be represented through paradigms and realisation rules much as can be now seen in Hasan's own mappings between semantic networks and the lexicogrammar (Hasan, 1996d). Hasan's model of context (Hasan, 1999) sets out from the traditional Hallidayan conception of context as being 'a theoretical construct with three variables' (p. 232). Building on the classical Hallidayan approach, Hasan also structures her model of context as follows: *field, tenor* and *mode*. Together, they can be referred to as the contextual construct. She then goes on to define the 'totality of its detailed features – the specific values of field, tenor and mode relevant to any particular instance of speaking – as the contextual configuration' (p. 232). Hasan claims that for institutional settings it is possible to state a Generic Structure Potential (GSP, Hasan, 1996c). There are some contexts which tend more towards being heavily structured and organised and thus are less likely to be open for individual negotiation and more likely to feature recognisable generic structures that are reasonably predictable. Institutional settings are here defined as situations that are multiply coded for context and that have convergent coding (Hasan, 1996c). The GSP is an abstraction that represents the 'total range of textual structures available within a genre' (Hasan, 1996b, p. 53).

The first step in the modelling process is to establish the GSP for live academic lectures. This will provide a structural segmentation for the lecture. The main source

at this stage is the analysis of the textual features, which will be supported by cues from other modalities. The GSP also provides a model that can be filled with further observations. By doing this, we can improve the machine learning in a threefold way: speed, accuracy, data needed. The GSP is a representation of the contextual configuration and caters for the representation of settings on top of the general model variations across field, tenor, mode and material situational. For instance, we expect to encounter discipline-specific variations in structure (field related), person-specific variations depending on the experience of the lecturer or the student level (tenor related) and variations according to time of day or semester (related to the material setting). By focusing on live academic lectures, we keep the mode constant. Once the generic structure potential is established, it is possible to outline the structural selection for further instances, mapping the choices for each participant and how these work within the context, after all, 'each text is an individual; each has a distinct identity, in the sense that it is not the replication of any other text' (Hasan, 1993). Thus, while our model of the generic structure provides us with a generic and reusable model of the sequencing of a text, our picture of the context provides us with an idea of the variation in the paths that a text might take through that generic structure potential. Such a rich and contextually sensitive model of structure allows us to augment other existing models. This also lets us map the key lexical items, using a rich annotation utilizing concepts such as cohesion and theme.

Wanting and Needing in Academic Lectures: The work discussed here examines a small selection from a larger corpus of academic lectures that cover different disciplines, different lecturers and different levels of education. In order to ascertain the variability in language usage between disciplines, we compared all of the lectures from a full semester for two courses: introduction to computer science and introduction to film and literature. In this paper we discuss the first lecture of the introductory computer science course, however, for context, we compare this at points with the full semester of computer science, the full semester of film and literature and the first lectures for introductory psychology and introductory economics. There are obvious field related differences in topic, however there are also large amounts of overlap between these two very different courses, particularly in their use of cleft constructions, specifically, it- wh-, there-, and that- clefts (Davidsee, 2000). These are after all, the first lectures of first semester first year courses, so everything is 'new information' and constructed as such. Of most interest to us was the use of what might be classed as different types of 'desideratives'. Our interest in this set of process type stems from the need to locate the goals of the course, each lecture and individual sections of the lecture for the purposes of accurate summarisation. In particular, we focus on the higher frequency terms of 'going*', 'want*' and 'need*'. As can be seen in Figure 1, there is a noticeable difference in the use of these terms between the computer science course and the film literature course. Our focus at this stage of our project is on the computer science course, so we have focused in on the use of these terms across the computer science course and this can be seen in Figure 2. Here we see the distribution of these terms across the entire semester. The segments divided by the boxes indicate blocks of the course after which there was a short quiz. Since each block represents four weeks, the first quiz represents a formative assessment and is not a topic driven break in the course content. Indeed, the bulk of the key concepts for the course are covered in the first two blocks (eight weeks – 16 lectures). The last block represents a qualitative shift to a focus on simulations and modelling and this is reflected in the change in language usage. Here the usage of 'want*' and 'going*' shift to being primarily 'interrogative' e.g. '*Anyone **going** to answer that for me?*' or

'*Who **wants** to have a go at that one?*', and have a noticeably lower frequency. This shift can also be seen in lectures 11 and 12 and to a lesser extent lectures 5, 13, and 14. Here the focus of the lecture is on practical applications and again we see more 'interrogatives'.

For our purposes, it would be very nice if all first lectures had a high relative frequency of these terms, however it appears that this is not the case. Figure 7 shows a comparison of other first lectures across four disciplines. While computer science and economics are relatively similar (1 and 2), film and literature and psychology (3 and 4) are similar to each other in their low usage of these terms. So while there is difference, it does not appear to be individual, but to vary according to some other feature. We have not established yet exactly what is causing this variation. It is possible that it reflects a different approach to teaching and would thus connect to variations in tenor, or it is possible that it relates to a different conception of knowledge and is thus more related to field shifts.

Needing and Wanting in computer Science: In considering the computer science lectures, the lexemes 'want*' and 'need*' were chosen for analysis because they can be used in the computer science lecture to extract the important information from the lecture. The analysis was done in order to see what 'want' and 'need' can do and whether they are worth looking at in the context of finding important information for summarization. For the closer analysis, the first lecture of the course was taken in order to get a baseline and to be able to make predictions about the other lectures. As a first step, the data, which consisted of the manual annotation of the lecture's video recording, needed to be cleaned by deleting everything that was not part of the actual speech from the video, as for example the names of the people who speak. Afterwards, the clauses were patterned using the terminology and methods by Halliday and Matthiessen (2014). They differentiate between free or independent and bound clauses and call bound clauses either dependent or, in the case of them being down-ranked, embedded (Halliday and Matthiessen 2014, p. 170-171). The labels IND, DEP and EMB were used to refer to the three types. The clause complexing corresponds to phonologic features such as shifts in the speaker's intonation (cf. Halliday and Matthiessen 2014, p. 436). As parts of projection, instances of idea and locution were also marked.
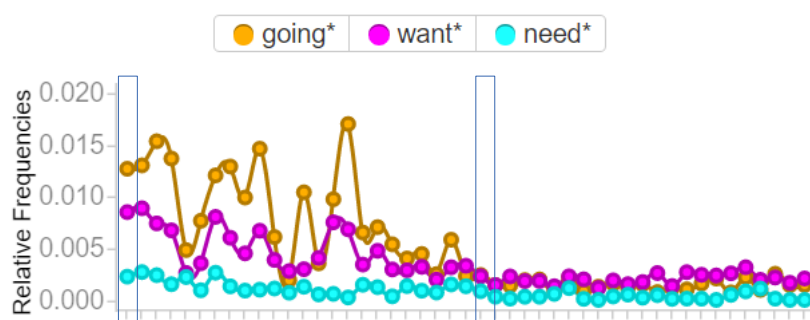

Figure 1. Relative frequencies of lexemes across two courses (1st box comp. science, 2nd film literature).
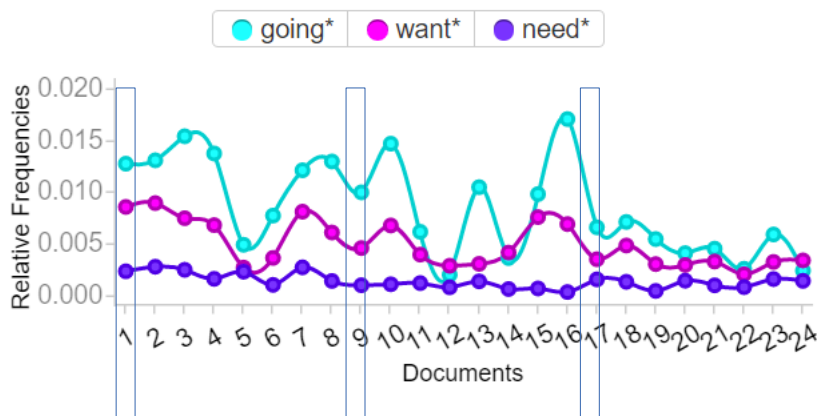
Figure 2. Relative frequencies of lexemes across one course (red boxes show learning blocks). Documents are one lecture each and there are two lectures per week.

There are some borderline cases of verbs in which it is not clear whether they belong to causatives or mental processes (cf. Halliday and Matthiessen 2014, p. 585). As 'want' and 'need' belong to these cases, the decisions on those have to be mentioned explicitly. Halliday and Matthiessen distinguish between two cases, the ones where there is an additional participant as in "I want || you to do this" and the ones where there is not, as in "I want to do this" (Halliday and Matthiessen 2014, p. 585). The first type is treated as two clauses, the first one projecting the second, while the second type is treated as one clause.

There are 579 clause complexes and 1714 clauses in total. Among these there are 1570 declaratives, 55 interrogatives and 89 imperatives as well as 917 independent, 307 dependent and 490 embedded clauses. The high number of embedded clauses is significant because it shows that a lot of information can be found in down-ranked units which need to be unpacked while listening. Projection occurs 172 times, consisting of 110 cases of idea and 62 cases of locution. There are only 28 false starts, which were not regarded in the transitivity analysis. A closer consideration of the clauses containing 'want' and 'need' was made following Halliday and Matthiessen (2014: 585) who distinguish a number of clause types. Here we distinguish these types as type A, B and C. Type A does not involve an additional participant; Type B involves an additional participant that follows after 'want' / 'need'; Type C involves an additional participant as well, but it does not follow after 'want' / 'need', but after the causative process in between the two.
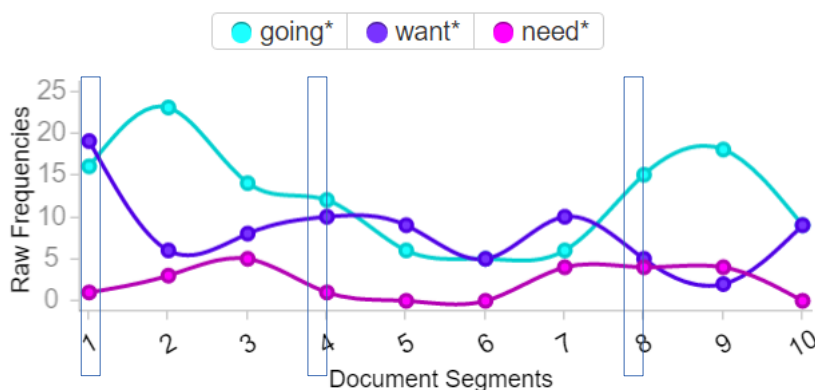

Figure 3. Raw frequencies of lexemes across first computer science lecture (boxes show topic boundaries – segments are approximately 1000 words each)
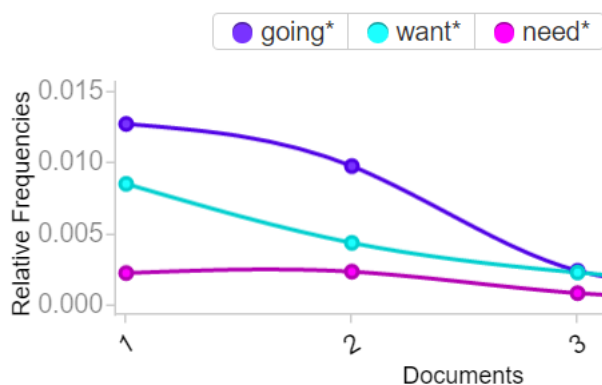
Figure 7. Relative frequencies of lexemes across first lectures for introductory courses in Computer science (1), Economics (2), Film Literature (3), and Psychology (4).

For all the clauses with 'want*' (across type A, B and C), most were embedded (40) or independent (30), and then dependent (12). Most clauses effectively had multiple processes: 1 process (5); 2 processes (71); 3 processes (5); and 4 processes (1). Most of the 'want*' clauses are material (49). The remainder are largely mental (15), and verbal (13). Very few are relational attributive (4) or identifying (1), or behavioural (1). For the type A clauses (62), most were embedded (29) or independent (23), and the remainder were dependent (10). Again, most were material in nature (36). The action was mostly represented as performed by the lecturer ('I': 14; 'we': 9), although this is reasonably evenly split between the lecturing staff and the students ('you': 11), especially since the 'we' refers to both the lecturer and students in many cases and to the teaching team in other cases. The second most likely type A was verbal processes (13), closely followed by mental (10). Again, the role of sayer or senser is split between the students and the staff. For the type B clauses (17— independent: (5); dependent: (2); embedded: (10)), there is a relationship of expectation. Of these clauses, material (11) were again the most common, followed by mental (4). In these cases, the teaching staff typically expect that the students will do or think something and while the material mostly fall within the first section of the lecture, the mental are within the main block of the lecture. The type C clauses were mental (2) and material (1) and were exclusively 'we' as agent and 'you' as senser or actor. For clauses with 'need*' (IND: 15; DEP: 2; EMB: 6), all were of type A, and were either mental (12), material (9), or verbal (3). Here the typical representation was that students needed to think about something or to think in a particular way. The verbal processes all related to explanations from the lecturer and the material were typically associated with work that needed to be completed by the students.

These very preliminary findings suggest that the lexemes 'going*', 'want*', and to a lesser extent 'need*' can be used to locate different types of important information for extraction. The different forms of use of these lexemes are distributed in a predictable way across the generic structure of the 'first' lecture and even their frequency can be used to identify structural segmentation within the lecture to improve information extraction.

References

Butt, D. and Wegener, R. (2007). The work of concepts: context and metafunction in the systemic functional model. In Hasan, R., Matthiessen, C., and Webster, J., editors, *Continuing Discourse on language: a functional perspective (vol. 2)*, London. Equinox.

Butt, D., Wegener, R., and Cassens, J. (2013). Modelling behaviour semantically. In Brézillon, P., Blackburn, P., and Dapoigny, R., editors, P*roceedings of CONTEXT 2013*, volume LNCS, pages 343--349, Annecy, France. Springer.

Cassens, J. and Wegener, R. (2008). Making use of abstract concepts -- systemic-functional linguistics and ambient intelligence. In Bramer, M., editor, *Artificial Intelligence in Theory and Practice II -- IFIP 20th World Computer Congress, IFIP AI Stream*, volume 276 of *IFIP*, pages 205-214, Milano, Italy. Springer.

Davidse, K. (2000). A constructional approach to clefts. *Linguistics*, 38(6; ISSU 370), 1101-1132.

Engeström, Y., Miettinen, R., and Punamäki, R. (1999). *Perspectives on Activity Theory*. Learning in Doing: Social, Cognitive and Computational Perspectives. Cambridge University Press.

Halliday, M., Matthiessen, C. M., & Matthiessen, C. (2014). *An introduction to functional grammar.* Routledge.

Hasan, R. (1993). Contexts for meaning. In Alatis, J. E., editor, *Georgetown University Round Table on Language and Linguistics 1992: Language, communication and social meaning*, Washington. Georgetown University Press.

Hasan, R. (1996a). Semantic networks: A tool for the analysis of meaning. In Cloran, C., Butt, D. G., and Williams, G., editors, *Ways of Saying, Ways of Meaning: Selected papers of Ruqaiya Hasan*, London. Cassell.

Hasan, R. (1996b). What's going on: a dynamic view of context in language. In Cloran, C., Butt, D. G., and Williams, G., editors, *Ways of Saying, Ways of Meaning: Selected papers of Ruqaiya Hasan*, London. Cassell.

Hasan, R. (1999). Speaking with reference to context. In Ghadessy, M., editor, *Text and Context in Functional Linguistics: systemic perspectives*, Amsterdam. John Benjamins.

Hasan, R. (2004). Analysing discursive variation. In Young, L. and Harrison, C., editors, *Systemic Functional Linguistics and Critical Discourse Analysis: studies in social change*, London. Continuum.

Hussein, F., Awwad, S., and Piccardi, M. (2016). Joint action recognition and summarization by sub-modular inference. In *ICASSP*.

Kofod-Petersen, A., Wegener, R., and Cassens, J. (2009). Closed doors -- modelling intention in behavioural interfaces. In Kofod-Petersen, A., Langseth, H., and Gundersen, O. E., editors, *Proceedings of the Norwegian Artificial Intelligence Society Symposium (NAIS 2009)*, pages 93--102, Trondheim, Norway. Tapir Akademiske Forlag.

Lukin, A., Moore, A., Herke, M., Wegener, R., and Wu, C. (2011). Halliday's model of register revisited and explored. *Linguistics and the Human sciences*.

Maskey, S. and Hirschberg, J. (2005). Comparing lexical, acoustic/prosodic, structural and discourse features for speech summarization. In INTERSPEECH.

Wegener, R. (2011). *Parameters of context: from theory to model and application*. PhD thesis, Macquarie University, Sydney

Wegener, R. (2016). Studying language in society and society through language: context and multimodal communication. In Bowcher, W. L. and Liang, J. Y., editors, *Society in language, language in society: essays in honour of Ruqaiya Hasan*. Palgrave Macmillan.

(Re) Assessing Coherence: What SFL has to Offer Oral Proficiency Testing

Desiree Kawabata

Griffith University
Gold Coast, QLD, Australia
d.kawabata@griffith.edu.au

Abstract

Measuring coherence is a standard practice in oral proficiency (OP) tests, but poses problems for inter-rater reliability and test validity. The model of cohesion developed in SFL (Halliday & Hasan, 1976) has been advanced in a way that helps to explain coherence, but attempts to apply SFL to rating scales are lacking. This study uses the SFL methods of clause complex analysis, thematic progression, and lexical cohesion to analyse responses in Part Two of the IELTS Speaking exam and investigates how these impact the coherence criterion in the IELTS rubric. The study discusses coherence as defined in the Fluency and coherence scale in the IELTS scoring descriptors and attempts to uncover whether SFL can be effectively applied in OP testing of non-native English speakers. Preliminary findings suggest that coherence in the IELTS scales needs to be defined more clearly to avoid rating by holistic scoring or overlapping with other descriptors. While IELTS test samples have been provided for analysis of responses in a language proficiency interview, the analysis is part of a larger project aiming to develop an alternate SFL-based rating scale for what is referred to as coherence, for use in a range of standardised oral proficiency contexts.

1 Introduction

Standardised language proficiency tests are used extensively throughout the world to assess non-native English speakers (NNS) intending to study and work in countries where a certain level of English proficiency is required. A common component of many of these tests, such as the internationally recognised IELTS test, is the Language Proficiency Interview (LPI). Major language tests develop scales with descriptors at different scoring levels, often including a descriptor relating to organisation of ideas that may include wording such as 'topic development' or 'coherence'. Coherence in oral proficiency testing is historically a vague concept and an ongoing challenge for test developers to define in order to create descriptors that adhere to principles of inter-rater reliability and test validity (Hoey, 1991; Knoch, 2007, 2009; Macintyre, 2007; Shaw & Falvey, 2008). SFL theory is concerned with context-based language use and the way texts unfold, and emphasises a strong relationship between cohesive aspects of text construction and their subsequent influence on coherence (Eggins, 1994; Halliday & Hasan, 1976; Halliday & Martin, 1981). In SFL, the logicosemantic relationship between clause complexes, the choice of thematic elements and progression types, and lexical cohesion could possibly indicate features of text that contribute to coherence. Thirteen IELTS responses rated between 4.0 (lowest score available) and 8.0 (highest score available) for *Fluency and coherence* were analysed for tactic and logico-semantic relations, thematic choices and progression patterns, and reference and lexical relations. This paper will introduce and explain the relationship between coherence and topic development in a LPI, provide a rationale for using SFL in this context, and discuss preliminary findings. The ultimate aim of the study is to reveal those linguistic features that appear to contribute to coherence in oral discourse as defined by SFL cohesive analysis, and develop an alternate scale for measuring coherence in the LPI context.

2 Defining coherence

Despite being a notion frequently referred to in standardised language proficiency tests, the lack of clarity in defining coherence and its related concept, cohesion, is continually problematic for test designers and raters (Brown, 2003; Macintyre, 2007). This often results in subjective interpretation leading raters to score holistically, or unintentionally overlap with other descriptors (Cotton & Wilson, 2011; Knoch, 2009). In Brown's (2003) study into the IELTS *Fluency and coherence* scale, the overall agreement in how coherence was defined in the context of the LPI was weak, and raters had different interpretations of elements of the rating scale such as with the terms 'fully appropriate cohesive features', 'develop topics fully' and 'breakdowns in coherence'. Within the IELTS descriptors for *Fluency and coherence,* there is little continuity between the levels in defining coherence. At the higher band scores, the focus is on "topic development", "cohesive features" and "speaking at length", while the lower band scores refer more to "flow of speech", "hesitation", and even "simple responses" (www.takeielts.britishcouncil.org). Cotton and Wilson (2011) similarly found an intuitive rating style when scoring coherence resulting in holistic scoring. Knoch (2007) and Macintyre (2007) also agreed that the vague nature of coherence itself is the reason why descriptors are not clearly defined.

2.1 Coherence in rating scales

In ensuring reliability in rating scales and in effect confirming test validity, it is vital that raters use a scale correctly and interpret the constructs clearly. Although it is a reality of standardised testing that rater variability exists (Brown, 2007; Eckes, 2008; Kuiken & Vedder, 2014), descriptors which allow for raters to interpret criteria differently can result in raters giving unequal weight to other elements of a rating scale (Brown, 2007; Orr, 2002) and an appropriate level of description in the rating scales can help to overcome this issue. Shaw & Falvey (2008) argue that the only way to increase the validity of conclusions drawn from these measurement-driven scales is to provide a richer description of context-specific performance while still managing descriptors that are not so overly detailed that they would negatively impact usability and generalisability.

2.2 Coherence and SFL

Despite lacking a clear-cut definition, coherence as a term used in discourse analysis is related to the overall organisation of a text and the way in which the language used is connected with the context (Eggins, 1994; Halliday & Martin, 1981; Halliday, 1994; Halliday & Hasan, 1976). In SFL, coherence, or 'texture', is created through cohesive ties at the language level of a text and internal cohesion is a requirement of a coherence (Givon, 1990; Halliday, 1981; Martin, 2001; Tanskanen, 2006). SFL is an appropriate framework for analysing test-taker responses in IELTS as the focus on choice in different contexts implies test-takers have considered how their lexico-grammatical and thematic choices allow them to clearly communicate their experiences with, and knowledge of, a given subject. Until now, SFL has not been practically applied in oral proficiency testing rating scales, and it is possible that the application of SFL in these scales will facilitate a better understanding of coherence in this context.

3   Analysis and Findings

3.1   Clause Complexing

Clause complexing refers to the relationship between clauses in a text, and speakers express these relations through the systems of Expansion (developing ideas) or Projection (reporting thoughts or words), and these choices play a part in contributing to coherence. Within Expansion, there are systems of Extension, Enhancement, and Elaboration, and Enhancement should be a major contributor to coherence in a LPI because the function is to give further information about a clause in terms of time, place, manner, or condition (Eggins, 2004; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014, p. 416). The proportion of ranking clauses to total number of clause complexes was calculated and the relationship between clauses - either paratactic (equal status) or hypotactic (unequal status) - was identified and this produced surprising results that raise questions in regard to other aspects of rating scales. In the *Grammatical Range and Accuracy* scale of the IELTS test, and in the rubrics of major speaking tests including TOEFL and the Cambridge Test of English (cambridgeenglish.org; ets.org), a high proportion of clause complexing is considered a sophisticated language skill; however, there was no indication of a higher number of clause complexes being used by speakers at higher band scores in these responses. It was expected that in a response to a task such as in the IELTS speaking test, enhancing clauses would suggest a higher rating, but again, no clear association emerged, and enhancement was used infrequently overall. Other significant findings from this analysis related to the more frequent use of hypotactic elaboration (non-defining relative clauses in traditional grammar) indicating a higher score, and chains of paratactic extension (compound sentences) to clarify and exemplify being rated favourably. Overlap between language in the *Fluency and coherence* scale relating to topic development and that relating to prosodic features or intelligibility of speech was evident; when fluency issues dominated, raters often did not follow descriptors relating to topic development, giving further weight to the need to clearly separate the categories of 'fluency' and 'coherence' in a scale.

3.2   Theme

The Theme of a clause is what the clause is going to be about, or 'the point of departure' of a message (Halliday, 2014, p. 64) and effective choice of what is in thematic position is essential for strong cohesion and coherence (Eggins, 2004). Every Theme in a clause must contain a Topical theme which gives information about the participants or processes in a clause, but the Theme of a clause may include Textual Themes, which are conveyed through conjunctive adjuncts to build cohesion by linking a clause to a previous section of text (Matthiessen, Teruya & Lam, 2010). Theme provides the immediate context of a message and relates to the development of a text (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014). The contribution to coherence on an organisational or topic development level comes from signalling where topics start and end, which is necessary for coherence (Haves, 2015). This is shown through thematic progression, or what elements are included in thematic position in the clauses within a text. This study calculated the percentage of Textual Themes used within the responses and their variety, and investigated how these Themes linked parts of the response through thematic progression. In accordance with the IELTS speaking band descriptors (takeielts.britishcouncil.org), responses that used a range of conjunctive adjuncts to develop the topic would score higher; however, analysis showed no evidence of this. In some cases, the score was even in direct contrast to the

speaking descriptor as the criterion recognised that a speaker uses a range of connectives, but in fact the speaker used only one type of conjunctive adjunct throughout. Interestingly, speakers who used conjunctive adjuncts of consequence such as "so" and "therefore" as Textual Themes scored higher, possibly because they were accurately using these adjuncts to link clauses to the previous discourse. The speakers at the higher scores used these adjuncts to effectively 'round off' sections of their response. Another significant finding was that Theme Markedness, where an atypical element is put into thematic position (Eggins, 2004), can contribute highly to coherence if used well in monologue such as in the samples analysed here, and the use of thematic equative structures, where an embedded clause is placed in thematic position, were seemingly favoured by raters. Including carefully worded descriptors related to these findings in a criterion for coherence may help clarify the method of development of a response.

3.3   Lexical Cohesion

In SFL theory, cohesion is created through lexical strings, repetition as a rhetorical resource (as opposed to disfluency), and referential ties which relate one part of a text to another element that has come before, after, or can be retrieved through the context, thereby facilitating coherence. Appropriate topic development, therefore, can be interpreted in the SFL context as the use of language resources that enable the text receiver to make relevant connections between all sections of a text. Lexical strings can contribute to coherence by creating continuity throughout a text and allowing words and ideas to unfold logically (Eggins, 2004). In addition to detailed analysis of the number and type of lexical strings, the present study analysed the use of repetition and reference chains and how these contributed to coherence. There was little difference in lexical density throughout the responses, the type and frequency of lexical strings, taxonomic resources (such as synonymy) and expectancy relations (collocation). Similarly, the analysis of reference and retrieval of ties did not generate results significant for discussion here. One language resource that was clearly evident at the higher band scores, and may contribute to coherence, is the repetition of lexical items in a phrase with a similar pattern – grammatical parallelism. Speakers generally use parallel structures to emphasise similarities or differences, or highlight certain points in their speech (Bartlett & O'Grady, 2017) and this was used to the greatest effect at the higher band scores. One other language feature that was used skilfully only at the highest band scores was the use of chains of anaphorically ellipsed Themes; in these clauses, the speakers omitted the subject of the clause when listing examples, but the subject was evident and available for retrieval from the previous clauses. The lexical relation of class/sub-class was also used effectively by speakers at the higher scores, which aided topic development when the speakers introduced a superordinate term (such as 'people' in an example from the analysis) in their response and in subsequent references, conveyed the relationship in terms of a sub-class ('artistic people', 'like-minded people', 'people from all walks of life'). These aspects of lexical cohesion may need to be considered when developing an alternative scale for coherence in a LPI context.

4   Rating Scale Development

The results of the analyses highlight the importance of clarifying the description of coherence in oral proficiency testing, especially the distinction between coherence in prosodic features, and coherence in terms of structure and development of ideas.

Since SFL provides one of the most comprehensive approaches to understanding coherence through cohesion, language testing and rating scale development could benefit from a closer dialogue with SFL. The features identified in this analysis could indicate deeper topic development and if expressed in a manner that can be easily interpreted by raters, clarify coherence in conversational monologues in LPIs.

References

Bartlett, T. & O'Grady, G. (Eds.). (2017). *The Routledge Handbook of Systemic-Functional Linguistics*. London: Taylor & Francis.

Brown, A. (2003). An examination of the rating process in the revised IELTS speaking test. *IELTS Research Reports 8*.

Brown, A. (2007). An investigation of the rating process in the IELTS oral interview. In L. Taylor & P. Frawley (Eds.), *Studies in Language Testing 19: IELTS collected papers: research in speaking and writing assessment* (pp. 98-139), Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Cotton, F. & Wilson, K. (2011). An investigation of examiner rating of coherence and cohesion in IELTS writing Task 2. In J. Osborne (Ed.), *IELTS Research Reports 12* .IDP: IELTS Australia.

Eckes, T. (2008). Rater types in writing performance assessments: A classification approach to rater variability. *Language Testing*, *25* (2), 155-185.

Eggins, S. (2004). *An introduction to systemic functional linguistics* (2nd ed.). New York: Continuum.

Givon, T. (1990). *Syntax: A functional-typological introduction*. Volume II. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Halliday, M.A.K. (1994). *An introduction to functional grammar* (2nd ed.). London: Edward Arnold.

Halliday, M.A.K., & Martin, J.R. (1981). *Readings in systemic linguistics.* Trafalgar Square Publishing.

Halliday, M. A. K. & Matthiessen, C. M. I. M. (2014). *Introduction to functional grammar* (4th ed.). New York: Routledge.

Halliday, M.A.K. & Hasan, R. (1976). *Cohesion in English.* London: Longman.

Hasan, R. (1984). Coherence and cohesive harmony. In J. Flood (Ed.), *Understanding reading comprehension: Cognition, language and the structure of prose* (pp. 181-219). Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Hawes, T. (2015). Thematic progression in the writing of students and professionals. *Ampersand, 2*, 93-100.

Hoey, M. (1991). *Patterns of lexis in text*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Knoch, U. (2007). 'Little coherence, considerable strain for reader': A comparison between two rating scales for the assessment of coherence. *Assessing Writing, 12*(2), 108-128.

Knoch, U. (2009). *Diagnostic writing assessment: The development and validation of a rating scale*. Frankfurt am Main: Peter Lang.

Kuiken, F. & Vedder, I. (2014) Raters' decisions, rating procedures and rating scales. *Language Testing, 31*(3) 279-84.

MacIntyre, R. (2007). Revision of a criterion-referenced rating scale used to assess academic writing. *Studies in Linguistics and Language Teaching*, *18*, 203–219.

Martin, J. (2001). Cohesion and texture. In Schiffrin, D., Tannen, D., & Hamilton, H. E (Eds.), *Handbook of Discourse Analysis*, (pp. 35-53). United States: Blackwell Publishers.

Matthiessen, C.M.I.M., Teruya, K. & Lam, M. (2010). *Key Terms in Systemic Functional Linguistics*. London: Continuum

Orr, M. (2002). The FCE speaking test: using rater reports to help interpret test scores. *System, 30*(2) 143-54.

Shaw, S. & Falvey, P. (2008). The IELTS writing assessment revision project: Towards a revised writing scale. *Cambridge: University of Cambridge ESOL Examinations*.

Tanskanen, S-K. (2006). *Collaborating towards coherence*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Company.

www.cambridgeenglish.org

www.ets.org

www.takeielts.britishcouncil.org

Creating a transformed space for disciplinary discourse and knowledge creation through an adjunct instructional model

Esther Tong, Cecilia Pun, Phoebe Siu and Jan Gube

Hong Kong Community College, The Hong Kong Polytechnic University
ccetong@hkcc-polyu.edu.hk
fkpun@hkcc-polyu.edu.hk
ccphosiu@hkcc-polyu.edu.hk
jcgube@hkcc-polyu.edu.hk

Abstract

Acknowledging that collaboration between faculty members and language teachers is challenged by resources constraints and their perceived distinctive roles in supporting knowledge and academic discourse development, this paper considers an adjunct instructional model that promotes the collaborative design of a genre-based bridging pedagogy in three disciplinary courses (Mechanical Engineering, Tourism Management and Sociology) at a Hong Kong tertiary institute. First, the paper examines the design and role of Engineering-specific assessment tasks in engaging students in simulated disciplinary problem-solving scenarios and selections of rhetorical and lexico-grammatical resources in their disciplinary knowledge creation processes. It also demonstrates the role of genre-based pedagogy in illustrating technicality in facilitating students' understanding disciplinary discourses in Tourism Management. Then, it highlights the functions of creating multimodal genre-based environments in facilitating students' sociological inquiry through scaffolded written tasks based on real-life social issues. Lastly, it explores how learners engage with polyvocal resources to clarify how they make sense of their disciplinary roles through their writing practices in the adjunct courses. The implications of these diverse trajectories are discussed in line with the need for curriculum-embeddedness of disciplinary conventions (Wingate, 2016) and discursive strategies for bridging English language learners' disciplinary discourse and knowledge creation across the curriculum.

1. Introduction

To prepare learners for the evolving work environments, tertiary education programmes have dual focuses on developing learners' generic and disciplinary skills so that they can adapt to changes, function fully and engage in dialogues in their disciplinary communities. This sets a challenging task for educators in Hong Kong to explore ways to help English learners make sense of their disciplinary knowledge and to bridge their meaning representations across the curriculum in their second or additional language. Cummins and Man (2007) point out that such academic language proficiency prerequisite to students' academic success embraces not only broad-based knowledge in English vocabulary, phonology, grammar and spelling, but also the mastery of more sophisticated sentences, discourse knowledge and higher order thinking skills. In other words, using English as a learning medium calls for learners' coherent presentation of meanings beyond the sentence level. While 'there is simply no time to delay academic instruction until these students have developed high levels of English language proficiency' (Short, 1993, p. 628), it is of paramount importance for educators to offer full support to aid students' development of academic discourse for more effective communication of the ways of knowing, thinking and doing in their study disciplines.

Highlighting the language-context link within Halliday's Systemic Functional Linguistics model (Halliday, 1994, 2007; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, 2014), this

paper examines the diverse trajectories in designing the three disciplinary adjunct courses in a project funded by the Language Fund under Research and Development Projects 2015-16 of the Standing Committee on Language Education and Research (SCOLAR), Hong Kong SAR. It discusses how the adjunct genre-based courses create a transformed space for disciplinary discourse and knowledge creation within three academic discourse communities (Mechanical Engineering, Tourism Management and Sociology) at a Hong Kong tertiary institute and argues for the need for curriculum-embeddedness of disciplinary conventions (Wingate, 2016) and discursive strategies for bridging English language learners' disciplinary discourse and knowledge creation across the curriculum.

2. Transforming Students' Assessment Experiences: The Theory-Practice Dialectic in Simulated Professional Practice in Engineering

First, data from faculty members, course assessment materials and assignment samples in the mechanical Engineering programme highlight the role of assessment tasks in engaging learners in the process of enculturation, i.e. the theory-practice dialectic in Engineering. According to Schlepeggrell and Colombi (2002), education is an enculturation process where novice learners are socialised into the values and practices of a disciplinary community of practice (p. 2). To support English learners' knowledge and academic discourse development while socialising them into the disciplinary communities of Engineering, educators are urged to design not only a coherent curriculum but also a trajectory-based assessment-for-learning framework which systematically introduces and reinforces students' learning of the disciplinary ways of knowing, thinking, doing in genre-specific assessment tasks across the years of their studies. In the target Mechanical Engineering sub-degree programme, students were first introduced to and being assessed in the disciplinary genres of laboratory report and proposal in two discipline-specific subjects in the first semester of their 2-year studies, namely Engineering Materials and Applied Computing for Engineers. These discipline-specific assessment tasks engaged students with its meaning potential and semiotic processes specific to Engineering. Table 1 illustrates the semiotic processes demanded in these tasks. Students were required to use appropriate linguistics resources to interpret, construct and represent their experience in the theory-practice dialectic in Engineering (Mohan, 2011).

Assessment Tasks	Lab Report	Proposal
Theory *(Engineering Ways of Knowing)*	- Explain the discrepancies/ errors found	- Group findings based on the concepts learnt - Justify the theory-grounded decision
(Engineering Ways of Thinking)	- Compare the data collected with the theoretical calculations - Identify discrepancies/ errors found	- Identify the problem - Compare the findings - Make recommendations
Practice	Perform lab tests	Research for relevant

(Engineering Ways of Doing)	(Describe the procedures of the experimental work completed)	information (Describe the details of the problem, findings (existing products/previous works), and procedures of the work completed)

Table 1: Analysis of the Semiotic Processes demanded in the Discipline-specific Assessment Tasks.

Building on students' experience with these Engineering-specific genres, these key genres were used in other assessment tasks to assess and reinforce (R) students' Engineering knowledge and skills in simulated professional practices in other contexts in Engineering in the subsequent semesters (S):

Subject	Stage 1, S2	Stage 2, S1	Stage 2, S2
Engineering Design Fundamentals	Engineering Design Report (Proposal) **(R)**		
Project Management for Engineers		Engineering Proposal **(R)**	
Basic Electricity and Electronics			Engineering Lab Report **(R)**
Engineering Project			Engineering Proposal **(R)** Engineering Project Report **(R)**

Table 2: A trajectory-based assessment-for-learning framework of an Engineering programme.

The findings suggest that an integrated assessment approach may enhance students' awareness of genre variations and how registerial features are (re)used in Engineering writings. The results call for a more comprehensive analysis of the key disciplinary genres within a trajectory-based assessment-for-learning framework of the academic programmes – a space for collaborative design of the assessment criteria for disciplinary writings, which may promote more effective assessment of students' disciplinary learning.

3. Opening the Gaze of Disciplinary Discourse for Students: Building Technicality in Tourism Management Discourse

To address the language struggle of the students majoring in Business with a specialisation in Tourism Management in construing their daily experience into specialised knowledge, the adjunct model for TM focuses on the perception and production of English language is delivered to the students for 2 consecutive semesters with 5 mapped subjects (2 of them are discipline specific compulsory

subjects). The adjunct model focuses on scaffolding the requirements of the mapped assignment, and externalising the students' knowledge through writing in English. Technicality is also examined as a realisation of disciplinary knowledge, and the technicality of the TM discipline identified is both horizontal and vertical (Bernstein, 1996). This could be illustrated by the two subjects, economics (a compulsory course in stage 1, semester 1) and tourism management (a discipline-specific compulsory course in stage 1, semester 2). Table 3 shows some examples of the entities that denote technicality within the two subjects in terms of horizontal discourse and vertical discourse. The horizontal discourse in tourism management, however, is arguable as this largely depends on the personal experience, or the "commonsense" knowledge that the students possess (with * in Table 3). For example, it is common for travellers to have access to, or experience of, using the *taxi and limousine service* from a hotel when they are travelling out of their home town, or to go on a *rail travel* if the cities are connected; yet, these might not be the experience of younger learners. In the vertical discourse, both hierarchical knowledge structure and horizontal knowledge structure are observed in the TM discipline. The hierarchical knowledge structure is shown through the strong relations of segments between subjects. The students will need to accumulate and integrate the knowledge learnt from other business subjects to tourism management; for example, after the students learnt the concept of *elasticity* in economics in their semester 1, they need to recontextualise *elasticity* into tourism management. Thus, what they have learned in the previous semester serves as the foundation for building up a higher level. However, in the TM program, not all subjects are focused on specialised knowledge that have a close relationship with tourism management; some of the compulsory subjects, for instance, information technology, are more focused on generic skills for their college studies, and there is no necessary relation between segments for building up the knowldge. Therefore, considering the technicality found in the complusory courses, Tourism Management lies in the middle of in the cline of hierarchical knowledge structure and horizontal knowledge structure.

Subjects	Examples of Horizontal Discourse	Examples of Vertical Discourse
Economics	*Choice* *Gain* *Price*	*Marginal cost/ benefit* *Opportunity cost* *Market supply/ demand*
Tourism Management	*Accommodation* *Festivals* *Shopping* *Rail travel** *Taxi and limousine service**	*Inbound tourism* *Travel motivation analysis* *Seasonality* *(Price) elasticity/inelasticity* *Tax revenue*

Table 3: Examples of Horizontal and Vertical Discourse in Economics and Tourism Management.

4. Genres, Texts and Multimodalities/ Entextualisation Cycle in an English-in-the Discipline Adjunct Course for Social Sciences Students

This section presents the data collected in the Sociology and Culture adjunct course in Phase 2 of the project. Jay Lemke (1998) argues that scientific knowledge is rarely developed by language alone, but is presented through multiple representational

systems, ranging from images, mathematical expressions to physical gestures. Aside from scientific knowledge, it is observed that content knowledge in Social Sciences is also delivered in multi-modal discourses. In Phase 2 of this research project, 71 students majoring in the academic discipline of Social Sciences [Associate in Applied Social Sciences (Sociology and Culture)] were provided with a 13-week adjunct course (1.5 teaching hours per week; 3 classes of 20-25 students) to scaffold their English language skills in using academic genres and texts. To enrich students' genre-based disciplinary learning experiences, multi-modal learning resources, such as YouTube videos reporting live social experiments in relation to localised social phenomena, TED Talk speeches delivered by native English-speaking Sociologists, were adopted. In the weekly teaching and learning cycle, students were also exposed to a wide range of semiotic resources in textual forms, still and moving visual images, along with audio-visual messages and other cultural elements embedded in Sociology-related multi-modal discourses. For instance, Sociology students were informed about how case studies and seminar presentations are conventionally conducted for Sociological inquiries. In the curriculum design of this adjunct course, the effectiveness and pedagogical values of Multimodalities/ Entextualisation Cycle (MEC) (Lin, 2015) to integrate verbal, written and visual languages have been examined. With a package of L2 content and language integrated learning strategies, Sociology students were guided to shuffle among various forms of textual and multimodal mediation of academic literacy to entextualise (Bauman & Briggs, 1990) the meanings embedded in different academic genres and texts. In MEC, students are designers of meanings in a three-stage multimodal classroom. First, with the aid of multimodal tools, such as visual graphics, images, YouTube videos and role-play activities, students developed an initial access to sociological issues, like the social and cultural implications of priority seats in Hong Kong. Next, students were engaged with different reading and note-making tasks. The meaning-making processes in sociological inquiries involve 're-presentation of L2 textual meaning using different kinds/ combinations of everyday L1/ L2 spoken/ written genres and multimodalities' (Lin, 2015, p. 26), ranging from the use of bilingual notes, oral descriptions to visual diagrams. Finally, students were exposed to a rich context of entextualisation, using concrete language scaffolding tools, such as discipline-specific vocabulary lists, key sentence frames and writing/ speaking prompts, L2 written/ spoken academic genres, to write up a case analysis and deliver seminar presentations. In summary, the reiterative adoption of Multimodalities/ Entextualisation Cycle in this adjunct course aims at improving students' discipline-specific multimodal learning and academic literacy in English.

5. Engaging with disciplinary discourses: Polyvocality and envisaged professional roles

Lastly, to understand our adjunct courses as a transformed space for learning and knowledge creation, it is necessary to appreciate what intertextual sources students appropriate in their writing activities. Writing activities are considered a space where students were prompted to express their perceived disciplinary or professional practices in their study programs. From a Bakhtinian standpoint, textual productions are responses to 'those from whom s/he has borrowed the text' (Scollon, Tsang, Li, Yung, & Jones, 1997, p. 228). This form of borrowing assumes that individuals rely on existing discourses to articulate what they know and take up in a social context in writing. In other words, texts can be seen as a discourse representation of polyvocal

resources resulting from interaction with practices, people and events specific to a particular field in written form (i.e., a linguistic representation of how different experiences, interactions, activities speak to individuals). This view provides a focus for delineating what historical {HS} and social sources {SS} and social practices {SP} students invoke in a disciplinary or professional discourse. Using these three vocabularies, a brief analysis of writing extracts from students in the three adjunct courses are shown below:

> *I wish I can work in a big company and target elderly and disabled people {SS} to help… I can [create] some gadgets {SP} helping the old people, like advanced wheelchair, artificial limbs…*

> *Many jobs need to talk in English {SP} it is important for me because many jobs about tourism need to face foreign people {SS}.*

> *…the "Occupied Central" activity {SP}… to look out the phenomenons of society… conflicts {SS}, banners {SP}, slogan {SP}, police {SS}, violent… It is because the activity is the first big activity {HS} to show the citizen's [complaint] about the government policy on the elections.*

The preliminary analysis shows what voices spoke to the students in the three adjunct courses as they imagined what their study programmes entailed in terms of their disciplinary discourses and the practices in those. Mechanical Engineering and Tourism Management students tended to envisage what people they will work with and do for them professionally, such as designing equipment for the elderly and providing services in English to foreigners. Sociology students, on the other hand, showed proclivity for describing major social events and its impact on the social fabric of the people involved in it, such as the Occupy Central and how it created social division in Hong Kong. By identifying these polyvocal resources, it becomes possible to highlight what resources are invoked to represent disciplinary discourses as students began to engage more deeply in their study programs. When probed further, the dynamics of such polyvocality can provide indication of students' developing academic discourse in their disciplines.

6. Conclusion

This paper discusses the diverse trajectories in an adjunct instructional model which aims to open up a space for collaboration between the content and language teachers in the design of a bridging curriculum that facilitate students' development of disciplinary discourse and knowledge creation across the curriculum. The findings calls for the provision of a linguistic account of the language demands of the major genre-based academic tasks in higher education programmes, which will inform the pedagogical arrangements educators need to make to support students' expansion of disciplinary repertoire for active intellectual engagement in disciplinary dialogues, and after all, academic success in the English-medium programmes.

References

Bauman, R. & Briggs, C. (1990). Poetics and performance as critical perspectives on language and social fife. *Annual Review of Anthropology, 19*, 59-88.

Bernstein, B. (1996). *Pedagogy, symbolic control and identity: Theory, research, critique (revised edition)*. Maryland: Rowman and Littlefield.

Cummins, J. & Man, E. Y. (2007). Academic language: What is it and how do we acquire it? In J. Cummins & C. Davison (Eds.), *International handbook of English language teaching* (pp. 797-810). New York: Springer.

Halliday, M. A. K. (1994). *An introduction to functional grammar* (2 ed.). London: Arnold.

Halliday, M. A. K. (2007). The notion of "context" in language education (1991). In J. J. Webster (Ed.), *Language and Education* (pp. 269-290). London: Continuum.

Halliday, M. A. K. & Matthiessen, C. M. I. M. (2014). *Halliday's introduction to functional grammar* (4th ed.). New York: Routledge.

Halliday, M.A.K. & Matthiessen, C.M.I.M. (1999). *Construing experience through meaning: a language-based approach to cognition*. London, New York: Continuum.

Hood, S. (2008). Summary writing in academic contexts: Implicating meaning in processes of change. Linguistics and Education, 19, 351-365.

Humphrey, S., Martin, J.R. Dreyfus, S. & Mahboob, A., (2010). The 3x3: Setting up a linguistics tools for teaching academic writing. In A. Mahboob & N. Knight (Eds.) *Appliable linguistics: Texts, contexts and meanings*, (pp. 185-199). London: Continuum.

Lemke, J. L. (1998). Multiplying meaning: Visual and verbal semiotics in scientific text. In Martin J. R. & Veel R. (Eds.), *Reading Science: Critical and Functional Perspectives on Discourses of Science*. London: Routledge.

Lin, A. M. Y. (2015). Conceptualising the potential role of L1 in CLIL. *Language, Culture and Curriculum. 28* (1), 74-89.

Mohan, B. A. (1987). The structure of situation and the analysis of text. In R. Steele & T. Threadgold (Eds.), *Language topics: Essays in honor of Michael Halliday* (pp. 507-522). Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing Company.

Mohan, B. A. (2011). Social practice and register: Language as a means of learning. In E. Hinkel (Ed.), *Handbook of research in second language teaching and learning* (Vol. 2, pp. 57-74). New York, NY: Routledge.

Schleppegrell, M. & Colombi, C. (Eds.). (2002). *Developing advanced literacy in first and second languages*. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

Scollon, R., Tsang, W. K., Li, D., Yung, V. & Jones, R. (1997). Voice, appropriation and discourse representation in a student writing task. *Linguistics and Education*, *9*(3), 227-250.

Short, D. J. (1993). Assessing integrated language and content instruction. *TESOL Quarterly, 27(4)*, pp. 627-656.

Waldo, M. (2003). *Demythologizing language difference in the academy: Establishing discipline-based writing programs*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Wingate, U. (2016). Academic literacy across the curriculum: Towards a collaborative instructional approach. *Language Teaching*, Advanced online publication, 1-6.

The discourse semantic meanings of 'showing' in scientific texts

Jing Hao

The Hong Kong Polytechnic University
English Department, Room FG325, Chung Sze Yuen Building, PolyU, Hunghom, Kowloon, HK
jing.hao@polyu.edu.hk

Abstract

In systemic functional grammar, verbal and relational processes are described as being topologically close to each other. At the border of the two process types, 'symbolic' relationships are established, with the processes being realised typically through a 'showing' verb (e.g. *show, indicate, demonstrate, suggest, illustrate*). Borderline examples of verbal and relational processes are found to be significant in academic discourse (Christie & Cléirigh, 2008). This paper approaches this grammatical ambiguity from a discourse semantic perspective. It questions what discourse semantic meanings are construed by the resources at the border of verbal and relational processes (c.f. Halliday & Matthiessen, 1999; Martin, 1992). In this paper I examine discourse semantic meanings of 'showing' in scientific texts, including laboratory reports and research reports in undergraduate biology. The discourse semantic meanings construed by 'showing' are explored from a multifunctional perspective, by looking at ideational configuration, interpersonal enactment and textual composition. The exploration reveals a distinction between a positioned figure and a sequence. This distinction also provides a new way of understanding internal logical relationship between figures.

1   Grammatical consideration of 'showing'

In systemic functional grammar, process types in TRANSITIVITY system include material, behavioural, mental, verbal, relational and existential processes. While the categories of process type is a typological description of grammatical resources, they are in fact related to one another topologically at the same time (Martin & Matthiessen, 1991). That is to say, process types are not only described in terms of how different they are, but also their similarities. The topological closeness among choices in a system is a fundamental principle on which the system is based, which has been known as **systemic indeterminacy** (Halliday & Matthiessen, 1999). As Halliday and Matthiessen (1999) suggest, 'the world of our experience is highly indeterminate, and this is precisely how the grammar construes it in the system of process types' (p. 547-562).

Of particular concern in this paper is the borderline region in TRANSITIVITY that blends characteristics of both verbal and relational processes. Canonically, a verbal process, such as in [a], involves a conscious participant Sayer, a projected Locution, and a potential Receiver.

[a]	The president	told	us	‖ this is the end of the war
	Sayer	Process	Receiver	Locution

The reported Locution in a verbal process can also be quoted − The president told us: *"This is the end of the war"*.

A prototypical relational process, particularly the intensive type, is configured with a Token and a Value. The Token plays the role of Subject when the process is in active voice. In example [b], the Token *cytosl* represents the Value *the semifluid substance*. No projection is shown in the relational process.

[b]	Cytosl	is	the semifluid substance
	Token	Process: intensive identifying	Value

While verbal and relational processes are different, their characteristics can be blended to establish a 'symbolic' relationship between two participants. The abstract and symbolic relationship is typically realised through a 'showing' verb. Example [c] represents a borderline case.

[c] The results indicate that the viability is lost between the crop and the caeces in the second instar individuals.

Firstly [c] has characteristics of a verbal process, as it allows a participant Receiver to be included in this clause: *the results indicate to us (that…)*. However, unlike canonical verbal process, the Locution in [c] can only be reported but not quoted.

* The results indicate, "the viability is lost between the crop and the faeces in the second instar individuals."

Apart from the characteristics of a verbal process, [c] also has characteristics of a relational identifying process. *The results* can function as a Token, which represents a Value as a fact. The fact is realised through a down-ranked clause.

The results	indicate	(the fact) [[that the viability is lost between the crop and the faeces in the second instar individuals]]
Token	Process: identifying	Value

Clauses like [c] have characteristics of both verbal and relational processes[18]. Such clauses are significant grammatical resources in academic discourse. Christie and Cléirigh (2008) have shown that students from mid to late adolescence start to draw on the grammatical resource of 'showing' to create symbolic meaning across subject areas including English, history and science.

In this study, I explore how and why the meanings at the border of verbal and relational processes is used in scientific texts. Instead of making a grammatical distinction between the two process types, I question what discourse semantic meaning is construed through a process of 'showing'. A set of scientific texts in biology are analysed, including high-graded laboratory reports and research reports produced by undergraduate students, and published research articles. The data are not used for comparing texts produced at different academic levels, but for allowing a full range of high-valued resources in scientific writing to be shown. Similar to the secondary school texts examined by Christie and Cléirigh (2008), 'showing' verbs such as *demonstrate, show, indicates* occur frequently in my data; however, unlike the data illustrated in Christie and Cléirigh (2008), which are relatively congruent, the processes of 'showing' in this study often involve grammatical metaphors (Halliday, 1985; Martin, 2008). In this study a more complex set of discourse semantic meanings made by 'showing' therefore needs to be considered. To allow a comprehensive and

---

[18] Note that such relational identifying process has also been described in the literature as being configured with three Participants (e.g. Halliday 1985: 153-154, Martin 1992: 228). The 'fact' may be identified as a Token which is assigned by an Assigner (e.g. *the results*) to be a fact. The Value, that is the identification of the Token as *a fact*, is seen as elliptical.

103

productive view of 'showing' to be revealed, I adapt a trinocular approach in the analysis.

2   A trinocular approach

SFL sees meanings as being organised onto different levels of abstraction, such as field, discourse semantics and lexicogrammar (following Martin's (1992) model of stratified context). From this perspective, meaning at a certain stratum, such as discourse semantics, is not considered in isolation, but is based on: 1) meaning that is construed at the higher stratum (field), 2) the realisation of the meaning at the lower stratum (lexicogrammar), and 3) meanings in the other metafunctions at the given stratum (discourse semantics). This simultaneous consideration of meaning-making from 'above', 'below' and 'around' is known as a trinocular perspective of language (Halliday, 1996/2002, p. 398; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014, p. 35; Matthiessen & Halliday, 1997/2009). The enquiry of this study is situated at the level of discourse semantics. The grammatical ambiguity of 'showing' is a perspective from 'below'. In this paper, I focus specifically on exploring discourse semantic meanings made by 'showing' from 'around'; that is to say, to consider the discourse semantic meanings made by 'showing' in different metafunctions – including experiential configuration and logical connection in ideational metafunction; enactment of APPRAISAL, particularly ENGAGEMENT, in interpersonal metafunction; and composition of texts through IDENTIFICATION in textual metafunction.

3   Discourse semantic meanings realised by 'showing'

3.1   Interpersonal enactment

From an interpersonal perspective, meanings construed by 'showing' verbs in the data are associated closely with choices in the system of ENGAGEMENT in APPRAISAL. Through the resources of ENGAGEMENT, a writer can manage the dialogic space when introduces a proposition. A dialogic space can be either **expanded** by inviting potential voices to agree or disagree the proposition (e.g. *many people believe that…; it is said that…; the study claims that…*), or it can be **contracted** to provide a strong value of a proposition as being valid and plausible (e.g. *the facts of the matters are…; the reports demonstrates/provides that…*) (Martin & White, 2005, p. 134).

In my data, 'showing' verbs typically carry a heterroglossic value of a proposition. The potential dialogic space of a proposition was found to be either expanded, such as in [d], or contracted such as in [e].

> [d] Our results suggest [expand] *that size also becomes a determining factor*.
> [e] The minimal variability that existed between the readings demonstrated [contract] *the pipette was fairly precise*.

'Showing' verb therefore can play a significant role that allows heterroglossic value of a proposition (i.e. 'what is shown') to be negotiated. As Hood (2010) argues, when representing academic knowledge, while our position is required to be 'objective', it is in fact persuasive in nature.

3.2   Experiential configuration

From an experiential perspective, I draw on the distinction between two discourse semantic units – entity and figure (Martin, 1992; Halliday & Matthiessen, 1999; Hao,

2015). Entities realise taxonomies of people, things, places and activities in a given field; and a figure can realise either an activity (e.g. *we went to the zoo*), an elaboration of an entity (e.g. *Elephant is a mammal*), or an extension of an entity (e.g. *Elephants are big*) (Hao, 2015). Drawing on the distinction between entities and figures, it was found in the data that clauses of 'showing' can construe different discourse semantic configurations.

Firstly, it is possible that both 'what shows' and 'what is shown' are entities[19]. This configuration has only found in the data to establish a relationship between an experimental tool and biological phenomena, such as in [f].

> [f] <u>The flask</u> containing lactose demonstrated <u>a higher level of B-galactosidase activity</u>.

Secondly, clauses of 'showing' can construe a relationship between an entity and a figure, with 'what shows' referring to an entity and 'what is shown' referring to a figure. This configuration is exemplified in [g] and [h] below.

> [g] <u>We</u> suppose *that size also becomes a determining factor*.
> [h] <u>Radioactivity method</u> suggested *that the pipette was highly accurate*.

Drawing on findings from the interpersonal perspective, the entity that 'shows' provides a source of the proposition. The configuration of the source and the 'showing' verb provides a **position** of the figure (Hao, 2015). Ideationally, the position augments the structure of the figure. Apart from the 'showing' process, a figure can also be positioned through a Circumstance [Angle] in a clause. For example the attested example in [h'] below is agnate with the clause in [h].

> [h'] According to <u>radioactivity method</u> [Cir: Angle], *the pipette was highly accurate*.

A further ideational discourse semantic configuration construed by a showing process is constituted by two figures. In contrast to the positioned figure, 'what shows' in this configuration realises a figure and it **always** realises the figure metaphorically. This configuration is exemplified in [i], [j] and [k] below.

> [i] ***[[That the result also displayed a strong linear relationship]]*** suggests *the pipette was both accurate and precise throughout its range*.
> [j] *The minimal **variability** that existed between the readings* demonstrated *the pipette was fairly precise*.
> [k] *The flask demonstrated a lower level of B-galactosidase activity*. **<u>This</u>** suggests *that gene expression controls B-galactosidase activity*.
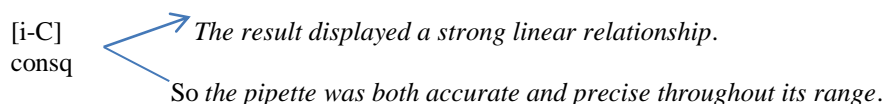
As demonstrated in these examples, a figure that 'shows' can be realised metaphorically through a range of resources – e.g. through an embedded clause in [i]; through a nominalisation in [j]; and it can be tracked through a discourse referent *this* in [k].

In sum, clauses of 'showing' can construe different kinds of ideational discourse semantic meanings – a figure which represents a going-on; a positioned figure in which its source and dialogic space is made explicit; and a sequence in which figures are logically connected to one another. When a clause construes a sequence, the logical relationship between the figures is also associated with 'showing'. This brings us to the logical perspective on 'showing'.
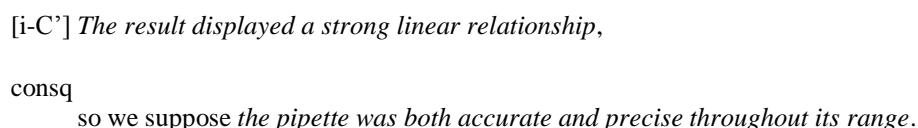
---

[19] In this paper, entities in the examples are underlined; figures are in italics; experiential metaphors are in bold and italics; and logical metaphors are in bold and underlined.

3.3 Logical connexion

When the clause construes a sequence metaphorically, it is important to unpack the grammatical metaphors to reveal the discourse semantic meanings. Through unpacking, an internal consequential logical connexion[20] (following Martin, 1992) that relates the figures can be revealed. The metaphorical realisation of sequence in [i] above can be unpacked as in [o-C].

[i-C]
consq *The result displayed a strong linear relationship.*

So *the pipette was both accurate and precise throughout its range.*

An internal logical connexion can be alternatively paraphrased as an external one by switching the taxis from non-hypotactic to hypotactic or vice versa; by doing so, a verbal or mental process can be forced out (Martin, 1992, p. 226). The sequence in [p] therefore can also be realised as in [i-C'] below. The internal connexion *so* is then paraphrased as *so we suppose.*

[i-C'] *The result displayed a strong linear relationship,*

consq
so we suppose *the pipette was both accurate and precise throughout its range.*

Ideationally both ways of unpacking the logical connexion can make explicit the cause/effect relationship between the figures; interpersonally however, the unpacking into internal logical connexion does not reveal the dialogic expansion enacted by *suggests* in the initial metaphorical realisation in [p], but the unpacking into an externalised logical connexion *so we suppose* does. That is to say, the 'showing' verb can realise a combination of external logical connexion and a position of 'what is shown'. The ideational configuration and the interpersonal prosody of the sequence can be represented as in Table 1 below.

discourse semantics	figure	conx. [consq]	position ' ' [expand]	figure
[i-C']	The result displayed a strong linear relationship	so	we suppose	the pipette was fairly precise

Table 1. Discourse semantic structure of a sequence

In sum, from a logical perspective, 'showing' can be used to construe a causal connexion while negotiating a dialogic space at the same time.

3.4 Textual composition

From a textual perspective, of concern is the ways in which ideational and interpersonal meanings are organised in the text. As far as the grammatical realisation of verbal/relational processes is concerned, of particular relevance is the choices in IDENTIFICATION system, which is concerned with presenting and tracking meanings in the discourse (Martin, 1992, p. 105). The distinction between identifying generic or specific meanings is particularly relevant to my data.

---

[20] Instead of using 'conjunction' as in Martin (1992) to refer to the expanding logical relationship between figures in discourse semantics, the term 'connexion' is used here to distinguish itself from CONJUNCTION in lexicogrammar.

It was found in the data that 'what shows' is mostly specific (if not always) and 'what is shown' can be either specific or generic. The specific meaning that 'shows' can refer to a range of meanings. When it is an entity, the entity can refer to an instrumental tool in the laboratory (*the flask demonstrated*), a specific method that was carried out in the experiment (*this method showed; the weight-of-water method suggested*), a study (*Thorsen (1999) reported*), or an experimental result (*our results suggest*). When 'what shows' realises a figure, it is typically a specific going-on that has been introduced in the preceding text, such as in [l]

> [l] *After a period of time, the level of B-galactosidase activity sharply rose*. **This** [anaphoric] suggests…

With respect to 'what is shown', it can either refer to a specific or a generic going-on. When it is specific, the figure is typically a specific experimental result. As exemplified in [m] and [n], the specificity of the figure is shown by specific entities (e.g. *the pipette*) involved in the figure and/or specific event (e.g. *was; were engulfed*) that is anchored in the past.

> [m] <u>This method</u> suggested *that the pipette* [exophoric] *was quite accurate throughout its range*
> [n] <u>We</u> showed *that a larger proportion of beads were engulfed by phagocytes in infected (febrile) than in non-infected thermoregulating locusts*

Apart from specific meanings, a great number of 'what is shown' in the data refer to generic goings-on. As exemplified in [o] and [p], the generic figures involve generic entities (e.g. *gene expression*; *B-galactosidase activity*; *thermoregulation*; *hemocyte concentrations*) and events (e.g. *controls*; *can prevent*) that can be generalised across time and space.

> [o] *The flasks [[…]], demonstrated a lower level of B-galactosidase activity*. **This** **<u>demonstrated</u>** *that gene expression controls B-galactosidase activity*.
> [p] <u>We</u> show here that *thermoregulation can prevent hemocyte concentrations from declining (as a result of infection)*.

From the textual perspective, 'showing' can relate specific meanings in laboratory experiment to specific experimental results, and more importantly to the generalised and shared scientific knowledge. In other words, 'showing' is a significant linguistic resource that is used for producing knowledge in the scientific field.

4   Conclusion

This paper has explored meanings of 'showing' at the ambiguous border of verbal and relational process types by looking at the level of discourse semantics. This exploration has revealed that, the process of 'showing' plays a significant role in making meanings in all metafunctions. It contributes to establishing different experiential configurations; negotiating heteroglossic space; connecting figures logically; and generalising scientific knowledge. The study has also developed discourse semantic description. Through the trinocular perspective, an important distinction has been made between a positioned figure and a sequence. The analysis has also provided a new understanding of internal logical relationship.

References

Christie, F. & Cléirigh C. (2008). On the importance of 'showing'. The University of Sydney
Halliday, M. A. K. (1985). *An introduction to functional grammar*. London: Edward Arnold.

Halliday, M.A.K. (1996/2002). On grammar and grammatics. In J. Webster (Ed.), *On Grammar (Vol. 1 in the Collected Works of M.A.K. Halliday)* (pp. 384-417). London and New York: Continuum.

Halliday, M. A. K. & Matthiessen, C. M. I. M. (1999). *Construing experience through meaning: a language-based approach to cognition*. London: Cassell.

Halliday, M. A. K. & Matthiessen, C. M. I. M. (2014). *Halliday's introduction to functional grammar*. London and New York: Routledge.

Hao, J. (2015). *Construing Biology: An ideational perspective*. Unpublished PhD thesis. The University of Sydney

Hood, S. (2010). *Appraising research: evaluation in academic writing*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.

Martin, J. R. (1992). *English text: system and structure*. Amsterdam: Benjamins

Martin, J. R. (2008). Incongruent and proud: de-vilifying 'nominalization'. *Discourse & Society, 19*(6), 801-810.

Martin, J. R. & Matthiessen, C. M. I. M. (1991). *Systemic typology and topology.* Paper presented at the Literacy in Social Processes: papers from the inaugural Australian Systemic Linguistics Conference, held at Deakin University, Deakin University.

Martin, J. R. & White, P. R. R. (2005). *The language of evaluation: appraisal in English*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.

Matthiessen, C. M. I. M. & Halliday, M. A. K. (1997/2009). *Systemic functional grammar: a first step into the theory*. Beijing: Higher Education Press.

44th International Systemic Functional Congress
Wollongong
July, 2017