SYSTEMIC FUNCTIONAL ANALYSIS OF TEXTS - READING AND WRITING
LINGUA INGLESE III (SECONDA LINGUA)-a.a. 2017/2018
LANGUAGE FUNCTIONS
LANGUAGE FUNCTIONS: CLASSIFICATION

Buhler’s tripartite model of linguistic functions

INFORMATIVE FUNCTION

EXPRESSIVE FUNCTION

VOCATIVE/DIRECTIVE FUNCTION
Jakobson’s six language functions

- emotive/expressive: focal point of the relation is the addresser
- conative/directive: focal point of the relation is the addressee
- referential/informative: focal point of the relation is context
- Phatic: focal point of the relation is contact
- metalinguistic: focal point of the relation is code
- poetic/aesthetic: focal point of the relation is message
Reiss’s language functions

ˈinformativeˈ

ˈexpressiveˈ

ˈoperativeˈ

ˈaudiomedialˈ (1970s)
Reiss’s text types according to their function
INFORMATIVE FUNCTION

To convey information to convince the reader. To use descriptive, declarative or informative language forms. The main object is to provide information about a given topic.
EXPRESSIVE FUNCTION

To use effective or emotive forms, mainly expressing the speaker's state of mind or feeling
imperative form, primarily seeking to bring out certain behaviour in the hearer
Text types

NARRATIVE

DESCRIPTIVE

ARGUMENTATIVE

EXPLANATORY /INSTRUCTIVE

EXPOSITORY
NARRATIVE TYPE DEFINITION

This text is used to talk about characters, plots, settings, themes through vocabulary, idioms, figures of speech, different registers, etc. all contributing to transmitting an experience, real or imaginary.

Examples: Literary genres: adventures, mysteries, fiction, non-fiction, myths, playscripts, fables, tales, film narratives, poetry and others.
DESCRIPTIVE TEXT DEFINITION

This text-type describes the characteristics of a person, object, image or place. This type of text also enables the reader to see, to feel, to hear, to smell and to taste what the author has seen, felt, heard, smelt and tasted.

Examples: technical descriptions in scientific encyclopedias, handbooks, dictionaries, guides but also descriptions in novels.
ARGUMENTATIVE TEXT DEFINITION

It uses reasoned, logical evidence provided as proof for assertions or claims. The author’s intention is to persuade the reader to change his/her mind, to agree with him/her.

Examples: Claim letters, legal documents, debates, ads
It is a text that gives procedures, talks about processes, tells the reader what to do and how to do it, includes information about causes, motives or reasons.

Examples: Manuals, summaries, reports, recipes, addresses, letters of instructions, commercial and political propaganda, regulations, rules etc.
EXPOSITORY TEXT TYPE DEFINITION

Objects and ideas are explained in their interrelationships. It is information-based; details and steps are given in chronological order.

Some common examples are: Textbooks, News articles, Instruction manuals, Recipes, City or country guides, Language books, Self-help books.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TEXT TYPES</th>
<th>COMMUNICATIVE PURPOSE</th>
<th>GENRE</th>
<th>STRUCTURE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Narrative</td>
<td>What happens</td>
<td>Literary genres: adventures, mysteries, fiction, non-fiction, myths, play scripts, fables, tales, film narratives, poetry.</td>
<td>Beginning Problem Resolution Ending</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Descriptive</td>
<td>What somebody, something, some place is like</td>
<td>technical descriptions in scientific encyclopedias, handbooks, dictionaries, guides.</td>
<td>General presentation Detail in (thematic, spatial, temporal...) order</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Argumentative</td>
<td>What is posed as defence, analysis or refutation of something</td>
<td>Claim letters, legal documents, debates, ads.</td>
<td>Introduction / Development, e.g. Comparison-Contrast Conclusion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Explanatory Instructive</td>
<td>How to-</td>
<td>Manuals, summaries, reports, recipes, letters of instructions, commercial and political propaganda, regulations, rules etc.</td>
<td>Schema (step by step; order is of paramount importance)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expositive</td>
<td>Why, how, what... They’re easy to understand if they’re well written.</td>
<td>Textbooks, News articles, Instruction manuals, Recipes, City or country guides, Language books, Self-help books</td>
<td>Presentation Development Summary/Conclusion</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


SFL Home - ISFLA – International Systemic Functional Linguistics Association (online resources)
Oxford Advanced Learner’s Dictionary, with new iSpeak and iWrite on DVD and online, 9° Edition (2015)
Halliday states that language is the study of how people exchange meanings through the use of language. Systemic Functional theory views language as a social semiotic a resource that people use to accomplish their purposes by expressing meanings in context. Halliday wrote, “the value of theory” lies in the use that can be made of it. He has always considered a theory of language to be essentially “consumer oriented”. (Introduction to Functional Grammar, 1985)

SFL is an approach to linguistics that considers language as a social semiotic system.
An example of a semiotic system: the traffic light
«Language arises in the life of the individual through an ongoing exchange of meanings with significant others. A child creates, first his child tongue, then his mother tongue, in interaction with that little coterie of people who constitute his meaning group. In this sense, language is a product of the social process» (Halliday 1978)
«Social in the sense of the social system, which I take to be synonymous with the culture. So when I say ‘social-semiotic’ I am referring to the definition of a social system, or a culture, as a system of meanings. But I also intend a more specific interpretation of the word ‘social’ to indicate that we are concerned particularly with the relationships between language and social structure, considering the social structure as one aspect of the social system» (Halliday 1985)
To define language as a social semiotic implies that a ‘community’ of speakers share knowledge about the language system, meanings and situations. From a Functional Grammar perspective, language can be considered a multilayered system in which speakers and writers make linguistic choices appropriate to a given context.

For Halliday, culture is the whole meaning and the total set of options in behaviour that are available to the individual in his existence as social man.
Language, Culture and Ideology

Systemic Functional Linguistics considers language to have evolved under the pressure of the particular functions that the language system has to serve. Functions are therefore taken to have left their mark on the structure and organization of language at all levels.

For Halliday, language is conditioned by:

- The context of culture
- The context of situation
Culture is important to understand the history behind the speech event and relates to the norms and values of a speech community.
Context of situation is the particular context in which a text is produced.
constructed in/ by

constructing

CONTEXT

TEXT
FROM CONTEXT OF CULTURE TO LANGUAGE SYSTEM

CONTEXT of CULTURE
- social purpose
- sets of beliefs
- social practices
- social relations
- values

CONTEXT of SITUATION
- FIELD
- TENOR
- MODE

LANGUAGE SYSTEM
- IDEATIONAL RESOURCES
- INTERPERSONAL RESOURCES
- TEXTUAL RESOURCES

TEXT
The context of situation consists of three variables:

**FIELD** (what is going on)

**TENOR** (the social roles and relationships between the participants)

**MODE** (aspects of the channel of communication, e.g., monologic/dialogic, spoken/written, +/- visual-contact, etc.).

The context of situation and its three variables helps us to understand why certain things are written in a certain way rather than in another.
These three variables, **Field, Tenor and Mode**, activate three different sets of meaning (at the level of semantics):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The ideational meaning (also referred to as representational or experiential)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The interpersonal meaning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The textual meaning</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Ideational, Interpersonal and Textual Meaning

- The ideational meanings are those concerned with the encoding of our experiences in the external and in our internal world.

- The interpersonal meanings concerns our social role, our personalities, feelings and forms of interaction with other participants.

- The textual meanings enables us to create a text which means that our speech is organised in a way that it makes sense in the context and satisfies its function as a message.
Ideational, Interpersonal and Textual Meaning

- **IN OTHER WORDS:**
- **Field:** it refers to the subject matter: what is happening, to whom, where and when, why it is happening, and so on...
- **Tenor:** it refers to the social relation existing between the interactants in a speech situation. It includes relations of formality, power, and affect (manager/clerk, father/son). Tenor influences interpersonal choices in the linguistic system.
- **Mode:** it describes the way the language is being used in the speech interaction, including the medium (spoken, written, written to be spoken, etc.) as well as the rhetorical mode (expository, instructive, persuasive, etc.).
TO SUM UP:

LANGUAGE HAS THREE ‘METAFUNCTIONS’:

LANGUAGE CONSTRUCTS AN ACTION, EVENT OR STATE IN THE ‘REAL’ WORLD (ITS IDEATIONAL OR EXPERIENCIAL REPRESENTATIONAL OR FUNCTION)

LANGUAGE IS AN EXCHANGE AND ASSIGNS ROLES TO PARTICIPANTS (INTERPERSONAL FUNCTION)

LANGUAGE IS A MESSAGE, HAVING A STRUCTURE AND CONTRIBUTING TO A LARGER TEXTUAL UNIT (TEXTUAL FUNCTION)
Ideational, Interpersonal and Textual Meaning

These three levels of meaning are mapped onto the same clause in its lexico-grammatical structure.

What is important to understand is that every clause, all three sets of meanings are present. In fact, a clause can be considered at the same time:

- **CLAUSE AS REPRESENTATION**
- **CLAUSE AS EXCHANGE**
- **CLAUSE AS MESSAGE**

There are also other meanings, the **logical meanings**, that are a sub-category of the ideational meaning and concern the logical-semantic relationship between the clauses (taxis).
PROCESS OF TEXT CREATION

Context of Situation

I Field
“What’s going on?”

II Tenor
“Who is taking part?”

III Mode
“How are the meanings being exchanged?”

Semantics
(meanings)

Ideational
Speaker as Observer
Experiential meanings
Logical meanings

Interpersonal
Speaker as Participant/Intruder

Textual
Speaker as Text-Maker

Lexico-grammar
(wordings)

Clause as Representation
Transitivity Structure
Clause Interdependency (taxis)
Logico-semantic relations

Clause as Exchange
MOOD, MODALITY, APPRAISAL SYSTEMS

Clause as Message
Thematic + Info Structure, grammatical parallelism/
non-structural cohesive devices/ discourse structure
## FIELD, IDEATIONAL, CLAUSE AS REPRESENTATION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FIELD</th>
<th>IDEATIONAL</th>
<th>CLAUSE AS REPRESENTATION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>What is going on?</td>
<td>Speaker as Observer</td>
<td><strong>TRANSLIVITY STRUCTURE</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Experiential meanings</td>
<td>Clause interdependence (taxis)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Logical meanings</td>
<td>Logical semantic relations</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Transitivity Structure

It is the name of that part of grammar in which speakers realize ideational meanings in the clause. Speakers encode their experiential reality in terms of Process types, Participants and Circumstances.
Transitivity Structure: Processes, Participants, Circumstances

- Therefore, a representation of reality consists of:

  - 1. **Processes**: what kind of event/state is being described.

  - 2. **Participants**: the entities involved in the process, Actor, Sayer, Senser, etc.

  - 3. **Circumstances**: specifying the where, when, why and how of the process.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>THE DOG</th>
<th>BIT</th>
<th>THE POSTMAN</th>
<th>YESTERDAY</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PARTICIPANT</td>
<td>PROCESS</td>
<td>PARTICIPANT</td>
<td>YESTERDAY</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Transitivity Structure: Types of Processes

- There are four main types of processes:
  - **Material** (‘doing’): kick, ran, paint, repair, send, burn...
  - **Verbal** (‘saying’): say, tell, warn, ask, argue...
  - **Mental** (‘experiencing’ or ‘sensing’): see, hear, know, like,...
  - **Relational** (‘being’ or ‘becoming’): be have, become,...
Transitivity Structure: Material Processes and Participants

- **Material Processes**: physical actions in the real world.
- **Participants**:
  - **Actor**: the one who does the action
  - **Goal**: The one who is affected by the action
  - **Recipient**: the one who receives something
  - **Beneficiary**: the one for whom something is done
Transitivity Structure: Material processes and Participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Actor</th>
<th>Process</th>
<th>Goal</th>
<th>Circ: destination</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>John</td>
<td>drove</td>
<td>Mary</td>
<td>home</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mary</td>
<td>was driven</td>
<td>home</td>
<td>by John</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Actor</th>
<th>Process</th>
<th>Recipient</th>
<th>Goal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>John</td>
<td>gave</td>
<td>Mary</td>
<td>a book</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Actor</th>
<th>Process</th>
<th>Recipient</th>
<th>Goal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>John</td>
<td>built</td>
<td>Mary</td>
<td>a house</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- John drove Mary home
- Mary was driven home by John
- John gave Mary a book
- John built Mary a house
Transitivity Structure: Mental Processes and Participants

- **Mental Processes**: processes of perception, cognition, affection

- **Senser**: the one who does the mental action

- **Phenomenon**: The thing that is perceived, thought, appreciated
Transitivity Structure: Mental Processes and Participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perception:</th>
<th>John</th>
<th>saw</th>
<th>Mary</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Senser</td>
<td>Process</td>
<td>Phenomenon</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cognition:</th>
<th>John</th>
<th>thought</th>
<th>that Mary was coming</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Senser</td>
<td>Process</td>
<td>Phenomenon</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Emotion:</th>
<th>Mary</th>
<th>liked</th>
<th>what he liked</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Senser</td>
<td>Process</td>
<td>Phenomenon</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>That he was tall</th>
<th>pleased</th>
<th>Mary</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Phenomenon</td>
<td>Process</td>
<td>Senser</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Transitivity Structure: Verbal Processes and their Participants

- **John** said that he was tired
  - Sayer: John
  - Process: said
  - Verbiage: that he was tired

- **John** told **Mary** to go
  - Sayer: John
  - Process: told
  - Addressee: Mary
  - Verbiage: to go

- **John** was told to go by **Mary**
  - Addressee: John
  - Process: was told
  - Verbiage: to go
  - Sayer: Mary
Transitivity Structure: Relational Processes and their Participants

- Relational Processes: expressing possession, equivalence, attributes...

- **Carrier**: An entity being described
- **Attribute**: The description of the entity

- **Possessor**: the one owning or containing something
- **Possessed**: the thing owned or contained.

```
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Carrier</th>
<th>Process</th>
<th>Attribute</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>John</td>
<td>is</td>
<td>tall</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
```

```
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Possessor</th>
<th>Process</th>
<th>Possession</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>John</td>
<td>owns</td>
<td>a Mercedes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
```
Transitivity Structure: Relational Processes and their Participants

- **Token**: an entity being equated with another
- **Value**: the other description.

```
John is the president
```

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Token</th>
<th>Process</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>John</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>is</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the president</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Transitivity Structure: Circumstances

- **Circumstances**: any kind of contingent fact or subsidiary situation which is associated with the process or the main situation

- The museum is *round the corner*
- Do it *gently*.
- He watered the garden *with a hose*
- I left *because I was tired*.
Transitivity Structure: Circumstances

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Subtype</th>
<th>PROBE</th>
<th>EXAMPLE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Location</td>
<td>spatial</td>
<td>where?</td>
<td>in the corner</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>temporal</td>
<td>when?</td>
<td>yesterday</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extent</td>
<td>spatial</td>
<td>how far?</td>
<td>3 miles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>temporal</td>
<td>how long?</td>
<td>since 1983, for 3 weeks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Origin</td>
<td></td>
<td>where from?</td>
<td>from London</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Destination</td>
<td></td>
<td>where to?</td>
<td>to Sydney</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manner</td>
<td></td>
<td>how?</td>
<td>quickly, smoothly, by car</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cause</td>
<td>reason</td>
<td>why?</td>
<td>because she was tired</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>purpose</td>
<td>for what reason?</td>
<td>to open the lid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>behalf</td>
<td>who for?</td>
<td>for your children</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contingency</td>
<td>condition</td>
<td>under what conditions</td>
<td>(I will) if you let me</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>concession</td>
<td>despite what?</td>
<td>(I won) despite my handicap</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accompaniment</td>
<td></td>
<td>with who/what?</td>
<td>(he went) with me</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Role</td>
<td></td>
<td>what as?</td>
<td>(he went) as a fish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Matter</td>
<td></td>
<td>what about?</td>
<td>(we talked) about love</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on: Droga and Humphrey 2002 Getting Started with Functional Grammar, p16
TENOR, INTERPERSONAL, CLAUSE AS EXCHANGE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TENOR</th>
<th>INTERPERSONAL</th>
<th>CLAUSE AS EXCHANGE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Who is taking part?</td>
<td>Speaker as Participant, Intruder</td>
<td>MOOD AND MODALITY</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
TENOR, INTERPERSONAL, CLAUSE AS EXCHANGE

The interpersonal meaning includes the expression of our own personalities and personal feelings on the one hand, and forms of interaction and social interplay with other participants in the communication situation on the other hand (Halliday 1997).

TENOR is concerned with the kind of exchange taking place, attitude and personalities of the participants, social and discourse roles.
Language involves interactions where we initiate or respond to the act of giving or demanding for goods-and-services or information. The grammatical system of this function is the **MOOD NETWORK**.
The MOOD elements are SUBJECT (S) and FINITE (F). Subject in the Mood network corresponds to the Subject in traditional grammar. The Finite is the part of the verbal group that encodes primary tense and polarity. It can also express the speaker's opinion in terms of MODALITY.

Other constituents of the clause as exchange are:

- **PREDICATOR**: the second part of the verbal group

Examples:

- ‘He has gone’: **has** is the FINITE, **gone** is the PREDICATOR
- ‘He has arrived’: **-ed** is the FINITE, **to arrive** is the PREDICATOR
- ‘Get out!’: **NO FINITE**, only PREDICATOR in the imperative.
Mood System: Subject and Finite

1. The SUBJECT-FINITE indicates in a clause whether the speakers is giving or demanding information. In short, the order of the Subject and Finite indicates whether the clause, is declarative, interrogative or imperative.
Mood System: Subject and Finite

Diagram:
- MOOD
  - Indicative
    - Declarative
  - Imperative
    - Interrogative
According to Halliday, there are basic mood structures which help us determine which speech function is being performed. The 4 basic speech functions (or discourse roles) in English are: OFFER, STATEMENT, COMMAND and QUESTION.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>goods &amp; services</th>
<th>information</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>giving</strong></td>
<td>offer</td>
<td>statement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>demanding</strong></td>
<td>command</td>
<td>question</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>proposal</td>
<td>proposition</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Offer: Would you like a cup of tea? (no 'standard' realization)
Command: Make me some tea! (typically realized by imperative)
Statement: I had to make the tea myself. (typically realized by declarative)
Question: Do you take sugar with your tea? What kind of tea do you prefer? (typically realized by interrogative)
Mood System: Declarative, Interrogative, Imperative in Giving and Demanding (Responses)

Response to offer: Yes please / No thanks.
Response to command: Hearer does something, or refuses to do something
Response to statement: Hearer acknowledges the proposition or contradicts it (e.g. yes; mm; right / No, you didn’t; That’s not true.).
Response to question: Yes; No; I prefer herbal tea. / Why are you asking me that?
The Subject–Finite also signals speaker’s opinion through **Modality**, Halliday defines as «the area of meaning that lies between yes and no – the intermediate ground between positive and negative polarity» (Halliday, 1994).

**Modal adjuncts** (adverbs in traditional grammar) are:

- **Adjuncts of Polarity and Modality**
  - **Polarity**: not, yes, no, so
  - **Probability**: probably, possibly, certainly, perhaps, maybe, definitely
  - **Usuality**: usually, sometimes, always, never, ever, seldom, rarely
  - **Inclination**: willingly, readily, gladly, certainly, easily.
  - **Obligation**: definitely, absolutely, possibly, at all cost
Mood System: Modality

- Adjuncts of Temporality
  - Time: yet, still, already, once, soon, just
  - Typicality: occasionally, generally, regularly, mainly

- Adjunct of Mood
  - Obviousness: of course, surely, obviously, clearly, evidently, apparently
  - Intensity: just, simply, merely, only, even, actually, really
  - Degree: quite, almost, nearly, scarcely, hardly, absolutely, totally, utterly, entirely, completely
**WHY ARE MOOD AND MODALITY SO IMPORTANT?**

- Systemic Functional Linguistics makes clear that *language is never ‘neutral’*. When we construct a text we always take into consideration the person/s we are interacting with.

- **Power, contact, social status** and **social roles** are some of the factors that influence how we interact with others. Our choices in the lexicogrammar of English can construe **deference, respect, solidarity** or **distance**; they can **save face, minimize conflict** or **signal uncertainty**.

- **Modality** is the system that allows us to signal some kind of doubt, uncertainty, necessity or willingness for various motives.
Mood and Modality

- Look at these **examples**:

  1) Morgana: Which dress do you think I look better in honey?
  - Dave: You might look better in that red one, dear. Why don’t you try it on again?

  2) Dave and I are sorry to hear about your dad.
  - Our most sincere condolences to you and your family.
  - Well, it’s about time that the ol’ creep kicked the bucket!
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MODE</th>
<th>TEXTUAL</th>
<th>CLAUSE AS MESSAGE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>How are the meaning exchanged?</td>
<td>Speaker as Text-Maker</td>
<td>THEMATIC AND INFORMATION STRUCTURE (structural cohesive devices)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>NON STRUCTURAL COHESIVE DEVICES</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The Realization of Textual Meanings

- Textual meaning, activated by the Mode of Discourse, and realized in the clause as message, concern cohesion, coherence, texture, and the overall organization of a text.

- **Channels of communication** (telephone, internet, mail, face-to-face interaction, reading, etc) and **medium** (degree of spoken-ness/written-ness) are strictly interrelated.
Spoken-ness or Written-ness?

- Is the language more typical of written text, that is generally very **lexically dense** (high incidence of lexical words, nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs vs grammatical words coming from closed sets of options: prepositions, conjunctions, modal verbs, pronouns, and articles) and ‘packaged’ (use of nominalization)?

- Is the language more typical of spoken text, that is, lexico-grammatically more intricate and more ‘choreographic’ (Halliday 1994) (clause complexes with elaborate logical relations between the clauses)?
The major system that is involved in the structural configuration by which the clause is organized as a message is the system of THEME.

THEME is the element which serves as «the starting point for the message: it is what the clause is going to be about» (Halliday 1994). Theme is what I, the speaker, has chosen for the message, «that with which the clause is concerned».

The remainder of the message, «the part in which the Theme is developed», is the RHEME. As we usually depart with what is familiar, the THEME is usually ‘given’ information in the context familiar to the reader.
Theme/Rheme: structural cohesive devices

- Unmarked themes
  - The **unmarked themes** are those configurations in which the Topical Theme and the Subjects in the MOOD SYSTEM conflates.
  - 1) **Police** shoot 15 African Demonstrators.
  - 2) **Rioting Blacks** shot by polics.
  - 3) In Salsbury, 15 demonstrators were shot by police.
Structural cohesive devices: Theme/Rheme

- **THEME** is the *element that comes first in the clause*. This may be a person, an action, a time, place, etc...; in other words, the whole nominal or verbal or advervial group or prepositional phrase in the first position becomes theme.

- **TOPICAL THEME** is the first element that also function as a *constituent of the TRANSITIVITY SYSTEM in the clause*.

- **Ex:**

  - Some 34 major studies involving nearly 1,000 human patients conducted during the decade between 1975 and 1986 have recently been published.

  - Recently, 34 major studies involving nearly 1,000 human patients conducted during the decade between 1975 and 1986 have been published some ....(results).
Theme/Rheme and Given/New

- **Theme/Rheme** is a textual structure and **GIVEN/NEW** is information structure. «Theme/Rheme is speaker-oriented, while Given/New is hearer oriented» (Halliday 1994). Themes tells the reader what the writer chooses as his/her point of departure in a text, what the writer sets up as the starting point of the message. The **GIVEN** is what the listener already knows and the **NEW** is basically the information presented to the listener: the GIVEN is information that is recoverable and the NEW is information non recoverable.

- **Example:** The time it takes the moon to orbit the Earth is called the **lunar month**. One lunar month is **twenty-seventy days**.
Structural cohesive devices: Grammatical parallelism

- Grammatical parallelism is a fundamental feature of poetry but not only. It consists of in a regular reiteration of equivalent units – sounds, syllables, words, groups, phrases and clauses.
Structural cohesive devices: Grammatical parallelism

- But then I slowly saw that not only was I not free, but my brothers and sisters were not free. I saw that it was not just my freedom that was curtailed, but the freedom of everyone who looked like I did. That is when I joined the African National Congress, and that is when the hunger for my own freedom became the greater hunger for the freedom of my people. It was this desire for the freedom of my people to live their lives with dignity and self-respect that animated my life, that transformed a frightened young man into a bold one, that drove a law-abiding attorney to become a criminal, that turned a family-loving husband into a man without a home, that forced a life-loving man to live like a monk.

- Nelson Mandela, *Long Walk to Freedom*
Structural cohesive devices: Grammatical parallelism

- **Grammatical cohesion works at:**
  - **Word level:** brothers, sisters, lexical chains: freedom
  - **Phrase level:** hunger for my own freedom...hunger for the freedom of my people...
  - **Clause level:** there is a reiteration of mental processes of perception (I saw), not only but....
Non-Structural Cohesive Devices

- Any piece of language unit has a meaning as a whole in some context, whether spoken or written, formal or colloquial, journalistic or academic, has cohesive elements tying the discourse together.
- Cohesion gives a sense of continuity. Understanding the role of cohesive elements will improve ones’ reading and writing skills.
- We will discuss the following types of cohesion.
Types of Cohesion

1. REFERENCE
   I. Exophoric and endophoric reference
   II. Anaphoric and cataphoric references

2. ELLIPSIS AND SUBSTITUTION

3. CONJUNCTIONS

4. LEXICAL COHESION
   I. Hyponymy
   II. Meronymy
   III. Collocation
Reference: Exophoric and Endophoric

- Ex.
- 1) I have a car. 2) It hates winter.

- In 1) I is an **exophoric reference**. The listener knows from the context of situation who I is referring to.

- In 2) IT is an **endophoric reference** pointing backwards in the text to car.
Endophoric references: anaphoric and cataphoric references

- **EX:**
  - I have a car. *It* hates winter.
  - Anaphoric reference points **backwards** in the text.

Although I phone *her* every week, *my mother* still complains that I don’t keep in touch often enough.

Cataphoric reference points **farward** in the text.
Ellipsis and Substitution

- Ellipsis is when something is left out. Ellipsis means that continuity is established by means of leaving out given information: a clause or part of a clause is **omitted** or **substituted**.

- **Ellipsis:**

  - ‘Did he get back?’ ‘He must have’ (‘got back’ is understood, but not stated)

- **Substitution:**

  - I like your car! ‘I think I will buy one’ (‘car’ is substituted with ‘one’)

Conjunction

- Logical semantic relationship between clauses are constructed through CONJUNCTIVE ADJUNCTS (although, as a result, furthermore, accordingly) or small group of conjunctions (and, or, not, about, yet, so, then).
- CONJUNCTIVE ADJUNCTS help the reader predict the discourse that follows by linking up with preceding text, but they also express particular meanings.
- The setup logico-semantic relationships of ELABORATION, EXTENTION and ENHANCEMENT.
Conjunction: Elaboration

- **Apposition**: they can exemplify, represent some information (in other words, for example, for instance, to illustrate, etc...)

- **Clarification**: they can clarify information (in particular, in short, to sum up, actually, in fact, etc...)
Conjunction: Extension

- **Addition**: they can add information
  (moreover, in addition, **on the other hand, however, alternatively**)

↓

- **Adversative**: they can add on adversative information (BUT)
Conjunction: Enhancement

- They create adhesion concerning time, manner, cause, etc...
- 1) Temporal conjunctions (then, next, afterwards, before, previously, in the end, finally, next day, an hour later, etc...)
- 2) Manner (likewise, similarly, in a different way)
- 3) Relation of cause (so, then, therefore, consequently, hence).
Lexical cohesion: repetition and synonymy

- Lexical cohesion is achieved through **REPETITION** and **SYNONYMY** (which includes hyponymy, meronomy) and **COLLOCATION**.

- **HYPONYMY**: refers to the relationship of **SPECIFIC-GENERAL** (‘Furniture’ is a hyponym of ‘chair’ and ‘sofa’).

- **MERONYMY**: refers to the relationship of **PART-WHOLE** (colon, liver, pancreas, stomach are all parts of the digestive system. All these words are **CO-HYPONYMS**.)
Lexical cohesion: repetition and synonymy

- In many ways, **meronymy** is significantly more complicated than hyponymy. The **Wordnet** databases specify three types of meronym relationships:
  
  - **Part meronym**: a 'tire' is part of a 'car'
  - **Member meronym**: a 'car' is a member of a 'traffic jam'
  - **Substance (stuff) meronym**: a 'wheel' is made from 'rubber'
Lexical cohesion: repetition and synonymy

- Well, Mrs Moss, I think you should avoid sleeping pills if you can. You may come to rely on them completely and find it impossible to sleep without them. I’d suggest some other remedies, perhaps very obvious ones. Have you tried drinking herb tea, like camomile, before you go to bed? This can help you relax. You could also try listening to music or reading.
Lexical cohesion: Collocation

- The last structural cohesive device in this category is **COLLOCATION**. The tendency for words to co-occur. Collocation is lexical cohesion which depends on a particular association between the items (‘plague’ and ‘osteoarthritis’, ‘do’ and ‘favour’).
Lexical cohesion: Collocation

- One of the fastest growing plagues of the modern world is osteoarthritis. It is an ugly disease that causes pain ranging from mild to severe. The pain and suffering can become extremely intolerable for most victims. They should expect more than what mainstream medicine has to offer.
Nominalization turns “X criticized Y” into “There has been criticism of Y” (Stubbs, 1998: 369-70);

For example, *There was a rise in the price of milk* instead of *The authorities put the price of milk up*;

Nominalization, thus, suspends/disconnects normal relations between participants, making it unclear who did what to whom;
NOMINALIZATION MECHANISM

- John criticized Mary for supporting Peter.
- John criticized Mary for supporting Peter.
- The criticism of Mary for supporting Peter.
- Mary’s criticism for supporting Peter.
LEVEL OF NOMINALIZATION

- The reviewers’ hostile criticism of his play (the critics received the play in a hostile manner)
- The reviewers’ criticism of his play
- The reviewers’ criticism
- Their criticism
- The criticism
Nominalization: Psychological Functions

- “Nominalizations have the discourse function of allowing information to be packaged,” which converts the verbal process with its ensuing participants into one nominal structure;
- Nominalizing “allows the writer to give the required flavour of objectivity to his or her statements and claims”;
- Nominalization disengages the speaker/writer from commitment to the truth of his/her statements by allowing him/her to make “unattributable claims”;
- Nominalization has the capacity to blur/mystify agency, thus “masking real intentions”;
- Nominalization has to do with the notion of “depersonalization”.
Experience of torture

(1)... As expected, ill-treatment was more common during interrogation than during imprisonment because the aim of interrogation in most cases was to gain information about Palestinian resistance and to obtain a confession. (2) Beatings (100 percent) and cold water (78 percent) were commonly experienced by Palestinian detainees during interrogation. (3) Starvation or minimal food (95 percent) and deprivation of drink (78 percent) were also frequently reported. (4) Psychological methods of torture were also often applied; only 5 percent of the studied ex-prisoners were spared solitary confinement, and only 10 percent had not faced abuse and threats during interrogation directed either at themselves or at their families. (5) False accusations during interrogation were familiar to all prisoners studied. (6) Furthermore, 70 percent had been exposed to false confessions, which were said to be given by comrades, and 82 percent were offered bribes to agree to falsify their own confession or incriminate a friend. (7) Of the detainees, 60 percent disclosed that false confessions were extorted by means of torture. (8) Sexual abuse was also frequently experienced, such as by hitting the sexual organs (80 percent) or sexual molestation (78 percent).