CHAPTER I
INTRODUCTION

1.0 Orientation
In the post-modern world there is a growing consciousness of the complexity of language. One reason of its complexity is the multiplicity of its functions. A piece of language is used to encode not only action but also interaction at the same time. Speakers or writers represent their experiences of reality, construct texts and simultaneously take certain positions in their messages, betray their attitude towards what they represent, exchange information or goods and services and define their own roles and the roles of their listeners or readers. Thus, other than the representational and the constructional, every use of language is interpersonal in its function, in that it is an act of interaction and builds, develops and maintains relationships between or among people involved in the act of interaction.

The resources for the grammaticalisation of interpersonal function in a text can be categorized under three labels – mood, modality and appraisal. Whereas the first two of these are primarily grammatical categories, the last one is strictly lexical. Halliday and Matthiessen (2004: 46) say, “Even in a general account of the grammar it is important to maintain a comprehensive picture which will show the relation between choice of words (lexical items) and choice of grammatical categories – especially in view of the complementarity between these two.”

Every language equips the producer of a text with a number of choices within the above-said grammatical and lexical categories to make the text mean in consonance with his or her beliefs, attitudes and ideologies, to position himself or herself and others, and to determine his or her role relations in relation to the receiver. The availability of choices results in variations in the resources by way the interpersonal is grammaticalised in a text. A look at the following texts will facilitate understanding of the idea:
1. Shut the door.
2. Could you please shut the door?

In both the texts, the commodity exchanged is the demand of a service i.e. shutting the door. In the former the demand is made in an imperative and sounds like a command; in the latter it is communicated in an interrogative and sounds like a request. Any choice between the two is bound to place the maker of the text in a certain position of power, betray his or her attitude and reflect his or her relationship with the receiver.

The variation in resources for grammaticalising the **interpersonal** function in a text may result from the distinct choices made by the language users at the individual level, or they may be located, at the wider level, in the types of texts and in cultures.

### 1.1 Objective of the Study

The present research undertakes the study of the two lexico-grammatical resources i.e. **modality** and **appraisal**, that are used by the Indian and the British newspapers in English to grammaticalise the **interpersonal** meanings in their news-reports and editorials. In so doing, it endeavors to make a statement, first, on the use of **appraisal** and **modality** in the language of news-reports and editorials of these two nations divided by culture, religion, ethnicity, history, geography and political affiliations. Second, it will find out the distinctiveness of the news-reports and editorials in terms of **interpersonal** features and ascertain genre variations or similarities or both. Third, an attempt will be made to unearth the respective ideological stances that the newspapers of these two nations hold and transmit in relation to the **interpersonal** function through their news-reports and editorials. Fourth, our objective is also to ascertain whether unmediated attitudes and opinions figure in news-reports, a genre which is generally kept in the category of ‘hard news’, and if yes, of how many types and to what extant and thus, in a way, complement and contribute to the previous research in journalistic discourse (Iedema, Feez and White 1994, White 1997, Martin and White 2007).

This way, this project with its exploration of the linguistic features of the Indian and the British journalism from the **interpersonal** point of view will contribute to the
field of language variation as a style, to the SFL as a theory, and to journalism by analyzing news-reports and editorials as texts of popular culture.

1.2 Newspaper as a Discourse and SFL as a Theory

Newspaper is one of the most popular and pervasive cultural products. Arnold B. Cheyney (1992:22) defines newspaper as “the textbook that provides up-to-date information on local, state/provincial national, and world affairs; the most current analysis and criticism on executive and legislative decision-making; the latest in music, theatre, television, and the fine arts and even columns and comics to make people laugh. Newspapers are among the most accessible texts available to the vast majority of people – literate, illiterate, young and old, students, workers, elites and peasants – in any community. This is because every category of reader mentioned above can find something they care about inside the newspaper’s pages.” Academic American Encyclopedia (1989: 171) calls newspaper “an unbound publication issued at regular intervals that seeks to inform, analyze, influence and entertain.” Voicing similar ideas, Feez, Iedema and White (2008: 71) put it, “Journalists often describe the purpose of the news-item as conveying who, what, when, where and why. For this reason news items in this resource are classified under the functional heading of chronicle in the sense that their explicit function is to chronicle or keep track of what happens in the real world.” It is therefore that newspaper discourse has always remained one of the most likeable fields of research for the linguists for it is supposed to be a potent means to construct or condition public opinion, to reinforce or challenge existing social structures and to indicate the presence of dissenting voices by representing or refuting them. This very idea is an inspiration to opt for newspaper discourse for the present study.

Every discourse comes to life through language. Fowler (1991: 3) opines, “Between human beings and the world they experience, there exist system of signs, which are the product of society. Signs acquire meaning through being structured into codes, the principal code being language. Other codes abound; they are language like in their structural properties, but more transient, less stable.” Therefore, analysis of a discourse means analysis of its language. Simultaneously, every discourse is context-
sensitive. Feez, Iedema and White (2008: 71) are of the view, “A media product, or indeed any text, is part of the fabric of a wider social context. A text is produced and interpreted in particular social settings. Its production and interpretation involve a set of activities and literary practices performed by people who are influenced by a range of past and present, personal and social experiences. These people are also influenced by other texts they have engaged with, as well as by technological constraints or innovations.” The justification for using Systemic Functional Linguistics as a theoretical model for conducting the present study on newspaper discourse lies in this very nature of discourse. Here it is to be considered that SFL views language as a context sensitive semiotic system that has its functional value in that it is goal-oriented and makes meaning.

1.4 Hypothesis
The hypothesis for the study is that the news-reports and editorials in the Indian newspapers vary from the news-reports and editorials in the British newspapers in their use of grammatical and lexical resources for grammaticalising interpersonal meanings since language provides a number of choices to the maker of a text. To test this hypothesis an integrated framework has been set up to analyze the data focusing on modality and appraisal motifs. To systematize the testing of the hypothesis, the following research questions have been addressed:

1. What are the trends in the Indian and the British newspapers in terms of appraisal motifs?
2. Does the grammaticalisation of modality in the Indian newspapers differ from those in the British newspapers in relation to its variants, value, orientation and resources?
3. What are the ideological stances in the Indian and the British newspapers? Do they vary? Are they same?
4. Is the use of grammatical and lexical resources for grounding interpersonal meanings in the news reports distinct from that in the editorials? If yes, what are the generical features of a news-report and what of an editorial?
1.5 Data
The data for the study comprises news-reports and editorials taken from the Indian and the British newspapers published in English. There are three Indian newspapers viz. *The Indian Express, The Hindu, and The Statesman*, and three British newspapers viz. *The Daily Telegraph, The Guardian, and The Independent*. The criterion followed for the collection of the data is as follows. First, a time limit for the data collection has been set. News-reports and editorials have been taken from the Indian and the British newspapers published during 1\textsuperscript{st} January 2007 and 31\textsuperscript{st} December 2008. Second, the selected news-reports and editorials are based on political themes of international concern. Third, in the selection of news-reports and editorials, the thematic similarity has been kept into consideration, that is, the themes of news-reports and editorials taken from the Indian newspapers is the same as the themes of news-reports and editorials taken from the British newspapers. This is done so that it can be analyzed how the same issue or problem is represented in the newspapers of these two different nations. Fourth, as there are usually a number of news-reports related to a single theme in all the six newspapers, the criterion for the selection of news-reports is that in both the cases the very first news-report that reports the happening is selected. In the journalistic jargon, such a news-report is called ‘breaking news’. The same is done in the selection of editorials if the situation is similar. Fifth, the selected news-reports and editorials figure in the internet editions of the Indian and the British newspapers. And finally, there are ten themes in the case of news-reports. It means there are ten news-reports taken from each newspaper. Hence, there are total sixty news-reports in the data, thirty each from the Indian and the British newspapers. The themes for news-reports are:

1. Twin blasts in Iraq
2. North and South Koreas signing a pact for peace
3. Pakistan’s suspension from the Commonwealth
4. Vladimir Putin naming Dmitry Medvedev as his successor
5. Benazir’s Assassination
6. Post-election violence in Kenya
7. Robert Mugabe losing majority in Zimbabwean Parliament
8. Nepal becoming a republic
9. Barack Obama winning the US presidential election
10. 26/11 terror attack on Mumbai

Further, in the case of editorials, out of the above stated ten themes, five themes have been opted. These are:

1. Benazir’s Assassination
2. Post-election violence in Kenya
3. Robert Mugabe losing majority in Zimbabwean Parliament
4. Barack Obama winning the US presidential election
5. 26/11 terror attack on Mumbai

The similarity between the themes of editorials and that of news-reports has been ensured so that generic features can be tracked. Further, the number of themes in the case of editorials has been reduced from ten to five because these are the only themes related to which editorial are available in all the Indian as well as the British newspapers. Thus, in total there are sixty news-reports and thirty editorials as the data for the present study.

1.6 Methodology

After a discussion on the what and the why of the present study, in this section we will discuss how the study is conducted. Needless to say that the objective of the study and its theoretical framework go a long way in the determination of its method. Klaus Bruhn Jensen (1991: 6) opines, “For purposes of theory development as well as applications of media studies, it is crucial that researchers assess the relevance of different methodologies with reference to the purposes and objects of analysis, asking what and why before asking how.” Since it is the study of grammatical and lexical resources used for grammaticalising interpersonal meanings in news-reports and editorials in the Indian and the British newspapers, we begin by counting the authorial clauses. In all the selected news-reports and editorials, all the authorial clauses have been numbered. Clause-complexes are broken into individual clauses and each finite clause in a complex is given a separate number. This is done especially because in some clause-complexes
as in the following, only one finite clause has the modal element, the other clauses in the complex are non-modal. Therefore, because of only one modal clause, the whole of the clause complex can not be termed modal.

While Pakistan was not without its friends in the CMAG, the smaller African nations are believed to have forced the suspension decision, on the plea that the same punishment be meted out to Pakistan as was done in the case of Fiji for a similar departure from the “Commonwealth principles. (The Hindu. News-report 3, clauses 11 and 12)

The findings that the analysis of the data brings forward are given in tables. While discussing modality in the selected news-reports and editorials, four pairs of tables are assigned to each theme. Thus, there are ten themes in the case of news-reports and so there are eighty tables, and in the case of editorials there are forty tables since there are five themes. In the first pair of tables, the number of authorial modal clauses in each news-report or editorial is shown as against the number of total authorial clauses in that news-report or editorial. The second pair of tables shows the number of high, median and low value authorial modalised and modulated clauses in each news-report or editorial. In the third pair of tables the number of subjective implicit, objective implicit, subjective explicit and objective explicit authorial modalised and modulated clauses in each news-report or editorial is given; and the fourth pair of tables shows the number of each of the four resources for grammaticalising modality in each news-report or editorial. These tables are followed by a detailed discussion on the findings and formulation of generalizations. Similarly, while discussing appraisal motifs in the selected news-reports and editorials, three pairs of tables are assigned to each theme. Thus, in the case of news-reports, there are sixty tables, and in the case of editorials there are thirty tables. The appraisal motifs that figure in the authorial clauses are counted in each news-report or editorial and their number is given in the first pair of tables. In the second pair of tables, the number of authorial inscribed and invoked attitudes in each news-report or editorial is shown; and the third pair of tables is about
the number of each of the four variants of amplifications in each news-report or editorial. On the basis of the findings shown in these tables, the conclusions are drawn and generalizations are made. Another practice worth-mentioning is wherever the text is quoted, the name of the newspaper, the number of the news-report or editorial and the number of the clause is mentioned. Here it is to be noticed that news-reports and editorials are numbered in section 1.5 keeping in view their date of publication. All news-reports or editorials concerning the same theme are given the same number. And last though not the least, the basis of generalizations in the study are only authorial modal clauses and authorial appraisal motifs, and not those that are attributed to other sources by way of projection.

1.7 Organization of the Thesis

The study is structured into six chapters. The first chapter is titled Introduction. In this chapter, there is a brief introduction to the study with a focus on its nature, its objectives, its justification, its data and criterion for its selection, methodology used to conduct it, its theoretical framework and a review of allied studies with a similar theoretical framework or on a similar discourse so that the uniqueness and relevance of the present study can be understood. Chapter 2 is titled The language of evaluation and attitudinal axis: Appraisal. It analyzes appraisal motifs in the data and lists up findings that are used to make a statement on the amount, type, nature and graduation of attitudes in the Indian and the British news-reports and editorials. Chapter 3 titled Construing the region of uncertainty through lexico-grammar: Modalisation and Modulation traces the grammaticalisation of two variants of modalisation i.e. probability and usuality and three variants of modulation i.e. obligation, inclination and ability in the data. The findings form the basis of generalizations on the language of modality in news-reports and editorials in the Indian and the British newspapers. Chapter 4 titled The question of Ideology attempts to read ideological implications in the language of modality and appraisal in the data and in so doing it makes a statement on the worldviews or ideologies embedded in the Indian and the British newspapers concerning issues of international concern. Chapter 5, Genre variations and the interpersonal features: Editorials and News-reports, uses the findings
of chapter 2 and chapter 3 to identify the linguistic features in terms of *modality* and *appraisal* of the genre of news-report and that of editorial. In the last chapter the conclusion is drawn with a detailed report on the findings of the research.

### 1.8 Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework for the study is the *Systemic Functional Linguistics* as developed by M. A. K. Halliday and *Appraisal theory* developed within the *Systemic Functional* framework by J. R. Martin and his associates.

Systemic Functional Linguistics is ‘recognized as a very useful descriptive and interpretive framework for viewing language as a strategic meaning-making resource’ (Eggin 2004: 2). Its concern is ‘to understand the quality of texts, why a text means what it does, and why it is valued as it is’ (Halliday 1994: xxix). Halliday has long been interested in the meanings of language in use in real social situations. His ‘aim has been to construct a grammar for purposes of text analysis: one that would make it possible to say sensible and useful things about any text, spoken or written, in modern English’ (Halliday 1994: xv). In the preface to the 1994 edition of his functional grammar, he lists up twenty-one possible applications of SFL. These applications include “theoretical concerns (‘to understand the nature and functions in language’), historical ones (‘to understand how languages evolve through time’), developmental ones (‘to understand how a child develops language, and how language may have evolved in human species’), and educational ones (‘to help people learn their mother tongue…foreign language’), etc.” (Eggin 2004: 2). The validity of this claim gets established by the application of SFL into a diverse range of fields such as child language development (Painter 1998), language education (Christie and Martin 1997, Christie 1999, 2002, Unsworth, 2000), media Discourse (Iedema et al 1994, White 2002, Feez et al 2008), casual conversation (Eggin and Slade 1997), administratrive language (Iedema 2003), history (Martin and Wodak 2003), visual discourse (Kress and van Leeuwen 1996, 2001), grammar of sound (van Leeuwen 1999, Martinec 2000) and computational linguistics (Teich 1999).
1.8.1 A journey to Systemic Functional Linguistics

Language, like life, is dynamic and so is linguistics. Its evolution from a historical study to a descriptive study and from a structural approach to a functional one puts the idea in unmistakable terms. The nineteenth century linguists were historical and comparative in their approach. Their object of study was how languages changed and developed over time, how they differed from one another, and how they were related to one another and formed identifiable language groups. Towards the end of the nineteenth century came the Neogrammarians who concentrated on phonetics and dialectology (Robins 1969). The century also saw the devising of a standard notation for the transcription of speech sounds in the form of the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA). “This work in phonetics was part of an overall shift in emphasis from historical to structural, descriptive linguistics, which was synchronic in approach” (Syal 2002: 43). This shift is usually associated with the French linguist Ferdinand de Saussure whose linguistic manifesto *Cours de linguistique generale* was published posthumously in 1916. His interest lies in language description and in understanding the structure of language frozen at a single point in time. His prominent concepts are that of langue and parole, of structure and system and of signifier and signified.

While Saussure was promoting his theory of structural linguistics through his lectures, another school of linguistic thought and analysis was taking shape in Prague with the efforts of Czech linguist Vilem Mathesius. It remained quite active in the second and third decades of the twentieth century. The Russian linguist Nikolay Trubetskoy and the Russian-born American linguist Roman Jakobson are among its most prominent thinkers. Its underlying concern was – “the phonological, grammatical and semantic structures of a language are determined by the functions they have to perform in the societies in which they operate” (Lyons 1981: 224). The Prague linguists made a mark in the study of sound systems. They focused on the function of linguistic elements, their contrasts and the role of these contrasts in the formation of the total pattern. In many ways, their work contributed immensely to the studies in stylistics.
Chomsky challenges structural linguistics and introduces his Transformational Generative theory of language. “One of the advantages of a transformational grammar is that it enables us to relate superficially distinct sentences and distinguish superficially identical sentences” (Chomsky 1957: 26). He argues that every native speaker possesses an abstract system of unconscious knowledge about his or her language and every language has productivity and creativity as its fundamental features. It is therefore a native speaker can generate an infinite number of actual sentences with the help of a set of transformational rules.

While in USA Noam Chomsky was working up his theory, in UK, J. R. Firth (1890-1960), the first Professor of General Linguistics in England, was studying language with an entirely different orientation. It was he who founded the London School of linguistics. Firth is polysystemic and multistructural in his approach to language (Palmer ed. 1968: 200). He is multistructural in that he recognizes that any structure in a given language may be the product of the integration of two or more co-existing structures. He is polysystemic for he is of the view that any given language involves a “plurality of systems” (Palmer ed. 1968: 43). Firth’s concept of a system and a structure is based on Saussure’s concept of syntagmatic and paradigmatic relations. Firth considers a system and a structure complementary to each other. A structure is made of elements in syntagmatic relation at a particular level of analysis, and a system is formed by the mutually exclusive paradigmatic options that come into play at a particular place in a structure (Palmer ed. 1968: 103). However, Firth is unique in his concept of the system and subsequently in his emphasis on it in understanding the meaning of a language. His concept of the system is defined as “enumerated set of choices in a specific context” (Kress 1976: xiii). These “enumerated set of choices in a specific context” result into two types of contexts – the context of the possible linguistic choices in the given system, and the surrounding extra-linguistic context in which the system itself is positioned. Firth inherits the concept of the second context from the anthropologist Bronislaw Malinowsky (1884-1942). Malinowsky worked in the Trobriand Islands and finds that ‘a European suddenly plunged into a Trobriand
community and given a word-by-word translation of the Trobrianders’ utterances, would be no nearer understanding them than if the utterances remained untranslated – the utterances become comprehensible only in the context of the whole way of life of which they form part’ (Sampson 1980: 225). This finding helps him in generalizing that ‘language is not a self-contained system – the extreme structuralist view – but is entirely dependent on the society in which it is used’ (Malmkjaer and Anderson 1995: 213). He further asserts that a language is dependent on its society in two ways – first, it ‘evolves in response to the specific demands of the society in which it is used’, and second, its use is entirely context-dependent’ (Malmkjaer and Anderson 1995: 213). The first he terms as the context of utterance and the second as the context of culture. Towing the same line, Firth maintains that linguistic meaning can only be comprehended by taking into cognizance the intimate relationship between language and society. He argues that words are words and not isolates which somehow have meaning in and by themselves, as logicians and some linguists would have us believe; they have meaning because they function in the particular society in which the speakers happen to live (Firth 1957: 226). He elaborates, “As we know so little about mind and as our study is essentially social, I shall cease to respect the duality of mind and body, thought and word, and be satisfied with the whole man, thinking and acting as a whole in association with his fellows. I do not therefore follow Ogden and Richards in regarding meaning as relations in a hidden mental process, but chiefly as situational relations in a context of situation and in that kind of language which disturbs the air and other people’s ears, as modes of behavior in relation to other elements in the context of situation” (Firth 1957: 19). This position is in extreme opposition to Chomsky’s view of language as an individual mental activity or as an abstract construct divorced from its context of occurrence as well as the wider cultural context, and this is what makes Firth’s approach to language sociological and Chomsky’s psychological.

Firth not only borrowed Malinowski’s view of context for formulating his theory of language, but also extended it by taking into account linguistic contexts at all levels. Not only social context but the successive linguistic contexts are equally
important in the origin of meaning. He asserts, “Meaning ... is to be regarded as a complex of contextual relations, and phonetics, grammar, lexicography, and semantics each handles its own components of the complex in its appropriate environment” (Firth 1957: 19). To facilitate the understanding of his approach to meaning, he uses the analogy of the dispersion of light waves into a spectrum - “It is necessary ... to split up the problem of meaning into its components or elements. The process may be compared, metaphorically speaking, to the dispersion of white light into a spectrum by means of a prism. The prism in our case is descriptive linguistics and the spectrum is the multiple statements of meaning at various levels (Firth in Palmer (ed.) 1968: 108).

Firth contradicts Saussure’s concept of langue too. Saussure considers langue a static synchronic system in which there are no positive terms and everything is defined negatively in terms of binary oppositions (Saussure 1983 [1916]: 118). Further, he is of the view that the exploration of the infinite number of possible meanings that the individual speakers produce is beyond the scope of linguistic scrutiny. His focus is on the rules of language system rather than on individual meaning-making (Bakhtin 1986). Thus, he ignores the concrete dialogic nature of language (Voloshinov 1973 [1930]). In contrast, Firth (1957: 190) considers the study of language is the study of linguistic meaning and asserts that the Saussurean concept of langue excludes not only actual words and sounds but also actual speakers of language (1957: 180-181). Inspired by Malinowsky, he contends that every social situation require a specific type of response and in a particular context a speaker need to choose from a specific set of linguistic options. The constant dialectic between language as system and language as “speech and...texts related to the living of, and therefore to the ‘meaning’ of life” (Palmer ed. 1968: 169) can not be ignored if we intend to explore linguistic variation and change. He asserts, “Renewal of connection with the processes and patterns of life in the instances of experience is the final justification of abstract linguistics” (Firth 1957: 24).

Firth’s this position brings him in contradiction to Chomsky as well who makes a distinction between competence i.e. the speaker-listener’s knowledge of a language and performance i.e. the actual use of language at the individual level in real situations
and asserts that linguistic theory deals with ‘an ideal speaker-listener in a perfectly homogenous speech-community, who knows its language perfectly’ (1965: 3-4). Thus, Chomsky’s is the limited view of grammar for in it the grammatical analysis neutralizes all variation and confines to a small set of phenomena which are possible entities for language universals. Obviously, Firth, for whom ‘the main thing is a wider language community with room for diversity of personality’ (1957: 186), finds that Chomskyan linguistics does almost nothing with the “living of life” (Palmer ed. 1968: 169). His view is that language is not unified, but inherently variable. Social differences in terms of gender, class and religion, differences in the contexts of language use, and regional and geographical differences amount to variation in language. Therefore, his interest lies in “a general linguistic theory applicable to particular linguistic descriptions, not a theory of universals for general linguistic description” (Palmer ed. 1968: 190) as propagated by Chomskyan and post-Chomskyan linguists.

Michael Kirkwood Halliday, a student of Firth, worked up his views and insights on linguistic meaning, the context of situation, and the concept of system and structure into a comprehensible linguistic theory, first in the form of *scale and category grammar* where he proposes four grammatical categories (*unit, structure, class and system*) and three scales (*rank, exponence and delicacy*) which relate to these categories (Halliday 1961), and latter in the form of *Systemic Functional Linguistics*.

### 1.8.2 Systemic Functional Linguistics

Systemic Functional Linguistics is a theory of language that takes into account the situational and cultural context of a text while analyzing its meaning. Here is a discussion on the basic concepts the theory is made of.

SFL views language from two perspectives – inter-organism and intra-organism. In the inter-organism perspective language is seen externally as something that happens between people, while in the intra-organism perspective it is seen internally as something that goes on in the mind of the individual (Halliday 1978: 12-16, 56-57). Saussure voices similar views when he refers to the social and individual aspects of language and considers the two as being complementary to each other for ‘one is not
conceivable without the other’ (Saussure 1983: 8-9). However, Chomsky considers linguistics a sub-branch of psychology and his linguistic theory focuses on the abstract knowledge of rules and principles that are fundamental in all human languages and that can be deducted by analyzing “context-free” sentences and that relates to unknown mechanisms in human mind (Chomsky 1968, 1976). Halliday considers it an incomplete story. He argues, “We do not simply ‘know’ our mother tongue as an abstract system of vocal signals, or as if it was some sort of grammar book with a dictionary attached. We know it in the sense of knowing how to use it; we know how to communicate with other people, how to choose forms of language that are appropriate to the type of situation we find ourselves in, and so on. All this can be expressed as a form of knowledge: we know how to behave linguistically (Halliday 1978: 13). This view amounts to the recognition of the complementarity between the inter-organism and intra-organism perspectives. However, unlike Chomsky, Halliday is more interested in the inter-organism perspective than the intra-organism one and that is why SFL falls within the domain of sociolinguistics, and since the latter focuses on the intra-organism perspective, his TG theory falls in the ambit of psycholinguistics.

Halliday (1978: 187, 1985b: 10, 42) suggests that there are two planes in most of the elementary coding systems – a content plane and an expression plane. Language is a unique coding system since it has a third intermediate plane – the plane of lexicogrammatical form. It is made of grammar –syntax and morphology – as well as of lexis since in SFL grammar and lexis are considered part of a single continuum, and this is perhaps another distinction of the theory. This concept first made its way in the scale and category grammar when Halliday (1961: 267) suggested, “The grammarian’s dream is (and must be, such is the nature of grammar) of constant territorial expansion. He would like to turn the whole of linguistic form into grammar, hoping to show that lexis can be defined as “most delicate grammar”. Halliday and Hasan (1976: 5) assert it more categorically, “There is no hard-and-fast division between vocabulary and grammar; the guiding principle in language is that the more general meanings are expressed through the grammar, and the more specific meanings through the
vocabulary.” On the whole, the overall idea is that linguistic meanings require the lexicogrammatical form of a language for their realization (Halliday 1985a: xvii).

SFL recognizes all linguistic activity as text. A text is an instance of linguistic interaction in which people engage to exchange meanings (Halliday 1978: 139). Halliday (1978: 2) further asserts that language “consists of texts”. A text is “any passage (of language), spoken or written, of whatever length, that does form a unified whole” (Halliday and Hasan 1976: 1). Halliday (1978: 136) illustrates that a text may be long like a novel or short like one word signs; it may not have any clear boundaries like clauses or syllables and therefore may be without a beginning or ending. The important thing about it is that it is meaningful, purposeful and complete within its social and cultural context. Halliday and Hasan (1985: 10) elucidate, “The important thing about the nature of text is that, although when we write it down it looks as though it is made of words and sentences, it is really made of meanings…it has to be coded in something in order to be communicated, but as a thing in itself, a text is essentially a semantic unit.”

SFL regards language as a social phenomenon. Halliday (1978: 1) claims, “Language arises in the life of the individual through an ongoing exchange with significant others.” He (1985a: 7) further asserts, “The value of a theory lies in the use that can be made of it and I have always considered a theory of language to be essentially consumer-oriented.” His interest has always been in the idea that “people talk to each other” rather than in the idea that “people talk” (Parret 1974: 1). It is therefore the object of study of those working within the SFL framework is to study the use of language in social situations, more specifically, to seek how speakers structure language in various contexts to generate meanings in order to achieve their social purposes. Further, Halliday regards language as social semiotic and the most elaborate and sophisticated of all the semiotic systems. Both society and this semiotic system get enriched by their mutual interaction in that this semiotic system encode a socially constructed representation of the reality and is itself constructed by its social contexts. Another assumption in the SFL is that language plays a crucial role in the development
of an individual as a social being and is the “main channel through which patterns of living are transmitted to him” (Halliday 1978: 9). In other words, it may be said that the SFL considers individual as a social product, and in this way the Systemic Functional linguists have something in common with the Soviet semioticians of the Bakhtin circle (Voloshinov 1973 [1930]), who regard individual consciousness as an offspring of socially organized experience. They opine, “Consciousness becomes consciousness only once it has been filled with ideological (semiotic) content, consequently, only in the process of social interaction ...If we deprive consciousness of its semiotic, ideological content, it would have absolutely nothing left. Consciousness can harbour only in the image, the word, the meaningful gesture, and so forth. Outside such material, there remains the sheer physiological act unilluminated by consciousness, i.e., without having light shed on it, without having meaning given to it, by signs” (Voloshinov 1973[1930]: 11-13). Hasan (1988) holds the similar view in regarding individual consciousness a product of the social life an individual is born in and integrated into. She rejects the idea that meaning is a mental phenomenon and regards it as a construct of social environment. She (1985a: 32) puts it, “There is a very obvious sense in which every piece of knowledge is mental. Whatever the child’s or adult’s understanding of the linguistic sign dog, this understanding is surely stored in the brain; further, it is only because of the structure of the brain that it is possible for humans to arrive at understandings of this sort. But in a rather important sense it does not make the meaning of the sign dog a mental phenomenon; the dictionary may be located in the brain but the specific details relating to each entry in the dictionary originate not in the brain but in the social human milieu. Meaning and mind are created in a social environment, through social agencies “

SFL’s emphasis on the social aspect of language makes it to take into account the role of social situations, the context in the generation of meaning. Inspired by Malinowsky, Halliday recognizes two types of contexts – the immediate context of situation and the wider context of culture. The systemics have always rejected the idea of a context-free utterance. Halliday (1978: 28-29) argues, “We do not experience
language in isolation ... but always in relation to a scenario, some background of persons and actions and events from which the things are said to derive their meaning. This is referred to as the “situation”, so language is said to function in “contexts of situation” and any account of language which fails to build in the situation as an essential ingredient is likely to be artificial and unrewarding.” Searle (1979: 117) voices the similar idea, “There is no such thing as the zero or null context for the interpretation of sentences ... We understand the meaning of such sentences only against a set of background assumptions about the contexts in which the sentence could be appropriately used.” So much so that Halliday (1978: 32) opines that from “the situation, the social context of language use, we can predict a great deal about the language that will occur.” One important implication of putting weight on context in the grammatical analysis of all utterances is that it rendered meaningless the distinction between semantics and pragmatics (Halliday in Thibault 1987: 611) since pragmatics refers to “those linguistic investigations that make necessary reference to aspects of the context” (Levinson 1983: 5) and semantics to those that are believed to be context-free. Here it is to be recognized that though the SFL owe its insights into context to Malinowsky, the contribution of Saussure is also noticeable in this regard. When Hasan (1985a: 31) argues that meaning can be learnt not in a vacuum but in an act that involves “an active experience of the word in conjunction with reality within a culturally recognizable context of situation”, she is, in fact, drawing upon Saussure’s concept of the signifier and the signified. Saussure regards language as a system of arbitrary signs. A linguistic sign is made of two elements – a sound pattern means a signal and a concept means the signification. A linguistic sign is arbitrary in that the signal has no logical connection with its signification. The signification of a signal is comprehended by reference to other signs in a linguistic system that is characterized by binary oppositions. Saussure (1983: 116) argues, “The conceptual part of linguistic value is determined solely by relations and differences with other signs in the language.” He (1983: 118) further asserts, “In a language, there are only differences, and no positive terms. Whether we take the signification or the signal, the language
includes neither ideas nor sounds existing prior to the linguistic system, but only conceptual and phonetic differences arising out of that system.” Saussure contends that the connection between the signifier and its signification can only be established by convention and here he makes a faint reference to the importance of context which is chiseled and fine-tuned by Malinowsky through his fieldwork.

SFL recognizes three aspects of the context of situation which are termed as register variables. A register is defined as a “configuration of meanings that are typically associated with a particular situational configuration of field, tenor and mode” (Halliday and Hasan 1989: 39). These aspects of social situations – field, tenor and mode – are called variables because though they are present in every situation, yet they differ from situation to situation. Field is ‘the social action or what is taking place’, tenor is ‘the role structure or who is taking part’ in interaction, and mode is ‘the symbolic organization or what role language is playing’ (Halliday 1985a: 12). Martin (2001: 45) further elucidates field as concerned with systems of activity, including descriptions of the participants, processes, and circumstances these activities involve; tenor as concerned with social relations, as these are enacted through the dimensions of power and solidarity; and mode as concerned with semiotic distance, as this is affected by the various channels of communication through which we undertake activity (field) and simultaneously enact social relations (tenor). In SFL, there exists a systemic relationship between each of the three register variable and the language in which it is manifested. “The function of language is to realize what is going on in the context and SFL identifies three general functions in language that realize each context variable” (Feez et al. 2008: 50). These functions of language are called metafunctions because they consist of a number of specific functions that language is made to serve. They are – the ideational metafunction, the interpersonal metafunction and the textual metafunction. Taken one by one, the ideational metafunction realizes field, the interpersonal metafunction realizes tenor and the textual metafunction realizes mode. All these three metafunctions are interwoven
into the texture of a clause by the language users and they operate simultaneously. Halliday (1985b: 23) illustrates, “We cannot pick out one word or one phrase and say this has only experiential meaning, or this has only interpersonal meaning ... Every sentence in a text is multifunctional; but not in such a way that you can point to one particular constituent or segment and say this segment has just this function. The meanings are woven together in a very dense fabric in such a way that, to understand them, we do not look separately at its different parts; rather we look at the whole thing simultaneously from a number of different angles, each perspective contributing towards the total interpretation.”

Systemic Functional Linguistics is called systemic because it foregrounds the role of system in language. Halliday (1969: 3) asserts that ‘systemic’ does not mean ‘systematic’, it is used since the fundamental concept in grammar is that of the ‘system’. He (1981: 124) argues that a structure represents syntagmatic relations amongst elements in presentia and system represents paradigmatic relations amongst elements in absentia. He (1969: 3) further elaborates, “A system is a set of options with an entry condition: that is to say, a set of things of which one must be chosen, together with a statement of the conditions under which the choice is available.” In other words, any use of language is just one choice that could have been used from a set of possible choices within the particular language system in a particular situational and cultural context. Halliday (1978: 192) opines, “With the notion of system we can represent language as a resource, in terms of the choices that are available, the interconnection of those choices, and the conditions affecting their access. We can then relate these choices to recognizable and significant social contexts, using socio-semantic networks.”

And finally, Systemic Functional Linguistics is termed functional because it concerns with how people use language, what purposes they achieve through language and why they opt for certain linguistic structures than others to express their experiences of the reality, to share or seek information, to demand or offer goods and services, to communicate their inclinations or abilities, to narrate stories
and to do thousand other such things. SFL regards the function of language as a ‘fundamental property of language itself’ (Halliday and Hasan 1985: 17). Language function and language structure are considered to be systemically related to each other. Halliday (1978: 4) opines, “Language is as it is because of the functions it has evolved to serve in people’s lives.” He (1994a: i) further asserts that it is the uses that people have for language that have come to shape the system in the sense that language is in a constant process of evolution in order to address the varied needs of the people in this ever-changing world. Halliday (1978: 21) lists up the functions that people expect language to do. First of all, “language has to interpret the whole of our experience”; second, it “has to express certain logical relations, like ‘and’ and ‘or’ and ‘if’ as well as those created by language itself such as ‘namely’, ‘says’ and ‘means’”; third, “Language has to express our participation as speaker” i.e. it has to relate how certain relationships are enacted between or among the participants in the process of interaction, how they position themselves and how they encode their attitudes, feelings and emotions; and fourth, “language has to do all these things simultaneously, in a way which relates what is being said to the context in which it is being said, both to what has been said before and to the ’context of situation’, in other words, it has to be capable of being organized as relevant discourse.” In SFL, the first function of expressing experiential meanings is clubbed with the second function of expressing logical meanings and is called the ideational metafunction, the third is termed as the interpersonal metafunction, and the fourth is called the textual metafunction. In the section 1.8.3, these metafunctions and their grammaticalisation is discussed in detail.

1.8.3 The Metafunctions of Language

Taken one by one, the ideational metafunction comprises, as is already said, experiential as well as logical meanings. “When we look at the experiential metafunction, we are looking at the grammar of the clause as representation” (Eggins 2004: 213). Experiential meaning is expressed through the system of transitivity. The transitivity system includes
choices of process type and the configuration of possible participants and circumstances which can be associated with a particular process type. Processes are realized in the verbal group of the clause, participants in the nominal groups and circumstances in the adverbial groups or prepositional phrases. SFL recognizes six processes – material, mental, behavioral, verbal, existential and relational. The first four of these are the processes of action on one way or another while the last two are the processes of being. Material processes are the processes of doing, of concrete and tangible action. They are answer to the question, what did x do? In them, the obligatory participant is the actor, which is the executor of the doing, while the goal, to which the doing is done, the range and the beneficiary are the optional participants. Mental processes are the processes of cognition, of thinking and feeling. They are answer to the question, what do you think/know/feel about x? In them, the participants are a sensor, a conscious being, and a phenomenon and both are obligatory. Behavioral processes realize meanings that are “mid-way between the materials on the one hand and mentals on the other. They are in part about action, but it is action that has to be experienced by a conscious being. Behaviorals are typical processes of physiological and psychological behavior” (Egglins 2004: 233). In them, the main participant is the behavior who like the sensor in a mental process is a conscious being. In some behavioral processes, there is another participant called a phenomenon. Verbal processes signify verbal actions. In a verbal process, there are three participants – the sayer, the participant responsible for the verbal action, the receiver, the participant to whom the verbal process is directed, and the verbiage i.e. what is being said. Existential processes signify that something exists. They can easily be identified as the structure involves the use of the dummy subject there. They involve only one participant called the existent. Relational Processes establish a relationship between two terms. This relationship can be of two types - attributive or identifying. In the attributive relational process, a carrier is assigned an attribute which specifies its quality, classification, or description. In the identifying relational process, one participant termed as token serves to define the identity of the other participant called value. In addition to the distinction between attributive and identifying, relational processes can also be
classified into *intensive, circumstantial* and *possessive relational processes*. *Intensive processes* posit sameness between two terms. In circumstantial processes, a circumstantial element is either attributed to or used to identify a participant. *Possessive processes* denote a relationship of possession between two terms. In the experiential metafunction, processes are accompanied not only by participants, but also (most of the times) by circumstances. They are of seven types - *Extent, Accompaniment, Location, Matter, Manner, Role and Cause*. Figure 1.1 (Eggins 2004: 223) is an illustration of the system of circumstances.

![Figure 1.2: System of Circumstances](image)

Figure 1.2: System of Circumstances
Another component of ideational metafunction is logical meaning. It is realized through cohesive harmony which refers to the interaction established in a text through its lexical chaining and interaction (Halliday and Hasan 1989). Hedberg and Fink (1996: 74) opine, “A text with a cohesive harmony is a text that contains multiple chains of semantically related words representing different ideas or threads of meaning; interaction among the chains weaves the threads of meaning together into a coherent whole.” Simply speaking, logical meanings are the relationships of co-ordination and subordination between clauses or other structural elements realized through the use of conjunctions, relative pronouns, ellipsis and other cohesive devices in the quest to make a text.

Textual metafunction relates to the text-forming functions. It is realized in the resources that enable the maker of a text to construct a coherent text, one that makes sense in the context in which it is being said or written and also in the context of what has been said or written before and will be said or written latter. These resources are – cohesion, information structure and theme structure. Cohesion is of two types – referential cohesion and conjunctive cohesion. Referential cohesion takes place when participants of a process, who are part of the experiential meanings of a text, are referred to multiple times in a text. Likewise, conjunctive cohesion implies the use of conjunctions to build logical relations between clauses in a text by connecting them, and this way, it contributes to logical meanings, another component of ideational metafunction. Further, the information structure relates to the flow of information in a text. It gives ‘readers some idea what to expect, fulfilling those expectations and then reviewing them’ (Martin and Rose 2003: 175). Information is constantly expanded as the text unfolds. The salient information is labeled New and the information that provides a reference for adding the New information to the developing structure is labeled Given. And finally, there is theme structure. Halliday (1994: 37) suggests that theme structure structures the clause as a message in the same way as processes and participants structure it as representation and propositions and proposals structure it as exchange. Theme structure is made of two elements –Theme and Rheme. “The Theme is
the element which serves as the point of departure of the message; it is that with which
the clause is concerned. The remainder of the message, the part in which the Theme is
developed, is called the Rheme” (Halliday 1994: 37). He (1994: 38) further elucidates
that the Theme ‘is the ground from which the clause is taking off.’ For instance, the
underlined part in the following sentence is Theme and the rest is Rheme:

Bhutto’s death left a void at the top of her Pakistan People’s Party. (The Indian Express.
News-report 5, clause 9)

Here it is to be considered that Theme and Rheme are not the same as Given and New in
the information structure. The difference between them is that theme structure is
speaker oriented, while the information structure is listener oriented (Halliday 1994:
299).

And now, we discuss the interpersonal metafunction of language, the object of
study in the present research. The interpersonal function, as is already said, concerns
language as an “interactive event” involving the speaker and the listener. In the act of
interaction, the speaker adopts for himself a particular kind of speech role, and in so
doing invites the listener to get into a complementary role (Halliday and Mattheisson
2004: 106). In almost every interaction, there are basically two types of speech role –
giving and demanding, and the commodity exchanged is also of two types –
information, and goods and services. These two speech roles and two commodities
make four primary speech functions – statement, question, offer and command. In
English, these speech functions are expressed by a particular kind of variation in the
Mood block of the clause. The Mood block is made of two parts – the subject and the
finite operator. The Finite element makes a proposition finite. Halliday and Mattheisson
(2004: 115) assert, “It circumscribes it; it brings the proposition down to earth, so that it
is something that can be argued about.” A proposition can be made arguable by
reference to the time of speaking, by reference to the judgement of the speaker or by
reference to the choice between negative and positive. In grammar, the first is realized
through primary tense, the second through modality and the third through polarity (Halliday and Mattheisson 2004: 115-116). Likewise, the Subject is "something by reference to which the proposition can be affirmed or denied…the entity in respect of which the assertion is claimed to have validity” (Halliday and Mattheisson 2004: 117) Thus, it is the Mood block that “carries the burden of the clause as an interactive event.” (Halliday and Mattheisson 2004: 120).

In the act of interaction, the interactants exchange not just information or goods and services, but also their commitments of varying degrees to the propositions and proposals they make. The commitments that belong to either ‘yes’ or ‘no’ are respectively positively or negatively polarized, but the commitments that are intermediate between the positive and the negative poles fall in the domain of modality. Thus, modality construes ‘the region of uncertainty that lies between ‘yes’ and ‘no’. There are two sub-types of modality – modalisation and modulation. Modalisation relates to the exchange of information, in other words, to the speech functions of statement and question by indicating the probability or usuality of a proposition. Modulation relates to the giving or demanding of goods and services, in other words, to the speech functions of command and offer. If commands, it indicates the obligation, and if offers, the inclination. To this, Halliday and Mattheisson (2004: 621) add a third type, that of ability/potentiality. Further, in terms of value, modalisations and modulations are classified into three degrees – high, median and low. Next, the main resources for the expression of modality are the finite modal operators, modal adjuncts, separate clauses and expansions of the predicator. These resources determine the orientation of modal expressions as subjective implicit, objective implicit, subjective explicit or objective explicit.

In addition to the giving or demanding of goods and services or information that determine their role relationships and statuses, and the exchange of their commitments to propositions and proposals, the interactants while interacting also exchange their values, attitudes and evaluations of people, things or ideas. These values, attitudes and evaluations are termed as appraisal in the theory. The resources for its grammaticalisation are mostly lexical. It has three sub-types – affect, judgement and
appreciation. Affect relates to how people feel about things. When personal feelings towards things or people are presented as if they are the qualities of things or people themselves, it is either judgement or appreciation. If people are presented that way, it is judgement; if things, it is appreciation (Martin and Rose 2003). Attitudes are either positive or negative, and inscribed or invoked. There can also be their amplification in the form of force-intensification, force-quantification, focus-sharpen or focus-soften.

It is in terms of modality and appraisal and the resources used for their realization that the grammaticalisation of interpersonal meanings will be discussed in the present study. Here it is mentioned that the discussion of the systems of appraisal and modality in this section is merely introductory. These systems will be discussed in detail in Chapter II and Chapter III respectively.

1.9 Review of Literature
1.9.1 SFL and Appraisal theory
Since the present study has SFL and Appraisal theory as its theoretical framework, we begin by a brief review of literature available on the applications of SFL and Appraisal theory in literary and non-literary texts.

Based primarily on Halliday’s linguistic model, though using concepts from TG grammar and speech act theory as well, Language and Control by Roger Fowler, Bob Hodge, Gunther Kress and Tony Trew (1979) is a collection of critical essays that through a series of research activities, all carried on non-literary texts, builds up that language “embodies specific views - or ‘theories’ - of reality”, and that “the functions of linguistic structures are based in social structures.” For instance, Tony Trew in “Theory and Ideology at Work” analyses the patterns of passivization, processes, participants, lexical choices, rewording, nominalization and embedding in the news-reports and articles taken from the two leading British newspapers, The Times and The Guardian, and from The Rhodesia Herald and The Tanzanian Daily, and finds:
1. Every discourse reproduces a “theory or ideology and there are no ‘raw’, uninterpreted, theory-free facts”.

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2. The reporting of an event over a period of days sometimes transforms the original story, and the event sounds quite different from how it started. In some cases, the transformed story maintains or reproduces ideology, and yet in others it brings out “ideological transformation.”

3. As ideology is “rooted in the practices of its society”, any understanding of the “ideological nature of the coverage in the media must in the end be based, not only on an understanding of what the sources of news are, and their relations to state and other powers, but also on an understanding of the engagement of the newspapers and other media in social relations and processes.” In yet another article, “What the Papers Say: Linguistic Variation and Ideological Difference”, Tony Trew again applies ‘linguistic theory’ to study ‘the ideological character of newspaper discourse’. In the first place, he finds that in each newspaper the news-report is consistent with its editorial in terms of linguistic features and ideological position. Secondly, the news-report and editorial in each newspaper are discrepant with that of the other newspaper. This discrepancy lies in the “presentation of processes, both in terms of their origins or causes, and in terms of the classification of both processes and participants.” In “Newspapers and Communities” in the same book, Bob Hodge claims that there exists a definite relationship between newspapers and ‘a set of interrelated communities’. The first is the community of those who produce the newspaper, the second is that of the readers, and the third is that which the newspaper ‘transmits or creates’. These communities condition the structure and content of a newspaper.

With six chapters and an afterward, Language Ideology and Point of View by Paul Simpson (1993) shows how point of view is shaped by ideology and what linguistic strategies writers and speakers make use of to “encode their beliefs, interests and biases” in literary and non-literary texts. Throughout the book, the conceptual framework is Systemic Functional Linguistics, and a wide range of texts are analyzed which include the fictional works and a number of media and advertising texts, “where producers of texts are removed from consumers of texts both spatially and temporally” and “messages are projected by producers towards an invisible, ideal consumer” with
whom the actual receiver has to “negotiate a relationship” in order to decipher the meaning.

Michael Toolan (1998) in Language in Literature: An Introduction to Stylistics uses the insights from SFL in analyzing a number of poems, short stories, extracts from novels, advertisements and children writing to demonstrate how language works in texts, particularly in literary texts. The concepts he discusses include cohesion (lexical and grammatical); modality; evaluative devices; processes, participants and circumstance; nominalization; the techniques of speech and thought presentation; narrative structure; word choices, word arrangement and Cloze procedures; dynamics of dialogue; presupposition; and textual revision.

In Working with Discourse: Meaning beyond the clause J. R. Martin and David Rose (2003) work up the fundamentals of SFL into a set of tools for discourse analysis. Focused on ‘discourse semantics’, this book goes beyond the clause and by bringing in its fold both the social context and the lexicogrammar analyzes ‘texts in social contexts’. The three metafunctions of language in ‘social activity’, the interpersonal, the ideational and the textual, that the SFL model of language recognizes, are discussed in five chapters titled Appraisal, Ideation, Conjunction, Identification, and Periodicity. Throughout the book, these discourse systems are analyzed in written texts belonging to three genres – story, argument and legislation. In addition, in the final chapter, these discourse systems are contextualized in ‘models of the social contexts of discourse, including register and genre theory’ and their links are set up with the multi-modal discourse analysis and critical discourse analysis.

Media Literacy (2008) by Susan Feez, Rick Iedema and Peter White is a teacher resource developed from the original monograph published in 1994 by the Metropolitan East Disadvantage Schools Program. Working within the frameworks of the SFL and the Appraisal theory, it considers media texts ‘from the point of view of the people producing them and from the perspectives of viewers, readers and listeners’. Primarily its focus is on newspapers texts, however, it encompasses a wide range of issues concerning the encoding and decoding of media discourse. An underlying concern is the
importance of context in the interpretation of a text. Sketching a brief history of Australian print media, radio and television, it discusses such issues as median ownership and editorial control, the influence of the internet on news, the media as a site of struggle, increasing social role of the media, the effects of media messages, objectivity and subjectivity in media texts, and language in media and ideology. Further, identifying features of different genres in newspaper discourse such as hard news stories, human interest stories, comments, exemplums, media reviews and media anecdotes are listed up. There is also a discussion on authorial voice in media texts and its sub-types reporter voice, correspondent voice and commentator voice. Towards the end, it uses multimodal analysis as developed by Gunther Kress and Theo van Leeuwen to analyze visual patterns in media texts and shows how the world is represented and structured in images and how images are used to extend and amplify meanings.

In “Re-Reading the Media: A Stylistic Analysis of Malaysian Media Coverage of Anwar and the Reformasi Movement”, Shakila Manan, through an SFL analysis of the portrayal of Malaysian Deputy PM Anwar Ibrahim and the Reformasi Movement in a pro-establishment newspaper in Malaysia, *The New Straits Times*, develops the argument that news-discourse is seldom neutral. The reality is interpreted, organized, evaluated and classified in a way that favors “certain ways of seeing and reading while the other ways are muzzled or repressed.” Assuming that ‘language use is always embedded in social contexts’, this article, first of all, puts the newspaper in its “socio-discursive and political context” in order to reach at those ‘extra-textual features’ that condition its ‘perceptions and perspectives’ towards the subject, and then does a lexical and transitivity analysis of the related news-items, and concludes that the sacked Deputy PM and his Reformasi Movement are portrayed as the “victimizer”, while the state, the government and the PM are presented as “the helpless victims”.

Wu Siew Mei and Desmond Allison (2003) in their paper *Exploring Appraisal in claims of student writers in argumentative essays* analyze a set of 40 argumentative essays of undergraduate students rated as ‘A’, ‘B’ and ‘C’ by their teachers wherein ‘A’ stands for high, ‘B’ for medium and ‘C’ for low ratings in order to find out linguistic
resources used for conveying evaluative meanings. They use the theoretical framework of appraisal theory of Martin and White that takes into account the three types of attitudes, their engagement and graduation. They conclude that all three sets of essays use appraisal resources to evaluate claims, but to ‘different degrees and in different ways to produce more or less effective claims’. They further assert, “The differences, though, are relatively fine-grained, and not simple matters of the presence or absence of particular appraisal systems. They contribute to, but do not actually determine, the overall success of an essay within an institutional context”.

Marie Nordlund (2003) is concerned with linguistic manipulation and the presence of values in the language of news-reporting. Precisely, her aim is to seek ‘whether it is possible to show that newspapers with divergent political positions linguistically display different attitudes when reporting news’. She analyzes a variety of syntactic and lexico-semantic features such as active and passive voice, agentless passives, metaphors, modality and value words in nine news articles related to three themes taken from the internet editions of the three British newspapers The Daily Telegraph, The Guardian and The Morning Star. She finds that The Morning Star ‘most openly displays its attitudes’ mainly by way of ‘the choice of words and the selection of facts’, while The Daily Telegraph and The Guardian are ‘less transparent’ in the expression of attitudes and in addition to ‘the choice of words and the selection of facts’ use syntactic devices such as passive voice, agentless passives, nominalizations and expressions of modality. Her another finding is that The Morning Star is more ‘outspoken’ in criticizing than The Daily Telegraph and The Guardian. In the use of metaphors, she finds, the three newspapers do not show any significant variation – they use almost the same number of metaphors; the metaphors mainly come from the fields of sport and war; and most of the metaphors are dead metaphors.

Hodges (2006) uses Systemic Functional Linguistics to analyze the generic features of press releases and news articles focusing on mood, modality, transitivity, and hypotactic and paratactic roles between clauses. He concludes that patterns of stages within the generic structure of press releases and news articles differ in terms of actors
and goals of material processes, and textual adjuncts. Another finding is that in the press release hypotaxis shows positive benefits of a company’s actions, goods or services while in a news article it shows contrast and speculation. He further contends that the press release and news article are similar in the use of verbal processes, but they differ in that the press release has less negative polarity than the news article and the function of modals in both the texts is not similar.

In The Generic Integrity of newspaper editorials: A Systemic Functional Perspective, Hasan Ansary and Esmat Babali (2005) apply Systemic Functional theory of language to genre analysis. They analyze the ‘macro-rhetorical structure’ of thirty editorials taken from the daily electronic version of The Washington Times in an attempt to locate the rhetorical organizations used in the language of editorials. The find the presence of four ‘obligatory structural elements’ – Run-on Headline (RH), Addressing an Issue (AI), Argumentation (A), and Articulating a Position (AP) – in a linear sequence in 90% of the editorials. In the remaining editorials, in addition to these ‘obligatory structural elements’, there are a few ‘optional’ structural elements such as providing background information (BI), initiation of argumentation (IA), and closure of argumentation (CA).

1.9.2 Language of Newspaper

Media discourse is one of the most coveted fields of scientific study. A large variety of research grounded in varied frameworks is available on it. Some use the Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) to explore power relations and ideology in media texts (van Dijk 1988a, 1988b, Fairclough 1989, 1995a, 1995b, Fowler 1991). Some study the semiotics of the news (Hartley 1982). Some study practices involved in the production of news (Bell 1991, Reah 2002). Further, there are studies that trace the history of newspaper discourse (Inglis 1990, Cotter 1996). Some researchers focus on the correlation between media style and social factors (Bell 1991, Jucker 1992). The others apply Conversation Analysis (CA) to media discourse (Clayman 1990, Greatbatch 1998). A few study the presence of evaluations and attitudes in the language of newspapers (Marie Nordlund 2003, Monika Bednarek 2006,
Feez, Iedema and White (2008). The review of some of these studies is given in section 1.9.1, while a few representative ones are reviewed below.

Fred Inglis (1990) sketches a critical history of public communication and shows how technological developments chiseled it into its present shape. He discusses varied theories ranging from the mass society theory of the Frankfurt Marxists to semiotics and critical discourse theory whose concern is to comprehend the history of mass media and unravel the ideology wrapped in it. Inglis also discusses the role of audience in the formulative processes of mass media and underlies the importance of inculcating an understanding of the media and its technology in the people through a humane and democratic education.

In Language in the News: Discourse and Ideology in the Press, Roger Fowler (1991) does an insightful study of both the quality and the popular newspapers from the perspective of critical linguistics to examine the role that language plays in mediating reality. He challenges the view that newspaper coverage of world events is presented as the unbiased recording of facts. Analyzing the news values, the processes of selection and transformation which go to make up the news, newspaper representations of gender, power, authority and law and order, stereotyping in news reporting, the formation of consensus, the editorial voice, and the terms of abuse and endearment in a wide range of news stories from the American bombing of Libya in 1986 to the controversy of contraception, Fowler argues that news is a product of the social and political world which it reports, and therefore reflects its ideology.

The Language of News Media by Allan Bell (1991) is a useful insight into the language of media discourse. Bell is not only a linguist but also a professional journalist and media consultant. His work is couched in the theoretical frameworks of sociolinguistics and discourse analysis. Though he touches both print and electronic media as represented by newspaper and radio respectively, it is newspaper that he discusses thoroughly. His range is diverse which include the distinctiveness of the genre of news-report, the role of the audience, producer and editor in the production of news language, the processes by which a raw story gets shaped into a news article, the
structure of news story, media miscommunication and techniques used in the construction of a news article such as reverse chronology, embedding, preposing, disjunction and isolation. Bell also does a diachronic analysis of a news-story in order to show how the contemporary way of story telling is different from that of old days. He thesis is that the discourse structure of the old common narratives ‘casts light on the way in which stories in general are told and structured’.

Approaches to Media Discourse is a collection of nine research papers presented at Cardiff Round Table on Media Discourse held at Wales in 1995. Through these thought-provoking papers grounded in varied theoretical frameworks, it shows how media studies is a multidisciplinary area. In ‘Opinions and Ideologies in the Press’, Van Dijk “looks at the nature of opinions and how they are expressed in the editorials in the press. Working within the framework of critical discourse analysis, he shows that there is no direct relation between ‘societal structures’ and ‘discourse structures.’ It is ‘social actors and their minds’ that relate them. In ‘The Discourse Structure of News Stories’, Allan Bell chalks out a theoretical framework to examine the structure of news-stories. He emphasizes a focus on the process involved in the production of media language in order to understand the form and content of news stories. His next concern is discourse structures of news-stories and shows the difference between them and other narratives. Stuart Allan’s ‘News from Nowhere: Televisual News Discourse and the Construction of Hegemony’ discusses cultural studies as an approach to televisual news discourse and the naturalization of dominant forms of ‘common sense’ through news discourse. In ‘Political Discourse in the Media: An Analytical Framework.’, Fairclough suggests a three-fold strategy to interpret a news text – first, its analysis with a focus on its vocabulary, syntax, textual structures and interpersonal features; second, the analysis of the modes of its production, reception and distribution; and third, analysis of its ‘social practices’ with a focus on ‘the relation of discourse to power and ideology’. Next is David Greatbatch who uses Conversation Analysis (CA) to analyze news interviews. The approach of Kress and van Leeuwen in their paper is multimodal. While analyzing the layout of the front pages of newspapers, they assert the importance of analyzing the
interplay between the verbal and the visual codes in the interpretation of a news-text since visual semiotic codes often accompany the linguistic signs in media discourse. Kay Richardson in her paper focuses on the reception of media texts and shows how the difference in mental make-up, occupation and ‘frameworks of personal and social knowledge’ result in the varied interpretation of the same text. Towards the end comes Paddy Scannel who discusses the ideological and pragmatic approaches to media and language.

A textbook in the Intertexts series, *The Language of Newspapers* by Danuta Reah (2002) explores the ways in which the press portrays current events, the ways text can be transformed, manipulated, distorted, and re-fashioned in written, oral and electronic means. Through its study of the ideological bias of newspapers, the role of headlines in newspaper articles, and the ways the newspapers relate to their audience, the book provides an exhaustive analysis of newspaper language.

Donald Matheson (2005) takes insights from the domains of media studies, discourse analysis and cultural theory to critically analyze a variety of media texts including newspaper articles, advertisements, reality television, broadcast interviews, sports commentaries, popular magazines and weblogs in order to ascertain ‘how language works in society, in whose interests and with what effects on the world that is constructed in language’.

Monika Bednarek (2006) analyzes one hundred newspaper articles taken from both tabloid and broadsheet newspapers to study the expression of opinion in media discourse. Her research questions are:

*How do news writers express their opinions about the events, people, and situations they report on?*

*Do tabloid news writers really express more opinion than broadsheet news writers?*

*And do these two types of newspapers differ in terms of how they express opinion?*

She works up a composite theoretical framework for the study of evaluation taking insights from Lyons, Jakobson, Chafe, Halliday, Martin, Thomson and Hunston. This framework analyzes ‘the parameter of emotivity’ i.e. the opinions of ‘good or bad’, ‘the
parameter of importance’ i.e. the opinions of ‘important or unimportant’, ‘the parameter of expectedness’ i.e., the opinions of ‘expected or unexpected’, ‘the parameter of comprehensibility’ i.e. the opinions of ‘comprehensible or incomprehensible’, ‘the parameter of possibility/necessity’ i.e. the opinions of possible or not possible, ‘the parameter of reliability’ i.e. the opinions of ‘genuine or fake’, ‘the parameter of style’ i.e. evaluative comments on other people’s language, ‘the parameter of mental state’ i.e. comment on other people’s mental states, and ‘the parameter of evidentiality’. Like other functional linguists, Monika underlines the importance of context in the language of evaluation. She also hints at the role of circumstances involved in the production of media discourse in conditioning a news text.

In “Language of News-Reporting in Indian Language Newspapers: A Study of Malayalam News-Reporting”, V. Geethakumary (2004) analyses the use of different types of rhetoric expressions such as personification, similes, metaphors, metonymy, antithesis, irony, transferred epithets, exaggeration, proverbs, and idiomatic compounds in the Malayalam newspaper-reporting. As these expressions are loaded with ‘the connotative or emotional contents’, they make the news ‘sensational’, ‘eye-catching’, ‘attractive’, ‘emphatic’, ‘sarcastic’, and ‘satirical’. She also discusses that imperatives “directly involve the readers”; interrogation “can sometimes cause a speculation among the readers”, “develop a doubt, or can show the uncertain nature of a solution”; and exclamation “may be used to imply some "hidden secret" or the "real reason" for the incident being reported”. In her another article “Headlines in Indian Vernacular Newspapers – Stylistic Implications”, V. Geethakumary (2002), with the assumption that “a news reporter is very much part of the social milieu, and he has internalized assumptions that may color his reporting”, analyses the lexical choices, content, themes and manner of presentation in the three captions related to local news, national news and international news published in the three leading Malayalam daily newspapers, and concludes that the world-view of the newspapers is conditioned by their ‘readership profile’, by ‘the editorial board's policy’ and by the consideration on the part of the reporters to
enhance the sale and popularity of their newspapers. She also finds that to attract the readers towards the newspaper, the news-reporters ‘seem to avoid any negative reporting and they try to add some positive punch to develop some solidarity with the reading public’; they give ‘speculative captions that carry positive thoughts, which may please the general public’; and ‘they may change the captions according to the situation, mood and environment.’ In yet another article “Language Use in Indian Language Newspapers – A Socio-Trace”, V. Geethakumary (2003) points out, “Newspapers mirror the society and therefore the newspapers will clearly show the customs and life pattern of the people through their language of reporting. While reading an old news item published around 100 or 150 years ago, one can notice the script, phonological, morphological, lexical, and syntactic variations of the language from the present time.” Her data comprises of 100 items collected from the newspaper *Malayala Manorama* and her objective is to ‘examine the language style change in media’.

Helen Gambles (1998) in her article “A Semiotic Analysis of a Newspaper Story” shows, through the semiotic analysis of a news-story related to the murder of a female police officer on duty published in The Sun, The Times and The Telegraph, that the same story can be encoded in different newspapers differently by the use of different narrative codes, lexical choices, typographic devices and graphic signs.

David R. Thompson (1991) assuming that ‘language and its use provide a “public record” of the social symbols of a given time period’ uses a computerized content analysis program (GENCA) to examine the use of oral words (specified as announced, discussion, said), print words (specified as ballot, law, note and wrote) and education words (specified as college, diploma, education and professor) in newspapers. His data comprises approximately 8000 sentences amounting to 200,000 words taken from The New York Times and The Los Angeles Times. He quotes McLuhan (1967) – “The world of the newspaper is mainly oral in pattern” -, and Ong (1982) – “Writing is always a kind of imitation talking” – as his hypothesis and concludes, “Oral communication is apparently , so fundamental to human
communication that, in today’s mass-mediated society, even newspapers are using increasingly oral language in their stories…Now the journalist serves as storyteller. The reader becomes the eavesdropper. Newspapers represent conversation in print.”

Ute Romer (2008) explores ‘ways of identifying items of evaluative meaning’ in academic writing using ‘a three million word corpus of linguistic book reviews’. His focus is on ‘evaluative expressions’ and not on ‘the acts of evaluation which do not always contain evaluative words/phrases but may still be understood as criticism or praise from the wider linguistic and/or situational context’, in the appraisal theory of Martin the former are termed as inscribed and the latter as invoked evaluations. He asserts though it is difficult, but it is possible to retrieve evaluative expressions semi-automatically and to use them as ‘starting points for the identification of further expressions of evaluative meaning in the corpus’, for ‘the patterns which express or introduce evaluative meanings’ can be identified, isolated and captured in the corpus automatically.

Though there is a great bulk of literature devoted to describing the language of news-reporting, this literature varies widely with respect to scope, to the linguistic framework, and to the research objectives. This research explores the lexico-grammatical resources used for the grammaticalisation of interpersonal meanings in the news-reports and editorials published in English from two different countries i.e. India and Britain using the SFL and Appraisal frameworks.