Q: The functional parts of a clause?

With no ellipsis, a clause contains three functional parts: (1) participant(s), (2) process, and (3) circumstance(s)

1 processes (actions, events, mental processes, relations) are expressed by verbs. The process is that part of the clause that lets us know that some process, or state, is going on or being described. For example, is playing, works. This is commonly realized by a verb.

2 participants (people, animals, concrete and abstract objects that take part in processes) are expressed by nouns. The participant is one or more words which represent an entity that is participating in the process taking place of stated in the clause. The participants may be the entity that is doing the process or affected by that process. For example, man, it, process. This is commonly realized by a nominal.

3 circumstances (time, place, manner, cause, condition) are expressed by adverbs and by prepositional phrases. The circumstance is one or more words that describe something of the setting of the process, explaining where, when, how, or why the process took place or is. For example, quickly, in the garden, at 3 o'clock. This is commonly realized by an adverb, adverb group, adverb group, or a prepositional group.

Q: Write an essay (350-400) in which you discuss and explain how circumstances are analyzed in SFL taking into consideration also function and form. Illustrate your answers with appropriate examples. Make sure your ideas and explanations are clear, comprehensive, focused. Use your own words.

Suggested answer notes:

In order to identify circumstances, certain probes or tests can be useful:

Focusing on the process (which is realized by a finite or non-finite verb group) and asking questions about this process. Asking questions about the process is useful because circumstances are the parts of the clause that tell us where, when, how, why, etc. the process takes place.

Another feature of circumstances is that they can usually be moved around the clause.

Structural forms can be used to help us identify circumstances. Frequently (though not always), circumstances are expressed through prepositional and adverb groups. However, circumstances are occasionally expressed as noun groups.

Prepositional groups:

These are commonly used to realize circumstances (often providing information on the location of a process, either in space or time). A prepositional group typically consists of a preposition and a noun group.

Adverb group:

It is often used to realize circumstances, particularly when giving information about the manner in which a process is carried out. It has an adverb as its head word and may have other adverbs to modify it.

Noun groups:

Noun groups (without prepositions) may also be used (though less frequently) to provide additional background on the process, e.g. He came home last week.

Function and form in SFL:

There is no one-to-one relationship between function and form. In the case of circumstances, not all adverb and prepositional groups function as circumstances and not all circumstances are expressed through prepositional or adverb groups (though many of them are).

In SFL, functional and structural grammatical analysis should be mutually helpful. Breaking a clause into meaningful functional elements (such as participant, process or circumstance) will help us to recognize structural forms and identifying structural form will help us to see functional elements. And when it come to interpretation of texts, functional analysis will be particularly helpful in enabling us to consider how the overall patterns of choices in functional elements contribute to the meaning of a text.

SFL focuses on meaning making and identifies and labels chunks of grammar accordingly. While it builds on structural forms and takes into account their role in meaning-making, its primary emphasis is on function and meaning.

Function and form in SFL:

Q: Structural grammar are formal and traditional grammar that divides language on the basis of word classes, such as (nouns, verbs, and adjectives), because of its long history is also known as a 'traditional grammar' approach.

There is no one-to-one relationship between function and form. In the case of **circumstances**, not all adverb and prepositional groups function as **circumstances** and not all **circumstances** are expressed through prepositional or adverb groups though many of them are. In SFL, functional and structural grammatical analysis should be mutually helpful. Breaking a clause into meaningful functional elements, such as participant, process, or circumstance which that will help us to recognize structural forms and identifying structural form will help us to see functional elements. Moreover, when it comes to interpretation of texts, functional analysis will be particularly helpful in enabling us to consider how the overall patterns of choices in functional elements contribute to the meaning of a text. SFL focuses on meaning making and identifies and labels chunks of grammar accordingly. While it builds on structural forms and considers their role in meaning-making, its primary emphasis is on function and meaning indicate the class or category of the head word ("what type is it?"). Classifiers are usually realized by adjectives and nouns.

There is another functional group that acts as a **premodifier** and that is the numerative. Numeratives quantify and order items numerically. They pre-modify the Head by indicating some numerical feature of the noun, such as number (three, a few, a lot of, etc.), quantity (a kilo, a pound of, etc.) or order (first, last, etc.). Postmodifiers and qualification are the postmodifying element is one whose function is to further qualify the Head (to the right of the head), so its functional label is qualifier. Qualifiers can be realized by either prepositional phrases or clauses or both. It is possible to have multiple qualifiers. Qualifiers can be qualified themselves by other qualifiers; thus, making the noun phrase more complex. This phenomenon is referred to as embedding, so we can have multiple embedded clauses and embedded prepositional phrases.
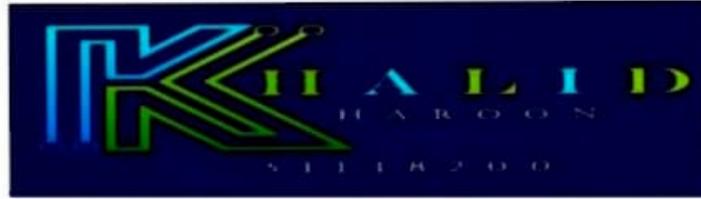
Q: As part of the textual metafunction aspect, discuss how we organize our written messages within clauses to convey different meanings.

Answer notes:

-The structure of a clause in different text types in English is also a way of organizing a message in ways that make it accessible to the listener/reader.

In English, what we put at the beginning and end of a clause in particular can be important for making the meaning clear. There is a reasonable amount of choice concerning which element we begin the clause with, but it isn't the case that the choice is random. In written English, when you are writing, you have to take all the responsibility for making the meaning clear because there are no phonological or any other oral resources to help you structure the information. Therefore, you have to structure the messages you want to convey carefully both within and between clauses. You have to be careful to make your wordings 'flow' well and to signal when you are shifting to a new point or angle. Because of this, written English is more likely to exploit two particular patterns that provide flexibility in the organization of information. One of these is the use of a circumstance rather than the more common participant to begin the clause with.

The initial **circumstance**, that is the circumstance occurring at the beginning of the clause, plays a role in structuring the information in the text as a whole, for example alerting the reader to notice that the information moves on from general facts/information to more specific things or drawing his attention to a contrast being st up two or more conditions/things. While speakers as well as writers utilize variation in the order of elements, it is in writing that an initial circumstance is more common because the producer and receiver of the language are separated and more planned organization of one clause in relation to another is required. Sometimes, by contrast, a writer may also wish to achieve continuity with what went before by beginning the new clause with something mentioned at the end of the previous one. In order to achieve this smooth flow of information, the writer can use the passive voice structure.

The **passive structure** is much more frequent in formal written texts than in spoken English. One major reason is that achieving a 'flow' without the help of intonation or the situational context available in speech requires writers to exploit more fully the possibilities for varying the organization of elements in an individual clause, that is, to make grammatical adjustments. So written text does have the advantage of time for planning and opportunities for editing. Thus, written texts can be constructed with greater attention to how the message is packaged than spoken ones.

Group Complex

A Verb Group consist of a 'single word' or 'several words' which some verbs include an adverb or preposition, like fly by or get up or run out. Each verb group consists of one lexical verb, which carries the main meaning and may have one or more (auxiliary verbs). For example, the verb group (have been waiting) contains (the lexical verb waiting) and (the auxiliaries have and been).

Finite and Non-finite verbs: Finite verbs may have either present or past tense, whereas non-finite verbs have no tense. In a finite verb group, the first word "finite" sometimes changes to show the present/past tense. Modal verbs as non-finite in that it does (not have an infinitive or participle form). Non-Finite Verbs, such as verbs that do not show tense, person, or number (go – to go – going). In English, there are two aspects 'perfect or progressive'. It is also possible for a verb group to be both 'perfect' and 'progressive', such as (had been *waiting*). Perfect indicates that an event or state happens before something else. While a perfect verb group includes the auxiliary have followed by a past participle, such as (have *changed*). The progressive: indicates that an event or state is in progress rather than complete as known called the (Continuous). It includes the "auxiliary be" followed by a present participle, such as (were *singing*). Clause Components means that words have to (be organised in clauses). Each clause is built up around (a verb). The verb describes the process, and other parts of the clause provide further information about what is involved in the process (subject/verb/object/adverbial). Transitive/Intransitive verbs: a verb which takes an object is called a Transitive verb. For example: (Open + the box = Verb = Object) – (Take + the money = Verb + Object). A verb which does not take an object is called an "Intransitive verb". (Wait! = Verb) - (Sleep + well = Verb + Adverbial). Many verbs can be used either transitively or intransitively, depending on the context.

A clause is a fundamental unit in the process of communication because it is the minimal unit which can stand alone as constituting a complete message. Clause can range from those with one process only to those with a process and several participants and circumstances. One of the keys to identifying clause boundaries in the text is to see that each clause must have a process. There is at least one process, such as got, went, to buy, bought and liked? There are several other aspects can help you identify the 'boundaries'. In written language, full stops indicate a clause boundary. Intonation patterns provide a guide. Commas often, but not always, mark clause boundaries. We can use conjunctions (when, and and) as one of the key indicators because of their position near or at the beginning of a new clause. Another helpful test is to see if the clause is moveable as a unit. A further guide to identifying clause boundaries, but not evident, is the presence of grammatical elements like, who, which, whose. Non-clausal units are defined as structural units that are not composed of clauses. Non-clausal material is defined as the parts of the text which do not consist of clauses. It units reflect the simplicity of grammatical constructions resulting from real-time production in conversation, such as 'Poor Kids, Good for you'. Many questions in conversation occur as noun group or a verbless structure beginning with a wh-word, such as 'More sauce? How about your wife?' Its units can also be related to ellipsis. For example, 'Perfect!' as a response is equivalent to the clause That's perfectwith the subject and verb omitted. In complexes, the rank scale looks at language hierarchically. The clause of complexes are clauses of various kinds combine into larger stretches of language. In the scale we use here, there are four levels: the clause/clause complex level, the phrase level, the word level, and the morpheme level. Even though every room in the school had an air conditioner, the heat was unbearable. The sentence is essentially a phenomenon of written language. It can be identified as a stretch of words beginning with a capital letter and ending with a full stop. This doesn't apply to spoken language where a more useful unit to be working with is the clause complex. This are the highest or broadest scale rank/level of grammatical constituent which are said to be constituted of one or more clauses. There are two ways that clauses can be linked to form clause complexes are coordination; where two potentially independent grammatically equal clauses are linked, generally through conjunctions like, 'and', 'but' and 'or'. For example, you can watch television, or you can have a swim in the pool. An independent clause is one which stands by itself and has (equal status) to the other clause or clauses it is being linked with subordinate clause that is not able to stand alone. The independent grammatical status of a clause is indicated by the possibility of reorganizing the sequence of the clauses without significantly changing the meaning or rendering the clause complex ungrammatical.

Q: Briefly discuss <mark>Short Passive</mark> as a grammatical structure used to de-emphasize or obscure informational aspects in written texts. Short passive is a passive structure where the agent (actor/doer of the action), such as the by-phrase, is not used.

The **use of short passive is one mechanism by which the role of those responsible for an action may be obscured or suppressed. If that action is likely to be viewed negatively by the reader/listener, then such a formulation can act to deflect criticism from those responsible for the action. Short passives may be used to present a given social entity in a more positive light, or at least to mitigate negative evaluations of that social actor/agent. Not all short passives will have such an evaluative functionality textual context must be considered. But here again the short passive might still have a very strong rhetorical effect.**

<mark>**Identify the clause components: circumstance and adverbial'**</mark>

Some linguists call this component 'adjunct' or 'circumstance'. The other main component is the 'adverbial'. Adverbials: are elements of a clause which give further information about the circumstances of the process, typically about Circumstances are the elements of a clause that add information about the situation surrounding the process: how (manner), where (location), when (location in time), why (cause), how long (extent) etc which it takes place. Adverbials are often optional elements that can be omitted without making the clause ungrammatical. They can also be found in different positions in the clause. Often, it is possible to move an adverbial to different places in the clause.


Write an essay discuss and explain the three aspects of Tenor (the interpersonal meanings).with examples.

Social roles and relative social status (equality/inequality): (in spoken interaction)

This phenomenon is best observed in interactive types of texts such as spoken dialogues where multiple participants can be seen adopting positions of greater or lesser social standing relative to each other. It can also be observed, but to a lesser extent, in non-interactive texts such as most forms of writing, where it is still possible for writers to present themselves as authoritative or expert. Relative social status is revealed by whether or not the people communicating have equal access to, or make equal use of, various key meanings and communicative functions, for example: making statements, asking questions, giving directions, making use of similar terms of address when referring to each other (formal titles such as 'Sir', 'Dr.', 'Mr.' as opposed to given names), determining the direction the conversation takes by, for example, choosing or changing the topic, passing judgments or making assessments.

Speaker/writer persona: power, expertise or authority: In the case of single-participant, non-interactive texts, the text is constructed by a single author (or possibly more) and so we no longer have the option of comparing and contrasting the different linguistic contributions of the various speakers. Here we need to examine how individual authors present themselves to the readers. We need to consider whether, by their language, writers represent themselves as being authoritative, expert, powerful or otherwise holding a position of influence or high status in society (the persona being created in the text), whether the language used is assertive or demonstrating expertise, whether the writers present themselves as in a position to give advice to readers or to direct or control the actions of others, to criticize or praise others, and so on.

Social distance (degree of familiarity or connection): Whether the language used indicates that the communicative participants are more or less well known to each other (family members, friends, etc.) or, alternatively, indicates that they are not on familiar terms or are in some other way socially distant. Social closeness is indicated via the use of 'informal' language (e.g. use of colloquial, casual, or slang vocabulary, use of more familiar terms of address, use of reduced, abbreviated or elliptical forms of expression, incomplete clauses, etc.
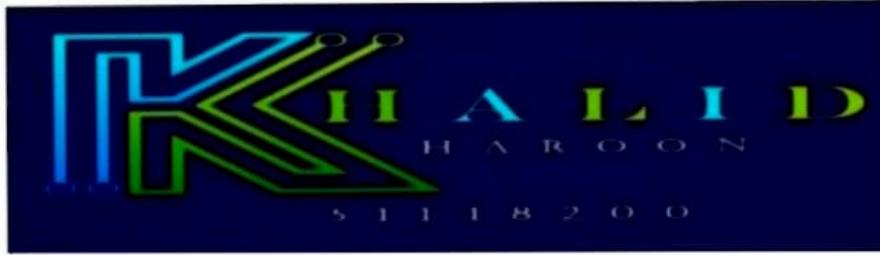
Q: Discuss the aspect of textual metafunction: how we organize our Spoken messages within clauses to convey different meanings.

The structure of a clause in different text types in English is also a way of organizing a message in ways that make it accessible to the listener/reader. In English, what we put at the beginning and end of a clause in particular can be important for making the meaning clear. There is a reasonable amount of choice concerning which element we begin the clause with, but it isn't the case that the choice is random. In conversational and spontaneous interactions, the grammar and organization of information often look very different. Analysis and interpretation of the grammar of a large corpus of spontaneous speech has been led by British corpus linguists who have been influenced by Halliday's interest in language variety and how it works differently in spoken interaction compared to more planned formal writing. those British corpus linguists suggest four principles that govern the structuring of spoken grammar: spoken language happens in real time and is typically unplanned. Spoken language is most typically face to face. Spoken language foregrounds choices which reflect the immediate social and interpersonal situation. Spoken language and written language are not sharply divided but exist on a continuum.

The unplanned nature of the spoken utterances can be seen in the hesitations and fillers which give thinking time. The unplanned nature of spontaneous speech results in the creation of constructions that do not neatly conform to our standard descriptions. In conversational English, sometimes, noun groups occur before the actual subject of a clause in declarative sentences. These noun groups are often called 'headers' or 'heads' and they reflect common pattern in English. Some of the reasons for such structures and their function in spoken English are limited time for planning and for emphasis. In conversational English, speakers sometimes use different kinds of added-on endings, often called 'tails' at the end of the clause. They function to adjust the meaning of what has been uttered by the speaker to add clarity; to strengthen the interpersonal relationship with the listener; to the qualify the statement; and 'amplify' or emphasize something in the message, etc. what 'tails' have in common is that they allow the meaning of the clause to be 'fine-tuned' after it has been uttered, since it could not be carefully planned.

Different representations of the same content embodied in different grammar choices can convey different ways of viewing the world. For example, Fishermen traditionally caught 100,000 tons of fish per year in the North Sea. The North Sea used to provide 100,000 tons of fish per year. These sentences present the same content, but they convey different views of the natural world. This is revealed by looking at the grammar of the sentences. First, the process types of the two sentences present material verbs. This reveals that both sentences talk about activities and action. In the North Sea is presented as circumstance, thus, providing background information, secondary in importance and in a marginal position. Looking at the participants reveal the view of the writers; in the first sentence Fishermen is the actor and 100,000 tons of fish is the goal. The North Sea is presented as a circumstance thus marginal information. The second sentence reveals different grammar relations. The North Sea is presented as the actor of the sentence of an action verb. This places the North Sea (a non-human subject) as an active participant of the action taking place. Thus, it is presented in a focal position emitting an action verb. This presentation may help us to change our views to the natural world. It is presented from a Nature dominant point of view.

Looking at Participants, Processes and Circumstance, which represent experiential meaning, can reveal different views and points of view. Participants are expressed by chunks organized around noun phrases and acting to identify entities in some experiential world. Processes are expressed as chunks organized around verb phrases and acting to identify happenings and states of affairs in some experiential world.

Circumstances are expressed as adverbial phrases or prepositional phrases and acting to provide some context for the participant and processes. Its unmarked typical position in the sentence is after the verb phrase or object participant in transitional sentences. It is placed in this marginal position since it provides additional background information. If the position differs, for example, at the beginning of the sentence, this reveals different view towards this background information since it is placed in a focal position before the participants and process.

By looking at processes we can specify the degree of agency and affectedness of the participants. For example, using frequent material processes indicates content that represents action and activity. The participants involved can either be an active, effective and dynamic participant (if it is an actor and in the subject position before the process); or it could be a more passive, inert, acted upon participant if placed after the verb phrase as a goal. This degree of agency and affectedness can be revealed also by looking at transitivity and intransitivity and long passives. The agent in these sentences is presented as an active participant with a strong impact on the world. Using short passives, nominalization and ergative verbs can help hide agency and thus de-emphasize actors and evade responsibility.

Mode is one of the language aspects which determines the nature of the text whether it takes the form of writing or speech. The metafunction of the mode is known as a textual metafunction. Mode has three linguistic indicators including interactivity, spontaneity, and role of language. Firstly, interactivity is one of the mode's aspects of a text. It has the most influence on the style of language that has been used in a text. Some texts are interactive with multiple interactants while others are non-interactive with one speaker/writer in isolation. Interactive texts include some elements such as turn-taking, questions and answers, interruptions, hesitators, and overlaps. Each element creates kind of interactivity, for example, "speaker 1: the idea is … / speaker 2: It is a very good idea". In this example, there is an overlap and interruption in which they create a kind of interactivity between speaker 1 and speaker 2. Secondly, spontaneity focuses on the idea whether the text is produced in "real time", spontaneously and without pre-editing; or it is produced in "off-line" and non-spontaneously. Spontaneity has some indicators such as pauses, mid-utterance correction, and repetition, false starts, reformulations. For example, "speaker 1: the book is about cultures. Cultures of people.. / speaker 2: cultures of people around the world". In this example where there is a repetition which creates a sense of spontaneity to the text. Thirdly, role of language is the third key aspect of mode which concerns the role language is playing. For example, is the language taking the main role in delivering the meaning or there are other sources for example physical action that in T.V live programs the language accompanies with the action in order to express the meaning; visual images a map or a diagram in the book; sounds for example, the music accompanying a TV advertisement. In other words, it is the way that the language has in order to make meaning whether by its own or by the existence of other semiotic resources. All these points show the three main aspects of mode including interactivity, spontaneity, and role of language in which each one has its role in expressing the textual metafunction of a text.

Write an essay (350-400) in which you discuss and explain how clauses can be combined to form clause complexes through *subordination.* Illustrate your answers with appropriate examples. Make sure your ideas and explanations are clear, comprehensive, focused. *Use your own words.*

Answer notes:
(Full, complete, and focused answer should include the following major points with good examples)

- Clause complexes are the highest or broadest-scale rank/level of grammatical constituent. They are formed through the linking of individual clauses: each unit constitutes a clause because each has its own separate process with each process surrounded by its own associated participants and circumstances. Clause complexes, accordingly, are said to be constituted of one or more clauses.
- One of the two ways of combining clauses into clause complexes is subordination – where a potentially independent primary clause is linked with a dependent or secondary clause which could not operate independently. This kind of linking is generally achieved through conjunctions like 'while', 'because', and 'though' and through relative pronouns like 'who' and 'which'. An independent clause is one which stands by itself and has equal status to the

other clause or clauses it is being liked with. A dependent clause (subordinate clause), is not able to stand alone. It acts to supply supportive, background or modifying information for other clauses, or to act to elaborate or extend those main clauses in some way.
- There are three types of dependent clause: circumstantial, relative (restrictive and non-restrictive (interrupting or elaborating)) and nominal. (Students should discuss and elaborate each type)
- Discussion of finite and non-finite clauses
- Discussion of clause complex of 'reporting' and 'quoting' (projecting and projected clauses)
- Discussion of embedded clauses (complement clauses or nominal clauses)

Q: Discuss the aspect of textual metafunction: how we organize our structures spoken messages within clauses to convey different meanings.?

In English, what we put at the beginning and end of a clause can be important for clarifying the meaning. **The weaving or** binding of meanings to create a unified text is sometimes described **as giving** texture **to a text.** There is a reasonable choice concerning which element we begin the clause with, but it isn't the case that the choice is random.

In conversational and spontaneous interactions, the grammar and organization of information often look very different. British corpus linguists led to the analysis and interpretation of the grammar of a large corpus of spontaneous speech, influencing *Halliday's* interest in language variation and how it works differently in spoken interaction compared to more planned formal writing.

Firstly, 'spoken grammar', they speak the language in 'real-time' and is 'typically unplanned'. For example, ungrammatical may not be appropriate in conversation and does not have a specific system and structure. Secondly, spoken language is most typically 'face-to-face'. Thirdly, spoken language foregrounds choices which reflect the "immediate social and interpersonal situation". Lastly, spoken language and written language are "not sharply divided but exist on a continuum". Moreover, the unplanned nature of the spoken utterances can be seen in the hesitations and fillers which give thinking time. Thus, the unplanned nature of spontaneous speech results in constructing constructions that do not neatly conform to our standard descriptions. In conversational English, sometimes, noun groups occur before the actual subject of a clause in declarative sentences. These noun groups are often called 'headers' or 'heads' and reflect common English patterns. Some of the reasons for such structures and their function in spoken English are the limited time for planning and emphasis.

In conversational English, speakers sometimes use different kinds of "added-on endings", often called "tails' at the end of the clause. They function to adjust the meaning of what has been uttered by the speaker to add clarity, strengthen the interpersonal relationship with the listener, qualify the statement, and 'amplify' or "emphasize something in the message", etc., what 'tails' have in common is that they allow the meaning of the clause to be 'fine-tuned' after it has been uttered since it could not be carefully planned.