

Describing languages, understanding language: Systemic Functional theory and description

Pre-Publication DRAFT

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Abstract

This volume has been designed to illustrate the wholistic perspective on language description afforded by Systemic Functional Linguistic (hereafter SFL) theory. Part 1 focuses on grammatical description, in studies of Mongolian, Classical Tibetan, Chilean Spanish, Brazilian Portuguese and Tagalog. Part 2 focuses on the contextualisation of such descriptions in relation to higher levels of analysis (discourse semantics, register and genre), multilingual discourse (in an EFL classroom) and semiosis beyond language (mathematical symbolism in particular) – with reference to English, Spanish, Chinese, Pitjantjatjara, Oromo and Indonesian. In this introductory chapter we will provide a brief outline of the SFL model of language informing these discussions and then introduce each contribution in more detail. We conclude with consideration of the contribution of this volume to functional linguistic theory and description.

1. Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL)

For most readers SFL is probably best known for its descriptions of English grammar (e.g. Halliday 1985 and subsequent editions), cohesion and discourse structure (e.g. Halliday & Hasan 1976; Martin 1992), genre (e.g. Martin & Rose 2008), appraisal (e.g. Martin & White 2005) and multimodality (e.g. Kress & van Leeuwen 1990 and subsequent editions; Bateman 2008). Less well known are its descriptions of a wide range of languages and language families, as exemplified in Caffarel et al. 2004, Martin & Doran 2015a, Martin 2018 and Martin et al. in press a – and surveyed in Mwinlaaru & Xuan 2016. In this section we introduce the basic theoretical architecture informing all this work. In order to maximise the accessibility of this introduction we will take English grammar as point of departure, leaving it to subsequent chapters to deploy SFL's basic principles for other languages and modalities. Examples are taken or adapted from the legal discourse text presented at the end of this chapter.¹ The key references for this introduction are Matthiessen & Halliday 2009, Martin et al. 2013 and Martin et al. in press b; for foundational papers see Martin & Doran 2015b; for SFL handbooks see Bartlett & O'Grady 2017, Thompson et al. 2019; for surveys of the range of work carried out in SFL see Hasan et al. 2005, 2007, Halliday & Webster 2009, Webster 2013.

Like all linguists SFL linguists are concerned with non-random (i.e. informationally redundant) combinations of linguistic entities – be they phonological, grammatical, discursal or beyond. Consider for example the words making up *There will be a seat for him*. In this example we can begin by naming the word classes involved (leaving aside the word *there* for now):

¹ The text is taken from data analysed in Hood & Maggiora (2016) and used with their permission.

1.	<i>will</i>	<i>be</i>	<i>a</i>	<i>seat</i>	<i>for</i>	<i>him</i>
word class	auxiliary verb	verb	determiner	noun	preposition	pronoun

We can take a further step by combining these words into three significant combinations (technically, syntagms): *will be*, *a seat* and *for him*. We can name these syntagms of words as classes in their own right – as verbal group, nominal group and prepositional phrase in this example. This means that if we encounter a syntagm like *a seat* elsewhere (e.g. *it might give him a seat*), we can refer to it as a whole (i.e. as a nominal group) and not simply as a non-random sequence of determiner and noun.

1'.	<i>will</i>	<i>be</i>	<i>a</i>	<i>seat</i>	<i>for</i>	<i>him</i>
word class	auxiliary verb	verb	determiner	noun	preposition	pronoun
group/ phrase class	verbal group		nominal group		prepositional phrase	

In this grammar, we can push up by naming non-random sequences of groups and phrases as a class of clause (e.g. declarative); and we can push down to allow for non-random sequences of morphemes constituting words (e.g. *do-n't* and *seat-s* below). This gives us a scale of units in our grammar, with clause classes consisting of one or more group/phrase classes, group/phrase classes consisting of one or more word classes, and word classes consisting of one or more morpheme classes. This SFL constituency hierarchy is referred to as *rank*.

2.	<i>you don't have vacant seats</i>						
ranks	<i>you</i>	<i>do</i>	<i>-n't</i>	<i>have</i>	<i>vacant</i>	<i>seat</i>	<i>-s</i>
morpheme class	2SG	PRS	NEG	stem	stem	stem	PL
word class	pronoun	auxiliary verb		verb	adjective	noun	
group/phrase class	nominal group		verbal group		nominal group		
clause class	relational clause						

For a given grammatical unit, syntagmatic relations of this kind are often represented as an image in a phrase structure tree – popularised in the formal syntax inspired by Chomsky's postgraduate research 1955-1956, 1957.² Phrase structure trees are typically binary branching, drawing on what American structuralists referred to as 'immediate constituent (IC) analysis (cf. Wells 1947). Various abbreviations, regularly drawing on Harris 1946, are used in these visualisations for the names of classes.

In SFL recognising classes is just one step as far as grammatical description is concerned. We also need to understand what each class is doing in any instance – i.e. we need to determine the *function* of each class. One reason for this is that the same function can be performed by more than one class and the same class can perform more than one function.³ A verb for example can be used as the Event function in a verbal group:

(verb as Event)
3. So you always **overbook**

² A representative sample can be accessed at the following URL: <https://www.google.com/search?q=phrase+structure+trees+images&tbm=isch&source=univ&client=firefox-b-d&sa=X&ved=2ahUKFwjvpZfDucngAhWTTX0KHdtYCO0QsAR6BAgFEAE&biw=2145&bih=1301&dpr=2>

³ Outside SFL classes are often referred to as categories, and functions as relations.

or it can be used as a Classifier function in a nominal group:

(verb as Classifier)

4. the **overbooking** policy

Similarly, a Classifier can also be realised by a noun or an adjective.

(noun as Classifier)

5. a **plane** booking (noun as Classifier)

(adjective as Classifier)

6. a **standard** booking

When functioning as Classifiers, potentially gradable classes (e.g. adjectives and verbs) cannot be graded because they are making categorical distinctions. The overbooking policy is here a type of policy, and similarly the standard booking here is opposed to a non-standard booking (rather than being relatively more or less standard);

7. *the **heavily overbooking** policy

8. *a **rather standard** policy⁴

We can accordingly expand 2 as 2', including an analysis of alternating syntagms (configurations of classes) and structures (configurations of functions). By convention in SFL, class labels are written in lower case and function labels being with an initial upper case letter (with the exception of the morpheme classes where we have followed the standard non-SFL Leipzig glossing conventions for capitalisation):

2'.	<i>you don't have vacant seats</i>							
rank	<i>you</i>	<i>do</i>	<i>-n't</i>	<i>have</i>	<i>vacant</i>	<i>seat</i>	<i>-s</i>	
morpheme class	2SG	PRS	NEG	stem	stem	stem	PL	
morpheme function	Head	Head	Suffix	Head	Head	Head	Suffix	
word class	pronoun	auxiliary verb		verb	adjective	noun		
word function	Thing	Tense		Event	Epithet	Thing		
group/phrase class	nominal group		verbal group		nominal group			
group/phrase function	Carrier	Process		Attribute				
clause class	relational clause							

An analysis of this kind can be alternatively presented as a tree, with nodes labelled for function and class (i.e. for both what they do and for what they are).

⁴ In this instance, grading with *rather* indicates a shift in function from Classifier – a non-gradable discrete classification as standard or not-standard – to an Epithet, with varying degrees of standardness (but this is not the intended meaning in this context). For another example from linguistics, one can use *standard* as a Classifier to distinguish a ‘standard variety’ of a language from a ‘non-standard’ variety. Here there are no degrees of standardness; it is a categorical distinction.

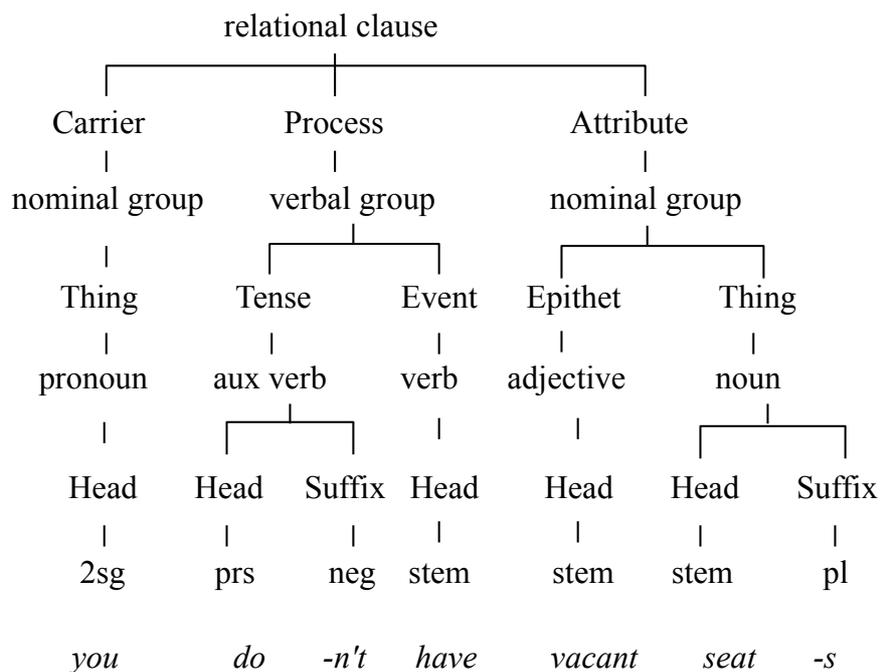


Figure 1: Syntagms and structures (visualisation) for example (2)

The distinction between class and function is of course a familiar one in linguistics, although many theories make little or no use of function labels in grammatical analysis per se. In SFL this distinction between syntagms (as sequences of classes) and structures (as configurations of functions) is crucial, because it is relations among structures that are the focus of the theory.⁵ This enables SFL to produce richer grammatical descriptions than if it focused on syntagms alone. In our focus text for example the lawyer Taylor is introduced as representing his client Edmonds, which means that he was acting on Edmond's behalf in a legal disputation. The clause syntagm in (9) is the same as that in (2) – nominal group followed by verbal group followed by nominal group;

- | | | | |
|----|----------------------|----------------------------------|---------------------------------------|
| 9. | He
nominal group | was representing
verbal group | a guy called Edmonds
nominal group |
| 2. | You
nominal group | don't have
verbal group | vacant seats
nominal group |

Despite the similarity in the syntagm, these sequences of classes realise different structures. We can see this from the fact that they enter into distinctive relationships with other clauses that distinguish one structure from the other. For example, (9) alternates with passive clauses, but (2) does not.

10. Edmonds **was being represented by** Taylor.
11. *Vacant seats **weren't had by** the airlines.

⁵ Relations among syntagms are accounted for indirectly, since they realise structures (cf. the function and class relations in example 2' and Figures 1, 3 and 4).

And for activity concurrent with the moment of speaking (9) uses [present in present] tense, whereas (2) uses [present].

12. He **is representing** Edmonds.

13. *You **aren't having** vacant seats.

Had [present] tense been deployed in (2) it would have shifted the temporality from concurrence with the moment of speaking to habitual behaviour, as in (14).

14. Taylor **represents** Edmonds (whenever he needs legal aid).

Note that we are focusing on relations between clauses here not relations among verbs. The verb *represent* can be used in clauses which pattern like (2) as far as tense is concerned – but when it does, as in (15), the structure does not construe forensic activity but rather a representational relationship between an entity and its symbolisation.

15. The logo **represents** British Airways.

Unlike (2) this clause does have a passive.

16. British Airways **is represented by** that logo.

But unlike (10), it doesn't have an 'agentless' one; both nominal groups have to be present.

17. Edwards is being represented (**by Taylor**).

18. British Airways is represented ***(by that logo)**.

We will not pursue further this discussion of the different structures that can be realised through a nominal group followed by verbal group followed by nominal group syntagm (for one comprehensive SFL description of these in English see Halliday 1985 and subsequent editions). Rather, what we are foregrounding here is the way in which SFL reasons about relationships among structures rather than focusing simply on classes and their sequence (i.e. syntagms). In doing so SFL draws on Gleason's (1965) notions of agnation and enation, and Whorf's (1945) discussion of overt and covert categories (his phenotypes and cryptotypes respectively), explored in detail in Quiroz (this volume). The distinction between 1, 2, 15 and 16 on the one hand and 3, 9, 10, 12, 14 and 17 on the other for example is a distinction between relational vs material clauses (Halliday 1985) – in Whorf's terms a cryptogrammatical distinction. Cryptogrammars are based on what Whorf called reactances – the distinctive syntagms that emerge or not as agnate units are explored (such as those involving the alternations of tense and voice touched on above).

1.1 Cryptogrammatical reasoning

Cryptogrammatical reasoning of this kind is the basis for the development of systems in SFL (such as the simplified network of clause types in Figure 2). Each type of clause has distinguishing agnation patterns which motivate the distinctions (just some of which we noted above). As far as structure is concerned, distinctive configurations of functions are typically proposed for more general systems. Halliday 1985 suggests Actor, Process, and Goal for material clauses (e.g. *He [Actor] was representing [Process] a guy called Edwards*

[Goal]), Senser, Process, and Phenomenon for mental clauses (e.g. *Edmonds* [Senser] *liked* [Process] *that sunshine* [Phenomenon]) and Token, Process, and Value for relational clauses (*the logo* [Token] *represents* [Process] *British Airways* [Value]). For further discussion of axial reasoning in relation to networks of this kind see Quiroz (this volume).

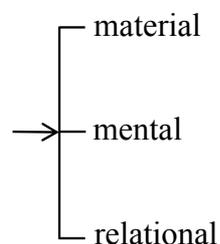


Figure 2: Simplified network of clause types (English TRANSITIVITY)

At this point we can return to the rank scale outlined above and reconsider it from a paradigmatic perspective (i.e. from the perspective of system). What ranks actually represent are generalised points of origin for system networks. That is, they are bundles of relations among structures realised as clauses, among structures realised as groups and phrases, among structures realised as words and among structures realised as morphemes.

For example, the nominal groups realising the participant functions Actor, Goal, Senser Phenomenon, Token and Value in material, mental and relational clauses can be generalised in simplified terms as [designating] or [specifying]; if [designating], as [naming] involving a name, or [pronaming] involving a pronoun; and if [specifying], as optionally [classified], by inserting a Classifier, and/or [determined], by inserting a Deictic.

The network for these systems is presented as Figure 3, along with realisation statements relating paradigmatic choices to syntagmatic structure. The square bracket '[' represents 'or' relations and the curly bracket (the brace '{ ') represents 'and'. Realisation statements are prefaced with a downward slanting arrow. In these statements, '+' means insert a function, '^' sequences functions, '#' represents the first or last position of a unit (so '#^' means insert first and '^#' means insert last) and ':' indicates the class realising a function – typically at the rank below (e.g. the group function Thing realised by the word class pronoun).

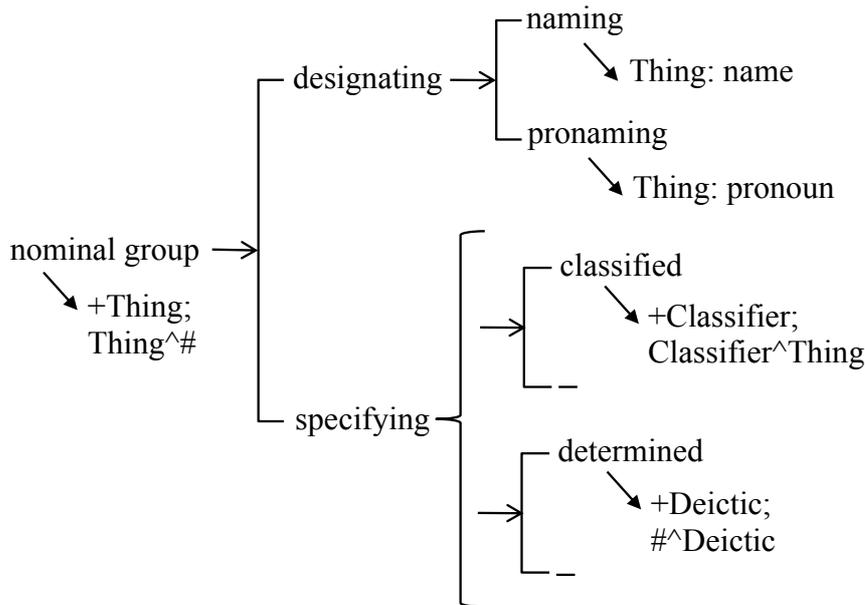


Figure 3: Nominal group system and structure (for examples 1-18)

As we can see, the realisation statements allow us to transition between ranks. If realisation statements had been provided for the clause systems in Figure 2, they would have selected options from the nominal group network in Figure 3 (since clause functions such as Actor or Sensor can be realised as nominal groups); and as we have seen, the realisation statements in Figure 3 select from word class networks that we have not specified (but would include classes such as nominals, adjectives, verbals etc.). For details of this notation and the axial reasoning involved, see Martin et al. 2013, in press a; and see Zhang (this volume) and Wang (this volume) for detailed explorations of the distribution of systems and structures across clause, group and word ranks in Mongolian and Classical Tibetan.

1.2 Metafunction

At this point let's return to our original example and focus on an additional syntagm there – namely *there will*. We have purposely left this aside to this point, as it illustrates a second factor in organising grammars having to do with *metafunction*.

1. **There will** be a seat for him.

Related to this clause, small adjustments in the sequence of this syntagm can involve tags, interrogatives (both polar and elemental) and elliptical responses:

19. **There will** be a seat for him, **will there?**
20. **Will there** be a seat for him?
21. **When will there** be a seat for him?
22. **Will there?**

And the absence of this syntagm from a clause marks a shift from indicative to imperative mood:

23. **o** Be an advocate for him.

Drawing on terms from Halliday 1985 we can generalise the function of the syntagms here as a Subject•Finite structure.⁶ The position and sequence of both the Subject and Finite in any given clause plays a critical role in positioning the clause as an interact in dialogue (referred to in SFL as the system of MOOD), as well as establishing the nub and terms of its negotiability (Martin 2018). A network for some of the key systems and their realisation in structure is presented in Figure 4. These systems reveal a different organisation of the clause from what we have seen above. In fact they cross-classify the system in Figure 3, since the different TRANSITIVITY choices (distinguishing for example, material, mental and relational clauses) combine freely with the different MOOD choices in Figure 4.

In the MOOD system, the realisation statements specify the presence of a Predicator (+Pred) for all clauses and the presence of a Subject and Finite function (+Subj, +Fin) for indicative clauses. The realisation statements also indicate the realisation of the Predicator as a non-finite verbal group in imperative clauses (Pred: non-finite) and a finite verbal group in indicative ones (Pred: finite); the sequence of Subject followed by Finite (Subject^Finite) for declarative clauses and Finite followed by Subject (Finite^Subject) for interrogative clauses; and the presence of a Wh function (+Wh), in initial position (#^Wh), followed by Finite (Wh^Finite) in elemental interrogatives.

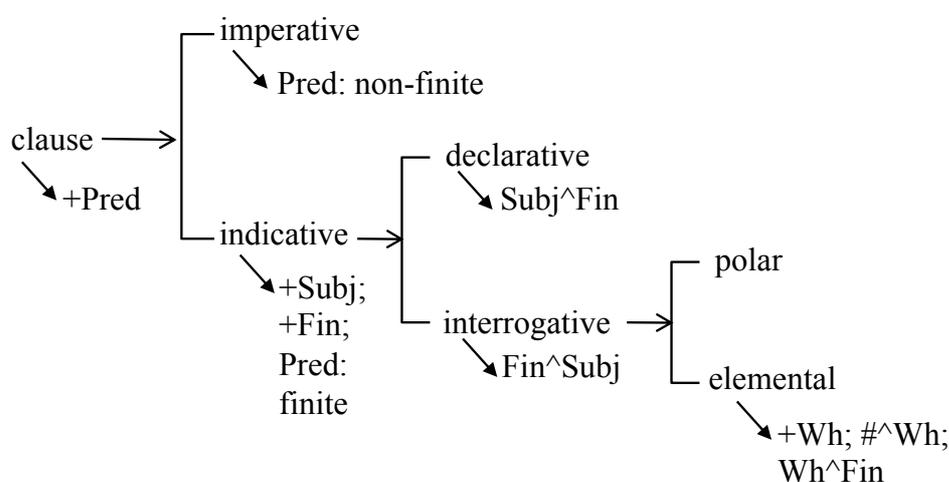


Figure 4: Simplified network of clause types (English MOOD)

The way in which clauses are cross-classified by the TRANSITIVITY and MOOD options introduced above is formalised in the system network in Figure 5. The network offers a glimpse of the way in which systems subclassify and cross-classify one another as clause relations are formalised. Based on his analyses of English grammar (Halliday 1967a, b, 1968, 1969, 1970, 1973) Halliday noted that clause rank systems tended to bundle into three groups based on their relative interdependence on one another (adding THEME systems to the cross-classification in Figure 5; see Figueredo this volume for THEME in Brazilian Portuguese).

⁶ The dot '•' indicates that the Subject and Finite are not in the same sequence across all clause types (i.e. various syntagms realising the same structure).

These bundles, Halliday suggested (with reference to the work of the Prague School; see LaPolla this volume) reflect a general metafunctional organisation of language – with ideational meaning construing a model of the world outside and inside us, interpersonal meaning enacting our social relations, and textual meaning composing information flow (as reflected in the clause rank systems of TRANSITIVITY, MOOD and THEME respectively). In SFL this metafunctional perspective on system dependencies complements the rank-based dependencies introduced above. The key point here is that in a paradigmatically organised grammar the global architecture (rank and metafunction to this point in our discussion) is determined by axis (i.e. system/structure relations).

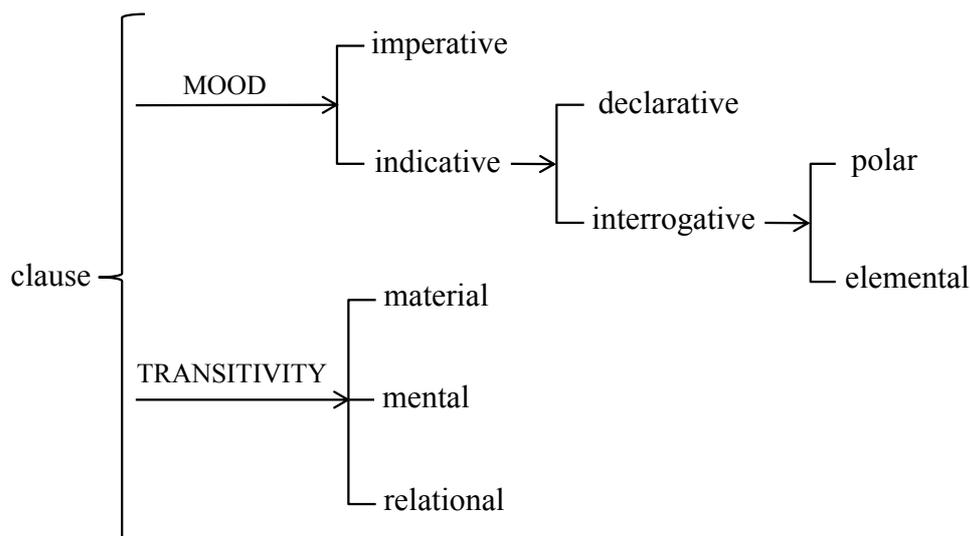


Figure 5: Cross-classification of clauses (MOOD and TRANSITIVITY options)

1.3 Strata

The third piece of SFL architecture we will introduce here has to do with levels of language known as *strata*. So far we've been focusing on grammar.⁷ Looking from 'below', we also have to account for the phonology (Tench 1992, Halliday & Greaves 2008), graphology (Mountford 1998) and 'signology' (Rudge 2017) which encodes language in ways we materialise as physical 'information' we can hear and see. Looking from 'above' we face the challenge of meaning beyond the clause (Martin & Rose 2007). This means taking into account i.) co-textual relations of indefinite extent realised within or between clauses (Martin 2015) and ii.) generalisations of meanings realised across a range of grammatical systems (including what Halliday 1985 introduces as congruent and metaphorical realisations). We can exemplify this by drawing on examples dealing with reference and modalisation (assessments of probability) in our source text.

⁷ More specifically, we can say we have been focusing on lexicogrammar. The term lexicogrammar signals that in SFL grammar and lexis are not treated as separate modules. Rather, lexis is treated as the realisation of increasingly delicate grammatical systems (Hasan 1987), as we move from say the systems triggering the insertion of a Modal Adjunct realised by modal adverbs to specific choices for modalisation (realised by lexical items such as *perhaps*, *probably*, *certainly* etc.).

Co-textual relations are illustrated in (24), where text reference (highlighted in bold) is used within and between clause complexes (i.e. orthographic sentences) to track the idea (in italics) that in extreme circumstances, because of overbooking, a customer may not get a seat.

24. They did not reveal this idea that *in very extreme circumstances there may not be a seat*. Didn't reveal **that**. So British Airways' argument was "Well **this** is so remote. **It** is so unlikely to occur that we don't worry about **it** and you really can't class **it** as a misrepresentation, a deceit".

Text reference of this kind can be used retrospectively or prospectively to identify indefinitely long phases of discourse – viz *this* referencing the whole of Lord Wilberforce's judgement below.

25. Well the courts tend to take a dim view of anyone who lies irrespective of the reasons, at least in commerce anyway. And Lord Wilberforce said **this**.
"The letter, taken with the ticket, would be taken as a statement that Mr. Edmonds had a certain booking, which statement, in view of the overbooking policy, was untrue, since his booking, though very likely to be a firm one, was exposed to risk, small, but as events proved real, and it might give him a seat on the aircraft, it might not. This was a statement of fact rather than a statement of mere intention."

Compare the use of *that* to identify implied entities (i.e. sunshine in the Caribbean and fog and dampness in London below).

26. Edmonds had lived *on the island of Bermuda for a long time, down there in the Caribbean*. Liked **that** sunshine. Decided after many years of this he'd like to take a holiday *in London*. Experience some of **that** fog and dampness.

Turning to meanings realised across a range of grammatical systems, consider the more subjective (27 and 29) and more objective (28 and 30) realisations of probability below (Halliday 1982).

27. there **may** not be a seat

28. It is **so unlikely** to occur that

29. it **might** give him a seat on the aircraft, it might not

30. though **very likely** to be a firm one

We can expand the paradigm by taking verbal and clausal realisations into account.

31. It'll **perhaps** give him a seat.

32. **I reckon** it'll give him a seat.

Halliday scales these alternatives from most subjective to most objective as follows:

32. **I reckon** it'll give him a seat.

29. it **might** give him a seat on the aircraft, it might not

31. It'll **perhaps** give him a seat.

33. It is **likely** to give him a seat.

And he further suggests that the ends of the scale involve grammatical metaphor with the grammar symbolising the semantics rather than directly realising it. The explicitly subjective realisation *I reckon* for example is literally a mental clause with a Senser; it has not been modalised with a modal verb or adverb. But we do not negotiate an example of this kind with reference to its projecting clause. Rather we negotiate the projection (i.e. the idea it reports), because the mental clause is symbolising subjective modalisation; it is not realising a cognitive figure.

34. ***I reckon** it'll give him a seat, **don't I?**

35.

I reckon **it'll** give him a seat, **won't it?**

- Yes, **it will.**

The explicitly objective realisation *it is likely* literally realises the modalisation as an Attribute in a relational clause – as a description of how the seat will be made available. If graded (e.g. *very likely*) and nominalised (e.g. *considerable likelihood*) this objectifying lexicalisation of probability starts to merge with digital construals of probability (ultimately formalised mathematically as statistics). This shift from interpersonal assessment to ideational factuality is an important dimension of argumentation in the legal disputation we are using to contextualise examples here (cf. 36 and 37 below).

36. Only **two times**, the facts indicated, **in every 10,000 bookings** does someone not make it.

37. since his booking, though very likely to be a firm one, was exposed to **risk**, small, but as events proved real,

Co-textualisation and generalisation of this kind for ideational, interpersonal and textual meaning, encouraged the development of a stratified content plane in SFL (Martin 2014, 2016) – comprising a discourse semantics realised through lexicogrammar. The major discourse semantic systems organised by metafunction are outlined in Figure 6 (Martin & Rose 2007) and introduced in more detail in Martin & Quiroz (this volume). In short, NEGOTIATION comprises resources for organising moves in exchanges, APPRAISAL comprises resources for sharing feelings, IDEATION comprises resources for construing experience as figures, CONNEXION comprises resources for connecting figures, IDENTIFICATION comprises resources for introducing and tracking entities and PERIODICITY comprises resources for phasing discourse as waves of information. The interpersonal assessment systems introduced above for modalisation realise APPRAISAL – specifically the sub-systems of ENGAGEMENT positioning voices in discourse (Martin & White 2005).

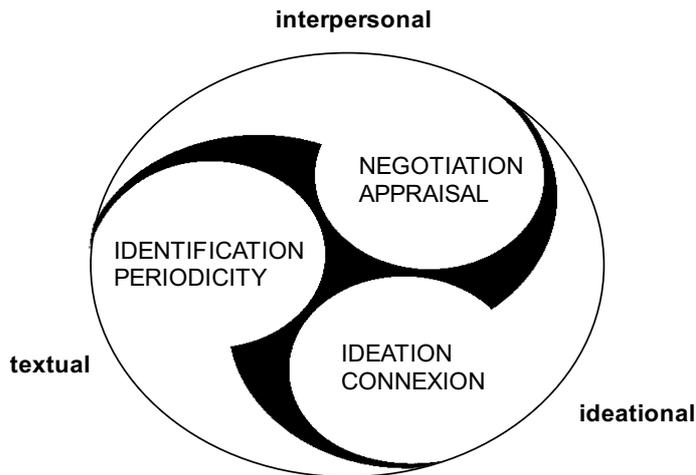


Figure 6: Discourse semantic systems, organised by metafunction

This third dimension of SFL architecture is outlined in Figure 6. The co-tangential circles represent the idea that discourse semantic patterns need to be interpreted as patterns of lexicogrammatical patterns, and lexicogrammatical patterns as patterns of phonological, graphological or signed ones (a relationship referred to technically as metaredundancy). Their increasing size reflects the fact that our focal unit of analysis tends to get bigger as we move from phonology (e.g. **syllable** system and structure) through lexicogrammar (e.g. **clause** system and structure) to discourse semantics (e.g. **text** system and structure).

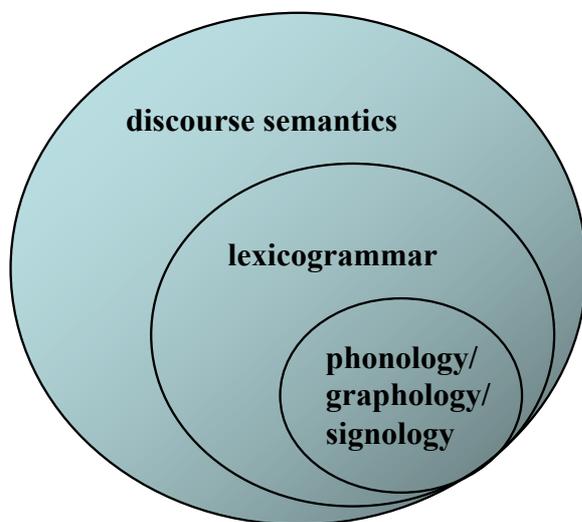


Figure 7: Language strata

A further step into SFL's architecture arises from the fact that to understand why a particular set of linguistic choices are made in any instance, models of language need a model of context. This involves understanding the social purposes of the language in focus, and the broader semiotic variables that underpin why a particular text is how it is. In the model of SFL generally assumed in this volume, context is modelled as two higher level strata: genre and register.

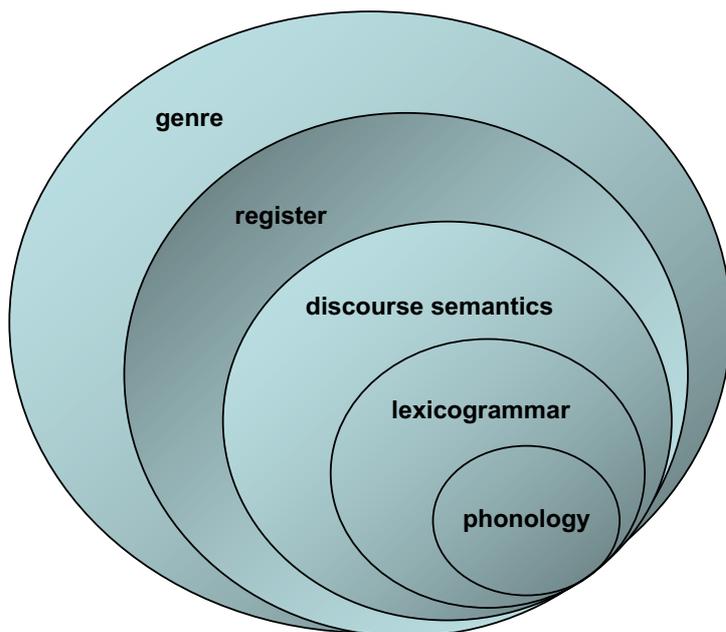


Figure 8: Language, register and genre

Genre offers a means for understanding the overall social purpose of a text and the particular stages it will go through. For our law lecture text, Hood and Maggiora (2016) describe it from the perspective of genre as an *exemplum* (the more specific genre analysis below is based on Martin in press). An *exemplum* is a story genre where there is an unresolved disruption of activity that is then interpreted on moral or ethical grounds. In broad terms, it is a genre oriented to evaluation of behaviour in terms of particular social standards (Martin and Rose 2008). This two-fold purpose of detailing a disruptive event and judging it ethically or morally is reflected in the typical *exemplum* staging of an Incident – which records the problematic events, followed by an Interpretation which evaluates the behaviour in the Incident.

In this instance, the genre is relatively self-contextualising. So in addition to the Incident ^ Interpretation stages, it also includes an Abstract and an Orientation. These are opening stages available for all story genres that predict what is to come (Abstract), and situate the story in its time and/or place and introduce the people involved in it (Orientation). In addition the Interpretation is technicalised in terms of legal principles. In particular, it is concerned with whether British Airways’ promise of a seat for Edwards can be classed as a statement of fact, in which case it was a misrepresentation by virtue of there not being a seat for Edwards, or whether it was a statement of intention, in which case it was neither deceitful nor a misrepresentation. The final judgement is involves three perspectives. One is that of British Airways, who are positioned by the lecturer as arguing that “Well this is so remote. It is so unlikely to occur that we don’t worry about it and you can’t really class it as a misrepresentation, a deceit”. In contrast, Edwards is said to argue that he has “Been waiting for years for my holiday. Wanted to get up to London. Now I can’t get there. Everything’s mucked up.” But as the text arises in a pedagogic setting focused on teaching the law, the crucial component of the Interpretation here is the legal judgement by Lord Wilberforce. In this judgement, Lord Wilberforce classes British Airways promise of a seat as ‘a statement of fact.’

The three perspectives in the Interpretation reflect the complex exigencies of this pedagogic context. On the one hand, it simply retells an unfortunate event experienced by Edwards and which reflects poorly on British Airways. But its relevance to the legal system arises from the fact that this story figures as a legal precedent regarding what constitutes a statement of fact rather than a statement of intention. Perhaps most importantly, this is all underpinned by the pedagogic purpose of the law lecture – namely to apprentice law students into the nuances of the legal system, not just tell a story with legal implications.

So...British Airways and Taylor.

Abstract

Taylor was a guy who worked for a consumer agency, a government agency. He was representing a guy called Edmonds. Edmonds had lived on the island of Bermuda for a long time, down there in the Caribbean. Liked that sunshine.

Orientation

Decided after many years of this he'd like to take a holiday in London. Experience some of that fog and dampness. Get up there. Take in some shows. Go to Wimbledon. Hadn't had a holiday for a long, long time and so this is a big deal for him. Cheap airfare was on offer if you were the early bird. Get in a couple of months early, you book your name, much cheaper. So he did this. Books his flight for London. Plans his holidays.

Incident

Becomes a little bit concerned that maybe his place will get taken if there's a crowd, and someone who paid full fare would be in his seat. So he rings them up, gets some reassurance that that's not the case. There will be a seat for him. And in fact gets a letter confirming the seat that's there. Obviously, he turns up at the airport in Bermuda, no seat.

It turns out that the policy of British Airways, along with many of its competitors, was to overbook because it was realised that some people don't turn up, they get sick, there's misadventure. So you always overbook and that way you don't have vacant seats and you are able to maximise the income of the flight.

Interpretation

Didn't work this time. Only two times, the facts indicated, in every 10,000 bookings does someone not make it. But the airline had said to him "There is a seat for you." They did not reveal this idea that in very extreme circumstances there may not be a seat. Didn't reveal that. So British Airways' argument was "Well this is so remote. It is so unlikely to occur that we don't worry about it and you really can't class it as a misrepresentation, a deceit".

Of course Edmonds had the other view. "Been waiting for years for my holiday. Wanted to get up to London. Now I can't get there. Everything's mucked up." So you see the logic of both arguments.

Well the courts tend to take a dim view of anyone who lies irrespective of the reasons, at least in commerce anyway. And Lord Wilberforce said this.

"The letter, taken with the ticket, would be taken as a statement that Mr. Edmonds had a certain booking, which statement, in view of the overbooking policy, was untrue, since his booking, though very likely to be a firm one, was exposed to risk, small, but as events proved real, and it might give him a seat on the aircraft, it might not. This was a statement of fact rather than a statement of mere intention."

Hence, this was considered then a statement of fact. Why? Because you told me today there was a seat for me in the future. It was not really, as you've masked it, a statement today that you intend to give me a seat in the future.

Do you see the subtle difference? Not sure? Too subtle? Not getting a lot of feedback here. Is anyone unsure of the subtlety, the difference between

someone...? Remember the example we used the other day when we were talking about this sort of stuff. If someone says to you, "Will you meet me for coffee tomorrow, at ten o'clock?" and you say "Yes." and at the time you say that you have no intention of turning up, even though it is in the future, it is still a lie today. Correct? This is the same thing in this case.

The different stages in this genre are realised through distinct register patterns. In the first instance, they are different in terms of their orientation to the *field* of the text – i.e. the type of phenomena they construe (Doran and Martin 2020). In the Incident stage, for example, there is a phase of momented activity, where events are listed in temporal sequence, one after the other (^ indicates sequence – only Edwards' activities are listed below):

Decided after many years of this he'd like to take a holiday in London.

^

So he did this. Books his flight for London.

^

Plans his holidays.

^

Becomes a little bit concerned that maybe his place will get taken if there's a crowd, and someone who paid full fare would be in his seat.

^

So he rings them up,

^

gets some reassurance that that's not the case. There will be a seat for him.

^

And in fact gets a letter confirming the seat that's there.

^

Obviously, he turns up at the airport in Bermuda,

^

no seat.

In the Interpretation stage, in contrast, the meanings are not oriented to simply stepping through events, but rather with determining whether the sale of a ticket and letter of confirmation are legally classified as a *statement of fact* or a *statement of interpretation* (and thus, whether the ticket and letter of confirmation involve a misrepresentation or not). Lord Wilberforce sums this up by stating unequivocally:

This was a statement of fact rather than a statement of mere intention.

These two stages thus construe two types of phenomena. The Incident construes the field as a dynamic unfolding of events, while the Interpretation construes the field as a static taxonomizing of (abstract) items (i.e. the statements).

At the same time, the text displays shifts in the two other variables of register, *tenor* (involving the interpersonal relations of power and solidarity), and *mode* (involving shifts in the contextualising role language is playing). As noted above the lecturer regularly moves back and forth between language that is careful to make explicit the relations among its meanings, and language that is more implicit about these meanings (and so more open to interpretation). This reflects shifts between language constituting a field (language as

reflection) and language more ancillary to field (language as action). Lord Wilberforce's judgement involves more reflective language, leaving very little to the listener to 'read between the lines':

"The letter, taken with the ticket, would be taken as a statement that Mr. Edmonds had a certain booking, which statement, in view of the overbooking policy, was untrue, since his booking, though very likely to be a firm one, was exposed to risk, small, but as events proved real, and it might give him a seat on the aircraft, it might not. This was a statement of fact rather than a statement of mere intention."

In contrast, when the lecturer is attempting to check what the students understood, the language shifts to being more reliant on the physical and social setting it is spoken in, as well as becoming considerably more dialogic:

Do you see the subtle difference? Not sure? Too subtle? Not getting a lot of feedback here. Is anyone unsure of the subtlety, the difference between someone...?

In common-sense terms, Lord Wilberforce's judgement is more 'written' in the way it construes meaning, while the lecturer's attempt at engaging students is more 'spoken'.

Engaging students at this point in the lecture of course involves more than spoken language. It also involves the 'paralinguistic' resources of body language (Hood and Maggiora 2016, Martinec 1998, 2000, 2001, Martin and Zappavigna 2019), the spatial configuration of the room (positioning the lecturer below the students who sit in tiered rows of seat above) (e.g. Ravelli and McMurtrie 2016), as well as the slides projected onto the screen and the range of various image or other resources projected there at any time (e.g. symbols, O'Halloran 2005, Doran 2018; music, van Leeuwen 1999; or film, Bateman and Schmidt 2012). In general terms then, for a comprehensive analysis of discourse, we need a multimodal model of semiosis. SFL theory has been foundational to the development of a social semiotic model of discourse, inspired by seminal descriptions of images by Kress and van Leeuwen (1990) and O'Toole (1994).

2. Contributions to this volume

This volume is organised into two parts. Part I, *Understanding grammar*, explores lexicogrammatical systems and structures across languages. It focuses in particular on how meaning-making resources are distributed across ranks and diversified across metafunctions. Zhang (Chapter 2) carefully illustrates this through a description of the verbal group in Khorchin Mongolian. Beginning with clause-based distinctions, he shows that in order to understand both interpersonal and ideational clause distinctions in Mongolian, the description must focus on the highly elaborated systems of the verbal group that realise them. This in turn implicates a number of word-class distinctions and ultimately morphological markings. Working along these lines, Zhang shows clearly how a language can distribute metafunctionally diversified meanings across ranks. Throughout the description the chapter carefully illustrates axial argumentation – the motivation of a description in both systemic and structural terms – in ways that underpin each of the chapters in the rest of the volume.

The three following chapters focus more specifically on clause grammar, foregrounding different metafunctions. Wang (Chapter 3) explores the enactment of interpersonal meaning in Classical Tibetan. Taking the discourse semantic system of NEGOTIATION as its point of

departure (the system oriented to dialogic exchanges) the description shows that Classical Tibetan does not make a generalisable distinction between clause types that give or demand information (i.e. between interrogative and declarative clauses within MOOD). Rather Classical Tibetan enacts dialogue through an intricate interplay of three main clausal systems – MOOD, POLARITY and a third system termed FINALISATION which is realised through Predicate-final interpersonal particles. This linguo-centric description underscores the need for careful axial argumentation – argumentation that does not take the familiar distinction between interrogative and declarative moods for granted.

Quiroz (Chapter 4) turns her attention to cryptogrammatical argumentation in experiential clause grammar, focusing on TRANSITIVITY in Chilean Spanish. Following an in-depth discussion of what a cryptogrammar involves, Quiroz explores ways of reasoning about process types in Systemic Functional Linguistics. She exemplifies this by progressively building up a range of reactances for distinguishing types of mental clause in Spanish. Throughout the chapter Quiroz shows that sets of reactances cluster together in ways that enable distinctions that cannot be recognised if, on the one hand, there was a focus on verb types (rather than clause types) and if, on the other, there was a reliance on explicit markings (i.e. on phenotypes rather than cryptotypes).

Figueredo (Chapter 5) extends this discussion of clause grammar into the textual grammar of Brazilian Portuguese. Here Figueredo explores the crucial role textual resources play in the logogenesis of discourse. This involves first establishing clear distinctions in the discourse semantic system of PERIODICITY (concerned with waves of informational prominence in discourse) and in the ways texts shift or maintain their gaze on a particular field. From this, Figueredo is able to establish grammatical distinctions in the clausal system of THEME and their realisation in the group/phrase rank below – realisations that compose these discourse semantic variations. This chapter shows the importance of looking at grammar in relation to co-text, and also illustrates how descriptions sensitive to discourse semantic patterns can be developed.

LaPolla (Chapter 6) rounds out the focus on clause grammar in this volume by exploring in detail the distinctions between Theme-Rheme, Topic-Comment and Given-New as they are used in linguistic typology, Systemic Functional Linguistics, the Prague School and other approaches. He does this through an exploration of information organisation in the Tagalog clause (with reference to both Mandarin Chinese and English) – arguing that a clear distinction between Theme-Rheme and Topic-Comment structures is needed in order to understand typological variation across languages. Aside from this important typological proposal, this chapter also presents a useful positioning of Systemic Functional grammatical description in relation to a range of alternative approaches.

Part II comprises studies that extend the Systemic Functional descriptive methods to areas contextualising grammar – including larger-scale discourse patterns, social functionality and multimodality. Martin and Quiroz (Chapter 7) frame this concern by considering what it means to develop functional language typology within Systemic Functional Linguistics. They suggest that Systemic Functional language typology will necessarily be a defeasible typology; every generalisation or comparison will always be subject to reconsideration from a different vantage point in the architecture of the theory overall. This means that to compare languages we must be prepared to ascend from the syntagmatic axis to the paradigmatic axis (i.e. from system to structure), from lower ranks to higher ranks (i.e. from morphemes up to clauses), from phonology to lexicogrammar to discourse semantics (i.e. across strata), from

language to register and genre (i.e. from text to context) – all the while being prepared to descend again, shifting our gaze across metafunctions and multiple semiotic resources. This contribution to Systemic Functional language description and typology exemplifies its perspective through a comparison of Chilean Spanish and English and the resources they use to realise a range of discourse semantic meanings.

Hao (Chapter 8) extends this approach to language description by focusing methodologically on ‘top-down’ language description. This chapter focuses on how scientific causality is construed in Mandarin Chinese, taking meaning at the contextual levels of register and genre as its point of departure. It then considers how contextual choices at these levels affect language choices, in terms of discourse semantic CONNEXION and then in turn in terms of lexicogrammatical choices – including clause complexing, verbal aspect and modality. Hao's top-down approach complements the familiar ‘bottom-up’ perspective that so often moves from phonology to grammar to semantics and pragmatics, and/or within the grammar from morphology up to syntax. In addition it offers an insightful means for developing descriptions along applicable lines, as it illustrates how a description can be formulated with respect to whatever aspect of language is of special relevance for the applied goals in mind.

Rose (Chapter 9) takes contextualisation one step further by developing a typology of registerial patterns in their own right. Focusing on phases within story genres, this chapter illustrates the relative similarity of such patterns across languages (specifically Pitjantjatjara, Oromo and Mandarin Chinese), taking into account the significant differences in the way phases are realised in discourse semantics and lexicogrammar. In the first instance, this chapter offers a clear illustration of the approaches explored in both Martin and Quiroz (Chapter 7) and Hao (Chapter 8), where the similarity of patterns ‘from above’ (in this case register patterns) differ considerably when looking at their realisation at lower levels. In the second instance, this chapter pushes our understanding of typology further than the typical focus on phonological, grammatical or even semantic systems, by developing a contextual typology with explicit reference to register.

Kartika (Chapter 10) explores language description from the most explicitly applicable perspective in this volume. She is concerned with how we can design language use in multilingual classroom settings. She illustrates her approach through dialogic exchanges involving Indonesian and English (with some reference to the Sundanese also used in her data). This allows Kartika to contextualise code-switching from the perspective of the discourse semantic system of NEGOTIATION, with the aim of improving learning outcomes. Complementing Hao's chapter, Kartika shows how one can come at language description from an applicable underpinning, in this case the adaptation of Reading to Learn methodology (Rose and Martin 2012) for bilingual education.

In the final chapter, Doran (Chapter 11) extends the functional description and typology perspective developed in this book towards functional semiotic typology. In particular he explores four key academic formalisms used in academic discourse – system networks and tree diagrams in linguistics, and algebraic mathematical symbolism and nuclear equations used in physics. Echoing the approach of Martin and Quiroz (chapter 7) he illustrates that depending on the perspective, the formalisms look either significantly different or remarkably the same. From the perspective of register (in particular field), they each construe significantly different meanings oriented to their particular disciplinary environments. But from the perspective of their structural (syntagmatic) organisation in the grammar, they display a remarkable similarity by virtue of their functionality in relation to language. The

chapter thus synthesises Systemic Functional approaches to both multimodality and language typology to help build a Systemic Functional semiotic typology.

3. Contributions of this volume

The chapters in this volume each orient to their own languages, their own problems and their own solutions. But throughout there is significant coherence in the approaches they take. This has largely arisen from the close interactions between most of the authors in this book and the shared commitment to extending both Systemic Functional Linguistics to new languages and to developing a responsible, applicable linguistics. This shared commitment and close interaction means that the volume presents a number of key contributions to the description of languages, as well as our understanding of language in general and our ways of doing linguistics. These cut across methodologies for description, perspectives on functional language typology, the role of multilinguality and multimodality in typology and the applicability of linguistics.

3.1 Methodology

Throughout the volume, our focus has been on methodologies for describing language. At stake here is the challenge of comparing like with like in a discipline where different theories of language are explicitly adopted (or implicitly assumed), different kinds of argumentation for categorisation are privileged, and different kinds of data underpin grammatical descriptions. This book explicitly addresses this challenge from the perspective of SFL by considering the functionality of language from four perspectives:

- i. axial functionality
- ii. metafunctionality
- iii. co-textual functionality
- iv. contextual functionality

Axial functionality underpins the discussions and grounds each of the perspectives in this volume, including those from rank, strata, metafunction and context. This explicit focus on system/structure relations (introduced in Section 1 above, and explored in Quiroz this volume and Martin et al. 2013) ensures that each chapter approaches the variation in language by reasoning from above, around and below (either in terms of rank or strata) through paradigms of enation and agnation. In this way, each description motivates their distinctions in terms of both the particular systems under study and their realisation in appropriate function structures and class syntagms. This enables descriptions to move away from developing categories based on their notional ‘meanings’ and lessens the possibility for distinctions to be unproblematically transferred from one language to another (often drawing on Halliday’s 1985 description English). Similarly it puts forward a principled understanding of how the other aspects of language – metafunction, rank and strata – arise from axially motivated linguistic patterns and how they can be integrated into a wholistic description.

Metafunctionality ensures that descriptions in this volume focus carefully on both the interdependency of systems and the multifunctionality of any particular instance. The chapters of Quiroz (experiential), Wang (interpersonal), Figueredo and LaPolla (both textual) explicitly address one metafunction in the clause in a way that brings out the particular ways

of arguing needed to grasp one particular dimension of meaning, and Zhang shows how the realisation of metafunctionally diversified meanings can be distributed across ranks. Metafunctional description means understanding the same instances from different angles; it involves seeing that there are general functions all languages perform in terms of organising our experience, enacting our social relations and composing texts, and privileging any one of these functions (in theory, in analysis or in practice) gives a distorted picture of the way language has evolved for people to use it to live.

Co-textual functionality ensures that discussions in this volume are oriented to patterns in discourse. The approaches in each chapter are not based on isolated instances cut off from their wider co-textual background. Rather, they explore in detail the relations between linguistic patterns and their orientation to larger text patterns. This is most explicitly seen in the chapters of Martin and Quiroz (exploring functional typology from discourse semantics), Figueredo (detailing the interaction of textual grammar with discourse semantic PERIODICITY) and Kartika (exploring multilingual interaction through the system of NEGOTIATION). These considerations mean that co-textual relations (i.e. meanings beyond the clause) are carefully considered alongside both lexicogrammatical relations and contextual relations.

Finally, **contextual functionality** ensures that the descriptions in this volume engage responsibly with meaning beyond language and on to the registers and genres they are situated in. Such a focus enables explorations of what aspects of language are used for what purposes and in what situations. One key manifestation of this is explicitness in terms of the registers and genres of the data that underpin the descriptions in most chapters. Rose for example makes clear his comparison between languages orients to phases within story genres, while Hao steps through her description of Mandarin Chinese from a ‘top-down’ perspective in terms the resources used in explanations of scientific causality. Doran takes this one step further by exploring the organisation of semiotic systems other than language in terms of the registerial meanings they realise. This opens up the possibility of investigating how semiotic systems serve particular contextual functionalities in relation to those realised through language. On top of this, an approach exploring contextual functionality enables contextual meanings to be described not as a static ‘extra-semiotic’ reality, but as parameters of semiotic variation in themselves. This is fundamental to a linguistics and semiotics that engages with an indefinitely wide range of instances and data, and so is a crucial focus of this volume.

3.2 Functional language typology

The second key contribution of this volume is to the development of a *functional language typology*. As noted above, a number of chapters in this volume consider explicitly how Systemic Functional Linguistics can deal with language comparison and the generalisation of patterns across languages – more specifically how it can develop a *functional* typology, as opposed to a typology of syntagms. We have already stepped through what we mean by *functional* here; but methodologically, the key chapter in this regard is that of Martin and Quiroz. They explain that the key manoeuvre when considering typology is ascent from ‘lower’ levels to ‘higher’ ones. What may look different in terms of syntagmatic organisation (structure) may look similar paradigmatically (system); what differences there are in the morphological organisation of a grammar may be neutralised when considered from a higher rank such as the clause; what may be distinct in terms of the phonological or grammatical organisation of language may realise similar meanings at the levels of discourse semantics, register or genre. And conversely, what may look similar at any of these lower levels may

realise quite distinct meanings at the higher levels. Developing a functional language typology means being able to compare and contrast languages from as many perspectives as possible. In fact this volume does more than outline an approach to Systemic Functional typology; it also includes two chapters that explicitly extend the boundaries of such research, Rose shows how SFL can develop *registerial* typology (i.e. a typology of contextual meaning) and Doran takes a step toward building *semiotic* typology (i.e. a typology of meaning-making in general). In this sense, this volume pushes Systemic Functional typology further than it has gone before.

3.3 Multilinguality and multimodality

Approaches that deal with text and context implicate two further variables: multilinguality and multimodality. As SFL descriptions and typologies expand their scope, understanding how multiple languages and multiple semiotic resources are used to form coherent texts will become an increasingly pervasive issue. Indeed as decades of research into ‘code-switching’ and multimodality have shown, such multi-lingual/modal texts are the norm rather than the exception. In this volume, Kartika’s chapter offers one way of managing multilinguality by considering its functionality in terms of the discourse semantic meanings it organises. In the bilingual classrooms under study, Kartika shows that the shifts between language can be understood in from the perspective of the dialogic resources of NEGOTIATION. Such a perspective is vital if we are to understand the multilingual texts wholistically, rather than as an un-theorised switching from one language to another. Similarly, Doran’s approach to understanding the diversity of semiotic resources relies on considering their functionality from a range of perspectives. This enables typology to move beyond relatively common-sense distinctions such as ‘image’ vs ‘symbolism’ to show that there is an underlying similarity between the resources being studied despite their apparent differences at face value.

4.4 Applicability

Perhaps the most important aspect of the approaches in this volume is their commitment to an *applicable* linguistics (Halliday 2005). SFL is known for its work across a range of applications – including educational linguistics, clinical linguistics, forensic linguistics, translation studies, computational linguistics and beyond. The crucial component in all of these applications is that they are founded upon rich descriptions of the language (and semiosis) in play. As applications expand across the world, the need for descriptions that take seriously the specific functionality of the language being used is becoming increasingly pressing. In particular, descriptions that can target the relevant areas of language (be they at particular ranks, strata or metafunctions) and typologies that can see similarity and difference depending on the perspective taken are becoming vital. Descriptions and typologies that take into account the functionalities described above are much more powerful than those that do not. Similarly approaches to language that do not create separate silos for ‘applied linguistics’ and ‘linguistics’ are of much greater use to the world than those that do. The dialectic of theory and practice, encompassed by the term *applicable linguistics*, is what underpins the work in this volume. SFL’s long-standing commitment to social responsibility is in many ways what has driven the development of its extravagant theory and descriptive apparatus, as new situations, new contexts and new challenges arise that necessitate an expansion of its

approach into new areas of language and semiosis and a reconsideration of already ‘understood’ components of language (Martin 2016; Halliday 2013). In this book we have learnt toward the descriptive end of applicable linguistics, but this should not obscure SFL’s commitment to application. The papers here should be read in conjunction with the increasing scope of applications of SFL that arise each year (see Caldwell et al. in prep. for a survey of numerous SFL scholars’ shifts between applied and theoretical/descriptive concerns and how this has expanded SFL’s applicable framework). Similarly everything in this book should be reconsidered in this sense as new challenges arise, new problems are tackled and new situations are encountered. We can summarise this in terms of Halliday’s dream of a ‘socially accountable linguistics, and this in two distinct though related senses: that it put language in its social context, and at the same time it put linguistics in its social context, as a mode of intervention in critical social practices’ (1993:73). We hope this volume takes steps toward this goal and in turn encourages others to develop their work in socially responsible ways.

Appendix (source text contextualising examples in this chapter):

So...British Airways and Taylor. Taylor was a guy who worked for a consumer agency, a government agency. He was representing a guy called Edmonds. Edmonds had lived on the island of Bermuda for a long time, down there in the Caribbean. Liked that sunshine.

Decided after many years of this he’d like to take a holiday in London. Experience some of that fog and dampness. Get up there. Take in some shows. Go to Wimbledon. Hadn’t had a holiday for a long, long time and so this is a big deal for him. Cheap airfare was on offer if you were the early bird. Get in a couple of months early, you book your name, much cheaper. So he did this. Books his flight for London. Plans his holidays.

Becomes a little bit concerned that maybe his place will get taken if there’s a crowd, and someone who paid full fare would be in his seat. So he rings them up, gets some reassurance that that’s not the case. There will be a seat for him. And in fact gets a letter confirming the seat that’s there. Obviously, he turns up at the airport in Bermuda, no seat.

It turns out that the policy of British Airways, along with many of its competitors, was to overbook because it was realised that some people don’t turn up, they get sick, there’s misadventure. So you always overbook and that way you don’t have vacant seats and you are able to maximise the income of the flight.

Didn’t work this time. Only two times, the facts indicated, in every 10,000 bookings does someone not make it. But the airline had said to him "There is a seat for you." They did not reveal this idea that in very extreme circumstances there may not be a seat. Didn’t reveal that. So British Airways’ argument was “Well this is so remote. It is so unlikely to occur that we don’t worry about it and you really can’t class it as a misrepresentation, a deceit”. Of course Edmonds had the other view. “Been waiting for years for my holiday. Wanted to get up to London. Now I can’t get there. Everything’s mucked up.” So you see the logic of both arguments.

Well the courts tend to take a dim view of anyone who lies irrespective of the reasons, at least in commerce anyway. And Lord Wilberforce said this.

“The letter, taken with the ticket, would be taken as a statement that Mr. Edmonds had a certain booking, which statement, in view of the overbooking policy, was untrue, since his booking, though very likely to be a firm one, was exposed to risk, small, but as events proved real, and it might give him a seat on the aircraft, it might not. This was a statement of fact rather than a statement of mere intention.”

Hence, this was considered then a statement of fact. Why? Because you told me today there was a seat for me in the future. It was not really, as you’ve masked it, a statement today that you

intend to give me a seat in the future. Do you see the subtle difference? Not sure? Too subtle? Not getting a lot of feedback here. Is anyone unsure of the subtlety, the difference between someone...? Remember the example we used the other day when we were talking about this sort of stuff. If someone says to you, "Will you meet me for coffee tomorrow, at ten o'clock?" and you say "Yes." and at the time you say that you have no intention of turning up, even though it is in the future, it is still a lie today. Correct? This is the same thing in this case.

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