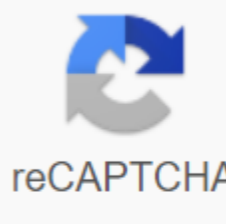


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Systemic Functional Grammar: The first step in the theory of Christian Matthiessen and M.A.K. Halliday (c. 1997) © Matthiessen and Halliday (please do not copy or quote without the permission of the authors) 1. In system-functional grammar theory 1.1 Common: (lexico)grammar - study of grammar ('grammar') Is an introductory report on a specific theory of grammar, namely system-functional theory. Grammar is one of the subsystems of the language; more specifically, it is a system of wording. It is a phenomenon that can be studied, like light, physical movement, the human body and decision-making processes in bureaucracy; and just as with these and other phenomena studied, we need theory to interpret it. For example, the physical phenomenon of the atom was interpreted theoretically from the point of view of Democrit theory, Rutherford theory, Bohr theory and so on. We distinguish between the phenomenon itself (atom) and the various theoretical models of it. What thing an atom is thought to be, of course, vary greatly as we move from one theory to another. The atom of Democrit was very different from the Bor atom in that it was indivisible, not the configuration of subatomic particles; that is, democrit theory allowed us to see much less of an atom than Bohr's theory. A well-known example of how theory determines how we interpret phenomena is light. Light can be interpreted as a particle or as a wave; there are two alternative theories. In this case, the alternatives are complementary, in the sense that everyone reveals something about the light that we have to consider. This situation is quite typical in science: we need additional theoretical perspectives to explain the rich variety of properties that we reveal in the phenomena studied. Thus, grammar as a phenomenon of research is interpreted according to different theories. To preserve the distinction between grammar and grammar theories, we will call the theory of grammar. The difference is similar to the difference between language and linguistics, or between society and sociology. The difficulty lies in the fact that people often use the same term both for the phenomenon and for its study: for example, we talk about English grammar (phenomenon), but also about traditional grammar (one theory of phenomenon). We could clarify this situation if we called the second traditional grammar. Thus, we are concerned about system-functional grammar; and we will illustrate how it can be used in grammar learning with examples from Chinese, English and Japanese grammar. Grammar (as a phenomenon) is part of the language; it is a system of wording, as we put it above. But how it conceptually will depend on our grammar. In the history of thinking about language in the West, there were two slightly different theoretical points of view. Both have their origins in ancient Greece; there were many options, but we can still trace these two strands of thinking today. On the one hand, language is a set of rules for defining structures; thus, grammar is a set of rules for defining grammatical structures, such as building a transit sentence with a verb and object. This perspective lies in logic and philosophy, for example, in the foreground of the sentence as the main unit of language, organized by the logical model in The Subject and Predicate. Since the proposal is the main unit, it is studied in isolation. On the other hand, language is a resource, a resource for creating values; thus, grammar is a resource for making sense through wording. This perspective is in rhetoric and ethnography, for example, in the foreground of text (discourse) as the main unit of language organized in accordance with the rhetorical context. Since the text is the main unit, the sentence is studied in its discourse environment. The type of grammar that is usually presented in school is a diluted version of grammar, usually a type of theory. It presents grammar rules in terms of words in sentences, with words serving functions such as subject, predicate, object, and adverb. As a theory, it is far from meeting the requirements that are being sisted on grammatical theories. On the one hand, it takes on too much from the European languages it was first applied to, starting with Greek and Latin; hence, it has limited value in interpreting the grammar of non-European languages such as Chinese, Japanese, Indonesian, Tagalog, Thai, Vietnamese or languages of other regions and continents. On the other hand, it builds too little common grammatical language system. This allows us to see only a small piece of grammar and does not give us a way of interpreting the general organization of language grammar as an information system. At this stage of history, we need a richer theory of grammar to solve the age of information, such as education (how to organize and give access to knowledge) and computing (how to achieve automatic text processing). We are also able to learn more about grammar through technical innovations: the tape recorder allows us to store and learn spoken language, and the computer allows us to manipulate a huge amount of text (talk or write) for the purpose of grammatical research. System-functional theory is one of the answers to these requirements. The theory was first developed in the work on Chinese grammar; and it was used in educational and computational contexts at an early stage. Unlike grammar theory, which is still a tradition in school, system-functional grammar takes a resource perspective rather than the perspective of the rule; and it's designed to display a common grammar system, not just fragments. We are bring it to the next discussion. 1.2 Grammar as a resource; systems and theirs In the structure we use language to interact with each other, to build and maintain our interpersonal relationships and the social order that is behind them; and in doing so, we interpret and represent the world for each other and for ourselves. Language is a natural part of the process of life; it is also used to store experience, a kind of experience in the process, both personal and collective. It is (among other things) a tool for presenting knowledge, or to look at it from the point of view of the language itself, to build meaning. Grammar is a part of this resource. But the attitude of grammar to other parts of the linguistic system is not part of the whole connection; rather, it's symbolic. Grammar is a resource for making sense in the form of wording. Let's illustrate this point with a reference to one broad area of semantics and grammar, an area that we will describe as interpersonal: it is one of three such common areas, the other two of which are ideas and textual. Interacting with each other, we enter into a range of interpersonal relationships, choosing among semantic strategies such as persuasion, persuasion, tempting, requests, order, offer, approval, insistence, doubt and so on. Grammar provides us with a basic resource for expressing these speech functions in the form of a highly generalized set of reservation systems called MOOD. It's grammar as a system, its paradigmatic organization. The system, in this technical sense, is the point of choice. In Chinese, English and Japanese grammar, the most common choice in the mood is that between indicative and imperative. These are two options or terms in the system. The following examples illustrate the contrast between indicative and imperative in English: System version (term) Example of a revealing spy / me / you came / will come / will come /come with the cold; Who came from the cold?; did/does/will spy/me/you came from the cold? Imperative (you) come from the cold! Any grammatical choice can be presented as a system with two or more alternative terms or functions, as shown graphically in Figure 1. Fig. 1: System This graphic view shows (i) the name of the system (MOOD TYPE); Conditions from which terms must be chosen (indicative/imperative); (iii) A condition in which there is a choice, an entry condition (clause). The full set of conventions for systemic representation is contained in the app. How do we know that this system is part of English grammar? There are three parts to the answer. (i) If we look at the wording of the above examples, we will see systematic differences between indicative and imperative. The former have the final verb, while the latter do not; and the former have a subject, while the latter may or may not have one usually missing. If we look at the system itself, to consider whether available for indicative provisions, we find that they have a choice in the tense ('past/present/future') expressed through the verb Finite; as well as personally, expressed through the theme. In contrast, if we look at the system to consider the options that are available for imperative reservations, we find that they have no choice in the tense and the subject may (in principle) be the only recipient, 'you'. (iii) If we look at the difference in meaning that the system does, we find that the choice is related to the nature of what is discussed in the dialogue: or information (indicative), for example, did the spy come out of the cold? Yes, it did., or goods---services (imperative, for example, come from the cold! These three parts of the answer illustrate three common angles of approach to any system in grammar: (i) 'bottom', (ii) 'around' and (iii) 'top', see Figure 2. (We return to this point below in section 3.3.) Now we're looking at the system from different angles, starting from the bottom, in terms of how the system contrast in wording is created. Fig. 2: Perspectives of systemic (i) systemic contrasts are created by some aspect of the formulation: the terms of the system are differentiated by a grammatical structure (e.g. absence against the presence of a structure element such as the Subject), using grammatical or lexical elements (e.g., a grammatical paragraph in Japanese indicating question points), or, as another step, with a background function (e.g., a fall in the innation). We say that systemic terms, or features, are implemented (expressed, encoded) on aspects of wording. The choice in the MOOD system between indicative and imperative is realized structurally: only indicative provisions, as a rule, have the subject. We can specify the presence of the grammatical theme function in indicative positions, as in Figure 3. Fig. 3: The system with the accompanying Arrow implementation statement represents the implementation link: the 'demonstrative' function is implemented by the presence of the Subject function, stated as the 'Subject'. The different types of implementation statements are summarized in the app. The presence of the Subject is one of the stages in the specification of the structure of the functions of the indicative position, i.e. the organization of the position as a configuration of functions. (ii) When we came to explore from all over, we find that through their entry conditions, a number of systems come together as an interconnected set called a system network. We can illustrate again from the GRAMMAR of MOOD. The choice between indicative and imperative is the most common in this area of grammar; but each alternative leads to a further choice. For example, indicative provisions are either declarative (they were riding or interrogated (they rode horses; rode horses); declarative provisions are either non-remarkable (e.g., they were riding or marked (for example, they were riding horses, they) and the question provisions are either wh-type (like who rode horses?) or yes/no type (like do they ride horses?). See Figure 4. Fig. 4: THE MOOD Systems Network (Box implementation statements) In chart 4, grammatical resources are presented as a network of interconnected systems, each of which is the point of choice. Online systems are ordered from left to right, starting with the most general option and moving to more specific: if the clause, then indicative or imperative; if indicative, interrogator or declarative; if declarative, marked or non-segant; if the interrogator, yes/no or wh-. This is the scale of delicacy (degree of detail, specificity, detail). In example, in figure 4, each entry condition is a simple function, 'clause'; but entry conditions can also be complex features, including link and/or separation. Such features are also always termed in other systems. Let's illustrate the disconnect in the entry state. Consider again MOOD Grammar Figure 4. It has one system, MOOD TAG, whose entry state is declarative. However, the system is not actually limited to declarative provisions; it is also open to imperative (e.g. saddle horses, shall we, let's saddle horses, shall we). Consequently, we should be able to tell if either declarative or imperative, then labeled/untagged. That is, we need a disjunctive entry condition: see Figure 5. Figure 5: The disjunctive entry status the same systemic feature or complex of characteristics can occur as an entry condition to more than one system in the system network. In this case, the systems are simultaneous. For example, the basic MOOD system (MOOD TYPE) at the same time as POLARITY, the choice between positive and negative positions: see Figure 6. Fig. 6: Two simultaneous strands in the system network define a two-dimensional paradigm. It is often useful to present examples as a matrix table, with one system represented in columns and the other in rows. Thus MOOD TYPE and POLARITY intersect as follows: MOOD TYPE: the indicative imperative of POLARITY: a positive spy came from the cold. Come in from the cold! negative spy did not come from the cold. Don't come from the cold! Such matrixes can be used to probe the accuracy of a complex system network: if you can't find examples for one or more matrix cells, it means that the system network predicts a combination of system terms that doesn't exist. Let's summarize what we have shown about the concepts of the system and structure and the connection between them. These concepts acquire the axis of organization in language, paradigmatic and syntagmatic. Systemic, paradigmatic, axis is primary in a sense that it determines the overall organization of language grammar; and structural, the axis is secondary in a sense, which is indicated locally in the various terms of the system axis. Figure 7 shows the intersection of two axes in MOOD grammar, with the system axis providing a common organization. This bifurcation in the paradigmatic axis and syntagmatic axis allows the system to relate to both what is higher and what is lower, in other words, both to what the system understands and to what it is implemented. (iii) Looking at the system from above, we ask what it means: in other words, what semantic features are implemented by this particular set of options in grammar. As noted, in the case of MOOD, the point is with the negotiations of speech-functional roles in dialogue: with the main categories, such as the statement and the issue (information exchange), command and offer (exchange of goods - services), as well as a complex network of variable and more delicate categories of verbal interaction. We will not conduct semantic analysis here; but we can note that the resources and methods of presenting semantic categories are formally identical to those used in the lexigram. 1.3 Example: MOOD Grammar is a very rich and complex system; grammar should deduce that wealth and complexity, not hide it. This means recognizing the different vectors by which complexity is ordered and learning one step at a time. Here we have introduced only one corner of grammar, and only in the most general terms: primary MOOD systems, as they are in English. Because grammar is seen as a resource rather than a set of rules, it is interpreted in system-functional theory as a system network; this represents the grammatical potential available to the user of the language. The system network allows us to map out the overall organization of language grammar, with delicacy as the primary principle for ordering different systems in relation to each other. Naturally, such networks will soon be very large; there are about 1,000 systems in system English grammars stored in computers. We illustrated this map of English grammar with fragments from MOOD grammar, as in figures 4 and 5. The partial English GRAMMAR OF MOOD, which we presented, is a system-functional description of one particular language cast in theoretical terms of a system organization with accompanying structural implementations. That is, while the type of organization embodied in the system network is part of the theory and is a common trait common to all languages, specific system features and structural implementations are part of our narrative interpretation of the English language. They are not part of the overall system-functional theory of grammar (see section 3.3 below). Fig. 7: Systemic (paradigmatic) and structural (syntagmatic) axis intersecting as a descriptive generalization interpersonal grammar, one can assume that all languages have a MOOD system: i.e. grammatical resources for interaction between speaker and recipient, expressing speeches of functional choices in dialogue. In addition, semantic categories of information (statements), information requirements (issue) and requirements for services or goods (teams) are likely to be accepted in the grammar of all languages. However, the organization of the MOOD system and the implementation of different options differ from one language to another. For example, the degree to which there is a separate grammatical category corresponding to commands is variable: there may or may not be a separate form of imperative, and even where there are, there are usually many other possible implementations. Similarly, while all languages are likely to have a major opposition between statements and yes-no (polarity issues), which can often (though not universally) be expressed by distinguishing between drop and growth of intonation, issues requiring a certain element of information (except for the value of polarity) can be grouped systematically with either statements or yes-no questions. It's easy to see why: they like the statement that their polarity is not certain, but at the same time they like yes-no issues in that they require information. Different languages organize their MOOD grammars around various generalizations in this way. In addition, languages vary greatly in terms of more sensitive options, such as languages that are interested in how interacting positioning each other in dialogue (e.g. by indicating expected responses) and how they assess the information exchanged (e.g. indicating probability or source of evidence). At least the delicate end of grammar, Chinese, English and Japanese have a similar MOOD system. All three distinguish between indicative and imperative provisions, as well as in the first declarative against the interrogator, with one interrogating subtype for requesting elements and the other for polarity request. Examples are: CHINESE ENGLISH JAPANESE indic. decl. Tailang shang xu taro going to school taru wa gakkoo e ikimasu interr. Elementary Tailang dao th. Where does the tarot go? Tara Wa doco e ikimasu ka? Polar Tailang Shan Xue ku ma? Is the tarot going to school? Tara wa gaku e ikimasu ka? imper. Shang Xue Ku! Go to school! Gakkoo e ike! But while the three MOOD systems match up to the point of delicacy shown in the table above, they also differ from each other in more delicate terms. For example, in (Mandarin) Chinese, the polar interrogators are further differentiated in accordance with the speaker's expectations of the polarity of the sentence: they are biased (positive or negative) or impartial; for example, do you want it?, Positive bias ni yao ma?, negative bias ni buyao ma?, unbiased ni yao buyao?. English has preconceived forms: positive positives (neutral) have you seen it?; negative (semantically, positive bias) have you not seen it? English has no impartial form other than highly marked (imperative) have you seen it or not? The basic MOOD system we discussed relates to (i) the nature of the goods exchanged (information against goods and services) and (ii) the orientation of the exchange

(provision versus demand). But there are other aspects of the exchange that can be grammaticized in this part of grammar, in particular aspects of the tenor of the relationship between the interacting, participating in the exchange, i.e. between the speaker and the recipient. In Japanese, this area is perhaps more codified in grammar than in Chinese or English. For example, along with a simple imperative (as in Hanasi speak!), there are also polite options for situations where the speaker surpasses the recipient (as in Hanashi-nasai!) or gives way to the recipient (as in Hanashita-kudasai!). The development of Japanese language grammar in the field of politeness and veneration is well known. This is an important characteristic of the grammatical system, which makes very good sense in terms of interpersonal metafunction. At the same time, we must recognize that grammar of both Chinese and English has also created significant potential for adopting a wide range of subtly different tenor relationships. These potentials may not be immediately obvious, because they rely heavily on the mysterious feature of the system, the first paragraph of grammatical metaphors. So, along with congruent Come out of the cold, there are also various metaphorical options where the team is implemented not as an imperative provision, but as if it were a statement or a question. For example: I want you to come from the cold; I want you to come from the cold; You should/should/come from the cold; Will/ Could you come from the cold. This expansion of the system, of course, is typical of the Japanese language. What generalizations can be made about the implementation of system options in the mood? Mood variants are usually implemented in different ways, including intonation (step direction), mood particles, relative sequence of elements (usually involving the final verb), and special verbal categories. Interpersonal systems generally appear to be implemented in some pro-zodiac way of expression; and the awareness of MOOD that we find in different languages can often be proven as prosodic (e.g., interpersonal particles that serve as prozodies at the junction). These features, of course, are not part of the general theory of grammar, they are empirical descriptive generalizations covering a number of different languages. And here the Chinese, English and Japanese beautifully illustrate the general principle of crossing similarities. While their basic mood systems match together, their system contrasts are created in different ways, deploying several subset of the resources being sold. The main templates are below (leaving implementations on the intonation that is used in all three languages): MOOD TYPE imperative of indicative English (theme, ultimate) Chinese Japanese (Predictor: Imperative Verb Form) INDIC. TYPE declarative questioning of English Theme Finite Chinese Japanese WuThe ultimate Chinese language Negotiations and MAS OR: Predictor2: negative; Predator -Pred.2 -Wh Japanese - Wh, as the implementation table shows, English differs from Chinese and Japanese in mood structure. It has a Mood element that consists of the Subject and the End. This element of mood plays a central role in the implementation of mood options, both in terms of its presence and its internal organization. In unmarked cases above, it is present in indicative positions (e.g., Mood: You Will/Will You Come From the Cold), but not in imperative (e.g., come from the cold). In addition, declarative provisions differ from the polar relative order of the Subject and the End, Subject and End (will you) and the final subject (you will), respectively. The meaning of the Mood element in English is also shown, for example, in tags where the mood element is picked up at the end of a position like Moodtag, consisting of Tagfinite and Tagsubject (for example, you will come from the cold, right?) neither the Chinese nor the Japanese have a clear element of mood. It follows that they do not rely on the consistency of the theme and of course in the implementation of mood options. In fact, no language has a separate Finite function in the mood structure of the reservation. The Chinese language does not have a verbal limb system at all, and the Japanese do not separate the limb from the rest of the verbal group in its claus structure, as English does. Instead, both languages deploy mood particles at the end of a position that serves a function that we call Negotiation, because it determines the value of a negotiator in a conversational interaction. The difference is that the Japanese negotiators and ka is the property of the interrogators in general, while the Chinese negotiators and ma are the property of polar interrogations in particular. (Chinese also has a different type of polar interrogation, where the preikor is repeated with the denier, as in shi-bu-shi. We talked about this above when we discussed differences in more delicate mood systems.) In fact, these mood particles are part of a larger set of interpersonal particles in both languages, including non- ba in Chinese and non, yo in Japanese; the closest equivalent of the English version of the reservation tagging is a particle of this kind. The generalization is that the grammars of Chinese and Japanese provide a resource to indicate how the speaker intends to take his/her move into a dialogue as the c/he is about to pass the recipient. (Such particles are common common The languages of the world; for example, we find their reservation-origially in Arabic (hael, a) and in French (est-ce que), and we find them in various (South) East Asian languages, for example, in Korean, Thai (clause final m', rii; na etc.), Vietnamese (clause final phong, a, u, chu, di etc.). Such particles can also implement options in interpersonal systems related to tenor, such as the gender of the speaker and the recipient, as well as the status and relationship between them.) The theme of the feature is not mentioned in the table above in the statements on the implementation of the Chinese and Japanese language. Does this mean that these languages do not have a subject, or that their subjects stem from different metafunctions? Asking these questions is not really the best way to learn Chinese and Japanese grammar. The Subject Category was positive in the description of English and other languages; and in English, its interpersonal nature is very clear once you start learning the dialogue. However, this does not mean that we should go look for a theme in Chinese, Japanese or any other language we interpret systemically functionally. Rather, we should ask more abstract questions that are less likely to prejudice the answer. Thus, we ask how the situation in Chinese or Japanese is organized as an interactive step in dialogue, as an exchange between the speaker and the recipient; and we may wonder whether there are elements in the reservation that receive some special status in this interaction, while the element is given the status of a point of information requested by the recipient in the elementary interrogation clause. In English, the subject matter is such an element: it is an element, given the status of modal responsibility; that is, it is responsible for the success of the provision as an interactive step. This is perhaps easier to see in imperatives than in indicative; but this applies to both types. In imperative modal responsibility means responsibility for fulfilling or refusing to perform a command, as in: Behave yourself!, Be polite!; Don't be fooled by his pleasant behavior!; Get your parents on your way! I will/ won't. As these examples show, modal responsibility is quite different from acting; it can even be assigned to an element in a passive clause. In addition, under the imperative situation, we are perhaps most likely to find a similar status in Chinese and Japanese (as well as in other languages): they both give the same element in this paragraph a special interpersonal status of responsibility for compliance with the team in the imperative reservation. The question arises whether there is an indicative version of this status of modal responsibility, assigned to the clausal element of dialogue, or some other status of special interpersonal significance. As this will require long-term exploration, we leave this issue open. 2. Expanding (size) lexicon space Figure 8 finds MOOD a 'corner' grammar in relation to other most common systems, according to two measurements of metafunction and rank. Metafunction refers to different ways of meaning, interpreted by grammar; Rank refers to different sizes of grammatical units (layers of the constituency). We will discuss each of these concepts in turn (sections 2.1 and 2.2) and then a brief account of the third dimension of that delicacy (section 2.3). Fig. 8: Kind of grammar so far, in relation to the expansion of metafunction and rank 2.1 (1) By metafunction: from MOOD to TRANSITIVITY and THEME We begin our transition from the MUG corner of the system located at the intersection of the rank of the clause and interpersonal metafunction, moving on the measurement of metafunction. 2.1.1 Three metafunctions Let's introduce these metafunctions in two stages. Grammar makes sense in two highly generalized metafunctions that refer to phenomena outside the language: (i) interpersonal and (ii) ideological. (i) Interpersonal metafunction is associated with interaction between speaker and recipient (s) - grammatical resources for communicating with social roles in general and speech roles in particular in dialogue; i.e. to establish, change and maintain interpersonal relationships. One of the main grammatical systems is MOOD, the grammatical function that we have already encountered. (ii) The idea of metafunction is associated with the idea of grammatical resources for interpreting our experience in the world around us and within us. One of the main grammatical systems is TRANSITIVITY, a resource for interpreting our go-to flow experience as structural configurations; each of which consists of the process, the participants involved in the process, and the circumstances surrounding it. These two metafunctions are focused on two non-linguistic-linguistic phenomena, the social world and the natural world; we interpreted the natural world in an ideological mode and put the social world in an interpersonal mode. For example, we can interpret a picture of what can be involved in an action (idea) and we can accept who gives orders to whom (interpersonal). In addition, there is a third metafunction inherent in language (i.e. focusing on phenomena created by language, naive values), textual metafunction. (iii) Text meta-function relates to the creation of the text, to the presentation of ideological and interpersonal meanings as information that can be disseminated by the speaker and the listener in a text unfolding in context. One of the main text systems is TEMA, a resource for creating a local context for a reservation by selecting a local point of departure in the flow of information (or perhaps rather swelling information, as it is not a single thread). Thus, the spatial location taking into account the thematic status in the example analyzed for TRANSITIVITY above: Theme: in the open clearing Rheme: wild rabbits danced with their shadows. The role of textual metafunction is favorable. It serves to present ideological and interpersonal meaning as information that can be disseminated: it provides the speaker with a strategy to guide the listener in his/her interpretation of the text. As figure 8 suggests, the three metafunctions are simultaneous; this similarity applies to both the downs of the organization and to the systemic and structural ones. (i) Systemically, this means that MOOD (interpersonal), TRANSITIVITY (idea) and THEME (text) are simultaneous threads within the system network of position: see Figure 9. That is, metafunctions manifest themselves as clustering in the overall system network of reservations (and other grammatical units). The picture shows a fragment of the English network; similar simultaneous threads are found in Chinese and Japanese, although, as we will see below, MOOD and THEME are treated somewhat differently in three languages, and the voice system's work in displaying structural functions from different metafunctions to each other is also diverse. Across the language of the world, significant changes can be expected in these systems, which link different metafunctions to each other. There are languages that do not have the equivalent of the VOICE system that we find, for example, Chinese, English and Japanese; and where languages have both VOICE and THEME, we find differences in the division of labor between them, particularly in how the choice of unmarked thematic status is chosen. In addition, systems derived from different metafunctions can also be distributed on a rank scale (the hierarchy of constituencies; see below) differently, especially in the ranks of reservations, verbal groups and verbs. Fig. 9: Metafunctions manifested in the system network of reservations (English (i) Structurally, metafunctional simultaneousness manifests itself as three simultaneous threads or layers in the structure of the position: see Figure 10, which shows three metafunctional perspectives on our previous example. Structural functions of different metafunctional threads are scooped together; for example, the theme is with the Actor (presented as Subject/Actor; see App). An example of structural simultaneity in English. The structures are also metafunctionally layered in this way in Chinese and Japanese, but the organization in each thread may differ from what we find in English. We mentioned above the differences in the interpersonal layer, which is probably where the major structural differences lie. Figure 11 provides an example of the provision on basic interrogation in Japanese. There is no element of Mood, and we have not offered the function of the Topic, but the reservation ends with the function of negotiations where its negotiators or contribution is being implemented. Negotiations are preceded by a pre-ward, interpersonal view of the verbal group serving in the reservation: The predictor carries assessments of mood and polarity; and it also carries degrees of politeness and formality (e.g. the difference between des and a simple form of yes). The Wh element is in a position it will have in an unmarked declarative clause; Wh and There are not conflated 'by default' as they are in English. Chinese as Japanese in this regard. These two functions are also similar in the sense that functions that can be extracted from the text or context for the recipient may be left implicit; for example, a topic that is continuous with previous topics is likely to remain implicit. This also means, of course, that any structural functions from other metafunctional layers that are conflated with it also remain implicit. Across the language of the world we can expect to find significantly more differences in how the three metafunctional contributions to the structure are displayed on each other. The main variable here is likely to rank. Languages differ in how THEME, MOOD, TRANSITIVITY and related systems are distributed across the ranks. For example, many languages do much more work in a verb or verbal group than languages such as Chinese and English. Metafunction: System: Wild rabbits danced with their shadows in an open clearing. Text THEME Theme Rheme Interpersonal MOOD Adjunct Theme End Predictor Adjunct 1 Balance Mood 2 Ideational TRANSITIVITY Location Actor Process Accompanying Rice. 10: Simultaneous metafunctions in the structure of the reservation (English) metafunction: system: Korea wa nan desu desu ka tHEMA THEME interpersonal MOOD Wh Predictor Parley ideational TRANSITIVITY Carrier Attribute Fig Process. 11: Simultaneous metafunctions in the structure of the reservation (Japanese) 2.1.2 Ideational (by paragraph) : TRANSITIVITY The idea of metafunction generates resources to interpret our experience of the world around us and within us; the idea of the system in the point of rank TRANSITIVITY. TRANSITIVITY is engaged in interpreting one particular area of our experience, our experience flow-on as a configuration process (some common type: material, mental, relational), participants involved in it (Actor, Target, Sizer, Phenomenon; Carrier, Attribute; and so on), and the circumstances associated on it (Cause, Location, Manner (including Means and Tool), Accompanying, and So on). There are two types of variables in transit systems: (i) process type. Type of participation in the process. (i) The type of process is represented in the system network in Figure 9. The transit language system will interpret the experience into a small set of areas of value that differ according to the process itself and the nature of the participants. The main variants of PROCESS TYPE are material/mental/verbal/relational: for a more detailed description of the transit system, see this system motivated by criteria (i) top, (ii) bottom and (iii) from the whole. Some of these criteria are set and illustrated in the following table: PROCESS TYPE (i) Top (ii) From around the category meaning Projection Tense Stuff Does - Going Actor Process Target Recipient Company Gives a New Maker for My Aunt's Current Mental Sensing Senses: Conscious Process Phenomenon My Aunt Wants a New Maker to Buy a New Maker Of Words Sayer SaysEr: The Source Of the Process Verbiage Receiver to my aunt's projection of this letter the company tells my aunt that she is entitled to a new relational teapot time with Carrier Process Attribute this kettle beautiful real Identified process Identified this kettle company gave my aunt present These different types of reservations; the number of verbs can serve in more than one type, in different senses. For example, the verb make can serve in a material clause in the sense of production and in a relational reservation in the sense of to be (or be). So it made a good drink ambiguous between the material it (like the appliance) produced a good drink and relational it (like the mixture) was a good drink. Such ambiguous instances can always be explored from above, from the bottom, and from all over. Let us take the material and mental in the PROCESS TYPE system as illustrations of the three points of view that motivate this system. (1) PROCESS TYPE: 'material'. (i) If you look at the top, the material clause interprets actions and events, including actions, actions and events; configuration process and participants involved who require some energy input to occur and where one participant is likely to undergo changes. (ii) If you look at the bottom, the material clause is characterized by certain structural configurations, such as Process and Actor - Target (I'm the recipient) and Process and Range. There is always an actor who can be realized by a nominal group representing any thing or even the ultimate reservation representing the macro-thing (like a boy with green hair broke a window, and the ground moves smashed the window accordingly), but not the meta-thing (the fact that the ground moved smashed the window is not possible). Further options determine whether the process is directed, and in this case there is a purpose, as well as (Actor: police Process: hunted Target: Demonstrator), or not (Actor: police Process: ran). If the process is directed, it can be beneficiary; and if so, there may be a recipient (Actor: Judge (Process:) gave The Recipient: to the demonstrator Target: legal document). If you look at everything, the material is a record A number of other systems as two examples, we have already cited focus and benefaction. This does not lead to a PROJECTION system (a system with the ability to report or quote speech or thoughts that we find with verbal and mental positions, as the document says: The building has collapsed); thus, it is impossible to say the ground has moved: The building has collapsed: there may be a cause-and-effect relationship between these two positions (the ground has moved so the building has collapsed), but not the semiotic one where the position of the earth moved would have the project position of the building collapsed on a more abstract plane as its contents. If we explore about PROCESS TYPE, but outside of the TRANSITIVITY systems themselves, we will find that there is an unmarked correlation with different TENSE choices for different types of processes in present-time reports. In material terms, unmarked is a tense present, not a simple gift, like a cat swinging its tail rather than a cat wave tail. (A simple gift is used to interpret different timings, such as general or habitual time, as in a cat's tail wave when it is uncertain.) This systemic link between PROCESS TYPE and TENSE is semantically motivated: processes are phenomena that unfold over time and therefore have a tense system; but different types of processes have different time profiles and therefore various unmarked real strenuous selections. (2) PROCESS TYPE: Mental. (i) If you look at the top, the mental reservation interprets feeling, perception, cognition, intention and emotion; configuration of the process of consciousness with the participation of a participant endowed with consciousness and, as a rule, a participant entering or created by this consciousness. (ii) If you look at the bottom, the mental caveat is characterized by a certain structural configuration, the Process and Sise and Phenomenon. There is always A Sizer, which is realized by a nominal group, denoting a being endowed with consciousness (for example, she saw them crossing the road). Thus, he is much more limited than the actor; In fact, it is the most limited of all participants in any of the types of process. In contrast, the phenomenon can be not only any thing or macro-stuff, but also a meta-thing (as she saw them, she saw them crossing the road, she saw that they crossed the road). (iii) If you look at it from all over, the mental state leads to the PROJECTION system. A mental reservation can project the content of consciousness, thoughts or ideas as another, separate position (as he thought the moon was a balloon). Such a clause is not a party under a mental situation; for example, it cannot serve as a subject in a passive version (we don't get that the moon was a balloon thought by them). Also, unlike the material reservation, the mental situation does not lead to a beneficiary option (no, it thought I'd zgt; the moon was a balloon; such as He thought to The moon is not a prototype, but a psychic, as if verbal, internal speech). As for TENSE, the unmarked choice is now a simple present rather than the present (for example, he thinks the moon is a balloon, not he thinks the Moon is a balloon). TRANSITIVITY thus offers a network of interconnected options to represent different types of experience, our experience of the material world, the world of our inner consciousness, the world of symbolism and so on. The criteria from above, from below, and from which we illustrated together motivate the PROCESS TYPE system in transit grammar. That is, in our description of this area of grammar, these types give the most powerful generalizations. But their differences in the common system are not immediately obvious. There are no obvious markers that distinguish the types of process; for example, at the end of the provision implementing the selection in the process type (as we illustrated mood in section 1.3 above), there is no difference in verbal morphology. Process types are hidden system types in the transit system, in many cases cryptotypes in Whorf terminology. We recognize that they are in the system, exploring them from three points of view that we have illustrated. When we examine them in this way, we see how the common system affects their presence, how it reacts to their presence. For example, we see that the TENSE system responds to the difference between the types of material and non-existent processes. Whorf called such properties a reaction. We have been an example of some reactions to PROCESS TYPE, such as TENSE and PROJECTION. Others include verb classes, which can serve as a process in the positions of different types of processes, and a set of reactions outside of the ideal metafunction. For example, text metafunction involves the possibility of a replacement, in which one part of the wording is replaced by a certain form of replacement (e.g. nominal and oral in English) to present this information as continuous (in contrast, as in what towel would you like? Oral substitution (c/s) can only be used in material positions, not in mental, verbal or relational positions. So we can get the stuff what the company did with the kettle was to give it to my aunt, but not the psychic what my aunt did with the kettle was wanting it, the verbal what my aunt did with the story was to tell, and the relational what my aunt did to the director was hers. Reactionary agents are often outside the metafunctional area of the system to which they respond, and even when they fall into the same metafunction, they can be at a considerable distance from the system to which they respond. Chinese and Japanese seem to have the same basic PROCESS TYPE system as we just illustrated in English. They vary in species reactions that provide evidence for different types of processes. For example, temporary questions are different for English and Chinese, as English interprets the time in the process on a tense model, while Chinese interprets it on the model aspect. They also have more delicate types of processes. For example, both the Chinese and the Japanese bring possession and existence closer than the British. In Japanese, material, mental, oral and relational positions differ, for example, with regard to postposition marking models, voice variants and result design, as well as projection. There is always one participant marked by a post-position ha (or va, if it is thematic); and there may be one or two other participants marked postpositions o (or va if it is thematic) or neither (or wa if it is thematic) or left without postposition if the position is an unmarked relational one. Thus, in the active material reservation the Actor marked ha, the purpose of and the beneficiaries neither: Sensei ga watakushi no hon o kudasaimashita teacher I book give the Actor Beneficiary The purpose of the process The Teacher gave me a book, while the attribute or meaning of the unmarked relational position without postposition: Watashi wa sensei desu i 'teacher' They can project the state as a content of mental or verbal processing and the predicted status of this provision is marked, ka or so. For example, the following example is a combination of two positions, projecting the mental one thinking, and the other represents an idea projected by thinking: Watashi wa basu de ikoo to omou t' bus' go 'think α (mental) Senses Process β (predicted idea) Manner-means Process Negotiation 'I think I will go on the bus' Verbal positions similar to the projection; but, in addition, they may have a receiver (marked ni) representing the recipient to move in the dialogue. Around the languages of the world, we can expect more changes in the style of the process than is obvious with Chinese, English or Japanese. It seems plausible that we will find prototypes of material, mental and relational types of processes in the transit systems of most languages, but there will be significant differences in how they interpret more intermediate categories (such as behavioral and existential) precisely because of their more uncertain status. The central reason for recognizing verbal processes as a separate type, such as Chinese, English and Japanese, is their ability to project quoted or reported provisions. However, some languages such as Tagalog can use a relational strategy (the English statement of his was that the moon balloon), while others may accept projections interpersonally as a mood projection with a special mood citation. And just as we find significant differences in the implementation of mood types in different languages (as shown above), we significant significant in explicit markers and hidden reactions of process types. Thus, the criteria we have expressed above are specific to the English language (as we have already noted with regard to the unmarked current strenuous selection). (ii) The second important variable is the way participants participate in this process - the way participants influence each other through their participation in the process. The interpretation in traditional grammar from the point of view of the transit concept comes mainly from material provisions. We have, in fact, already referred to this: he is concerned about whether the actor affects another participant (target) through a process that is transiting, or not, non-transitional. Because this model is oriented towards one type of position, it leads to an interpretation in which types of processes should be differentiated. That is, while the material model working with the actor potentially affects the target as soon as the description expands, other types of process must be recognized: they are mental, verbal and relational (e.g. Chinese, English, French, Japanese and Tagalog). But there is an alternative to the type of model that has been recognized in traditional grammar - an ergonomic model of transit. This is a process not in terms of impact but in terms of causality. There is always (in all types of processes) one participant who is most closely related to the process, Medium (since it is the environment through which the process manifests itself); and the main option is whether to present the Middle Process combination as externally called by the Agent or not. Thus, the combination of door is open can be presented as (say) Middle: the door Process: opened without specifying what led to the origin, or as Agent: wind Process: opened the Middle: door, with the specification of the Agent, bringing about the occurrence. The situation with Process and Medium without an agent is known as medium and the agent item (explicit or implicit) is known as effective. These two transitor models do not represent mutually exclusive sets of phenomena, but rather complement the views on the same set of phenomena. In any language, some areas will display more transit features and others more ergative features. The balance between them is certainly one of the main things that changes in transit systems around the world. English is usually a mixed system. The ergative model, which contrasts medium and effective, is found with all types of processes except verbal processes that are average; for example: PROCESS TYPE AGENCY Medium (Middle Process) effective (agent) stuff Door opened the door mental She loved the new musical New musical Pleased her verbal She told them the story of relational It was crazy It was Crazy It was Henry She called it Henry Now we can see that the existence of a couple of mental reservations such as she loved the new musical : the new musical : the new musical : the new musical : the new musical : the new musical : the new musical it could be for referring to the medium system versus the effective ergative model. They exhibit the same erguly pattern as in material and relational positions. They differ in one respect. Both medium and effective mental positions have the same set of participants, Senses and Phenomenon; and the difference lies in the appointment of ergative roles: in an effective Phenomenon is interpreted as the Agent, bringing sense of Senses (the emotion of pleasure in our example), while in the middle it is interpreted non-agentially. Thus, medium and effective such views represent two complementary views on mental processes; they can be viewed from two different perspectives, either as Senses involved in sensing, which hovers over (or creates) a phenomenon, or as a phenomenon of what about sensing that encroaches on Senses. Around the languages of the world, the degree to which one of the two patterns of transit dominates may be different, and we can see this change in the increase in the foregrounding of the ergative model in the history of the English language. Chinese and English are very similar in balance between models in their transit systems; but the Chinese do not have a systematic contrast between average and effective mental states, they exist only in the middle class. Japanese and English also seem to be very similar in transit and ergative balance. There are differences between transit systems for what we have proposed so far. On the one hand, there may be other models of transit. In his interpretation of the transitor Tagalog language, Martin (appears) defines a transit model in which different types of processes differ and complements it, which interprets the core of the position consisting of the Process and one participant, the Medium, through which it is actualized. It may or may not be another participant; if there is, it is either drawn into the core of the reservation or repelled by it. 2.1.3 Textual (by rank): THEME Textual Metafunction generates resources to present interpersonal and ideological meanings as information organized into a text that can be constantly exchanged between the speaker and the listener. This includes transitions in text development (conjunction) and assigning different text statuses (thematic, newsworthiness, continuity and contrast, restoration). These transitions and statuses allow information to be shared; the speaker directs the listener in interpreting the unfolding text. By the point of rank of the main text system THEME. THEME is a resource for organizing the interpersonal and ideological values of each sentence as a message. Each situation will occur at some particular moment in the Text it's his text environment. The THEME system establishes a localized environment, providing a point of departure, referring to which the listener interprets the message. With this system, the speaker determines where the listener's values are in the network, where the message should be included as relevant. The local environment, acting as a place of departure, is a theme; what is represented in this local Rheme environment. Thus, the position as a message is a configuration of two thematic statuses, Theme and Reme. In English, thematic status is expressed in a sequence of position. The theme is implemented in the original position, and Reme is not implemented by the original position; for example, Theme: In 1791, John MacArthur arrived in Sydney. There are a number of thematic options, including (i) the choice between marked theme (as in the example above) and unmarked theme (theme in declarative reservation: Theme: John MacArthur Rheme: arrived in Sydney in 1791.); (e.g., John MacArthur arrived in Sydney in 1791) is usually to identify a specific topic from the (N implicit) set of potential candidates; and (ii) the ability to identify a topic, track down part of the message using nominal identification (e.g., what John MacArthur did in 1791 was delivered to Sydney). Since TEMA is a text resource, it links this provision to the overall development of the text in context, in particular: here the text was developed as a chronological sequence. We have just presented the organization of the text organization of the position as a configuration of two discrete components, Theme and Reme. This allows you to show how they map on functional elements in other metafunctional threads of position. However, all text statuses are indeed a degree of notoriety, what we're here for is a cline, a gradual transition from thematic notoriety to non-fame. Thus, we can interpret this position as a wave of information flow, starting from the thematic peak and moving into the thematic trough. Such a wave or periodic organization is a mode of expression generated by textual metafunction: see section 3.1 (ii) below. Thematicity is one of a set of text statuses or types of notoriety. The position also displays an additional kind of prominence, a degree of newsworthiness. This is a line from this information to new information presented as given s New configuration. Fame as news is realized within the framework of national notoriety: while the movement of step in the type of the group (unit intonation) is a continuous circuit, there will be some major movements, such as a significant rise or a major fall; and this large movement can be seen against the background of the movement as a whole. The clause and the tone of the group are not necessarily together extensive; one provision can be implemented by more than one group of tones, and one tonne group can implement more item. It's actually a case of the existence of another grammatical unit, along with a reservation, an information unit. This device is implemented by a group of tones; and this is the area of the FOCUS INFORMATION system implemented by Given No New. In the case of unmarked, the situation is jointly extensive with the information block, so that theme and Rheme and Given - New complement each other in the area of one provision. While the theme is implemented consistently, the new one is not; it is implemented at the national level. Consequently, thematic and newsworthiness are independent variables. In the unmarked case, the new one is displayed on the last element in Rheme, which has lexical content. Consequently, an unmarked message is a combination of two text waves: the theme of shading in Rheme and The Shading in the New, with the theme falling under Giv and New Falls in Rheme. For example, see Figure 13 (assuming there is a point in the information flow corresponding to where John MacArthur went in 1791?). In 1791, John MacArthur arrived at the Sydney THEME Theme Rheme INFORMATION FOCUS Given the ---- New Rise. 13: Theme and Rheme and Given new in an unmarked combination in the case of unmarked, the position thus unfolds from notoriety as the theme of fame as new. Thus, from the listener's point of view, s/he gives guidance as to where to integrate the message with his/her interpretation of the text so far and what to zoom in on as the main point. This swell of information within the reservation also tends to correlate with the movement within the elements of the position from elements whose references are presented as specific and thus regenerated for the listener to elements presented as non-specific and therefore irreparable to the listener. But, in English, the choice in REFERENCE varies regardless of subject matter and newsworthiness, so the picture is just described only by the trend. The dissemination of information in the paragraph just discussed helps explain the textual aspect of VOICE, active/passive, in English. From a textual point of view, this system provides alternatives for participants, both unmarked and unmarked New. For example, in an effective paragraph (see figure 12 above), the active version will have the agent/subject as an unmarked subject and medium as a candidate for the unmarked New, while the passive version will have a medium/subject as an unnamed topic and an agent (if present) as a candidate for the unmarked New. Thus VOICE should be understood in relation to text metafunction. All languages will have textual resources to organize the presentation of the position as a message, assigning different text statuses to different parts of the situation. When we examine the situation from a text point of view, we need to study it as a message in the unfolding text, that was adjusted to the flow of information in the text. Since this view is rarely used in reference grammars, there is no information on text systems. No doubt a lot of understanding Languages are lost because of claims that they are free word languages, as textual options are often implemented in sequence (as we pointed out in English above) and the lack of intonation systems accounts. But text statuses can also be indicated by other means, such as pretexts (e.g. the excuse of ang in Tagalog and the postposition wa in Japanese). There are differences in how text systems relate to claus systems from other metafunctions. On the one hand, languages differ in the way they refer text meta-function to interpersonal. As we have already pointed out, an unmarked topic in English is defined by mood type (declarative: Theme, wh-question: Wh-element, yes-no interrogator: The ultimate theme, and the imperative: Predictor); but many languages do not target THEME on MOOD in this way: this applies to Chinese, Japanese and Tagalog. On the other hand, languages differ in the way they relate textual metafunction to an idea. As we have already pointed out, English has a VOICE system to provide participants with different text potentials. Many other languages have a similar system, but they may take the passive option less frequently than English does or limit the voice system more in relation to transitivity. But language can also achieve a display between text systems and transit roles without a separate voice system. Tagalog, for example, has a common system for selecting different participants and circumstances as a topic; but there is no separate voice system. In English, the topic is summarized in interpersonal and ideological metafunctions, and can also contain contributions from the textual metafunction itself, the conjunctive and the continuous part of the Theme. Other languages may separate ideal themes (i.e. thematic participants and circumstances), giving them a distinct status, as in Tagalog (where ideal themes are marked ang) and Japanese (where ideal themes are marked wa). There are also differences in the division of labour between different text systems. We assumed that there was a tendency for topics to be provided and specific. This trend may be stronger in a language where there is no mandatory labeling of specificity in nominal groups, as in Chinese. Such languages may have a closer relationship between tracking participants in discourse and text systems within this provision than in English. 2.1.4 Idea: Logical: COMPLEXING Metafunctional Grammar Components, discussed in 2.1.1 to 2.1.3, have one important feature in common: their structural reflexes in the broadest sense of configuration. That is, the structural implementation of selections in transit systems, mood and themes is some kind of organic configuration of individual functions, such as The Actor and Process, or (Subject - Of course) (Predictor and Adjunct). We have noted that these Not always clearly defined or limited as segmental components; the most important characteristic they share is organic solidarity, each of which has a distinctive function towards the whole. There is another component in grammar whose structural reflex has a different order: what we call a logical metafunction. There is in every language a system of logical relationships: relationships such as and and or if ... that's because ... so', which interpret the relationship between one part of the discourse and the other. These systems are implemented by iteration rather than configuration: one reservation is related to another position, or one group or phrase to another group or phrase. A characteristic feature of these relationships is that they do not create closures; each element (every item, every group, and so on) can always be accompanied by the same. We call these structures complexes: complexes of points, group complexes and so on. Every connection in such a complex is called a link. Here, as elsewhere in this chapter, we will focus our attention on the situation that this section means on the set of reservations. The overall shape of this complex type of system, known as recursive systems, is shown in Figure 14; x/y/... combined with a simultaneous choice of stop or go again. As for the set of reservations, the first is a combination of two simultaneous systems: (1) interdependence and (2) logical-semantic attitude. The system of interdependence determines the relative status of the two provisions in relation. (The prototype link consists of only two elements; we assume it's for discussion purposes.) These two may have equal status without being dependent on the other (hence each in principle independent); this paraxia relationship. Or, one may depend on the other where the relationship is hypotaxia. In our notation paraxia is shown by Arabic numerals, hypotaxis - letters of the Greek alphabet. The system of logical-semantic relations determines what its name implies: a special kind of logical relationship. It is important to emphasize that logical here refers to the logic of natural languages, the logic of common sense, characterized by flexibility and fluff. This is, of course, the ultimate source of logic in a formal and symbolic sense; but since such logic systems come from natural language rather than the other way around, it is not very profitable to try to interpret the logic of natural language as an imperfect copy of the developed logic. The main difference in the English system, in the logical-semantic relationship of the set clause, is between the expansion of the two types and the projection. In connection with the extension, a secondary reservation picks up the core message and expands on it. means saying the same thing again, either by direct repetition (limiting the case!) or, more complicatedly, by reformulating it, refining it, or posing an example. It is a relationship that is signaled by expressions such as, in other words, that is, for example; or abbreviations such as i.e., for example, and viz. Expansion means adding something, changing, replacing or taking away, expressed and, or instead, except, as well as in its adversative sense. Improvement means providing some additional information that is systematically semantic of (usually) time, cause, condition or concession: here we find connections such as (and) then, (and) so, otherwise, nevertheless, and in its concession sense. All of them can be combined with both types of interdependence, parataxy and hypotaxy. So far, we have illustrated parataxy compounds; but the strengthening of relationships in particular is often interpreted hypothetically, with connections such as when, because if, if, if, though. In connection with the projection, the secondary reservation is conditioned by the primary position like what someone said (locations) or thought (idea). This connection is the direct and indirect speech and thought of our traditional grammar. Here also interdependence can be parataxy (direct) or hypotaxy (indirect); in other words, projection, like expansion, can be combined with either of the two relationships in status. An example of a set of reservations is in Figure 14. The system network, showing only these first steps in delicacy, is shown in Figure 15. Fig. 14: Analysis of the complex item from the casual conversation (Svartvik and kwirk, 1980) Rice. 15: System network for the complex point (except for more delicate options) 2.2 (2) Rank: from point to phrase and group the constituency is built on part of all relations; it assumes the whole from which we define the constituent parts. Entire parts that reflect the organic structure of constituencies are called grammatical units. Units have an ignorant integrity: they are fully accounted for by their structures, and they do not mix structurally with other units. Grammatical units are identified functionally. This means that (i) they are the origin points of the system networks (such as transit and the mood in the reservation) and (ii) they function as constituents in full. We can come to functionally defined units if we take a rank based on the type of constituency. Rank units in the hierarchy according to their relationship to the constituency: high-ranking units consist of units directly lower, these units consist of units to the next rank below, and so on, until we arrive at the lowest rank units that do not have an internal composite structure. Rank thus theory distribution of grammar blocks. The English grammatical scale of rank is the clause of the group/phrase word morpheme That is, the position is made up of groups, groups, words, and the word morphem. (For more more, see below.) For example, ranked compositions of newborn calves are easy prey, as shown in Figure 16. Figure 17 shows an analysis of the situation with systemic features, function structure and pre-selection of group functions. Fig. 16:

Rank-based county rank: axis: metafunction: skies will be clear, partly cloudy over the rest of California State text system:interspers:ideaional: unmkd theme, unmkd climax, non-conjoined;indic.: decl.: untagged, temporal, non-interactive, positive: relational: ascriptive - intense and medium - localic ... textual structure: Theme Rheme interspers.: The theme of the Finite Predicator Supplement Supplement Balance mood ideational: Carrier Process Attribute Location Group / Phrase System Figure 17: Systemic and Structural Analysis of the Position from Pre-Election to Rank Below We can consider the type of electoral tree above as the norm: all constituent units rank next below. However, the theory should also allow for a rankshift, in which a unit of one rank serves as if it were a lower rank unit, i.e. it is shot down. For example, a reservation might serve as if it were a group like in (double ban square brackets, - a sign of a rankshifted provision): They'd send you a bill as a percentage of what they're worth rankshifted units differ from ranking them differently, both in their own makeup and in the choices that are open to them. For example, a rank provision is generally not available for argument and cannot be confirmed or rejected. Thus, it is important that the theory differs between ranking units (units operating according to their rank) and rank (units serving as if they were lower rank units). The meta-functional grammar organization that we have illustrated above for this provision extends to other ranks. For example, the nominal group has THE TYPE, CLASSIFICATION, EPITHESES, and THE QUALIFIER systems, PERSON and ATTITUDE interpersonal systems, and DETERMINATION text systems (c. Figure 19 below). But the way the metafunctional deposits of cards structurally change; in particular, groups are organized both organically and as logical complexes. Figure 21 below shows an example of an English nominal group. Languages differ in both the number of ranks and the division of grammatical labor relations between different ranks. For example, Chinese and English do quite a bit of grammatical work in word rank, and Vietnamese even less. In contrast, many languages prefer the word rank as an area of implementation, such as nuclear transit and modality. Languages also differ in relation to the rank character, which is an intermediate between words and positions. Both Chinese and languages take out units of this rank at both ends, as if: group groups words (groups of words with head and modifiers), while phrases are abbreviations of positions (mini-clauses, with process and range configuration). The pretext is thus a verbal kind of word, as shown by English pretexts such as relative, concerning). In Chinese, this principle is even more pronounced; elements such as zai serve either in phrases or in positions: we can interpret elements in phrases like a verb class, a post-positive verb (c. Figure 20 below). The Japanese language also has phrases, but the phrasal relationship comes after the nominal group (i.e. nominal group va, ha, oh, no, kara, done, etc.), just as the reservation process comes at the end of the provision; phrase communication is a post-position, not a preliminary position. Some languages have both phrases and nominal affixes to implement the function served by the nominal group, morphological cases, often using cases alone for participants, and an excuse or postposition (adposition) - a nominal group marked by circumstances (as is the case in German). Other languages typically use nominal groups marked case for both groups, as do Finnish. However, other languages do not have phrases at all, but rely on the logical sequences of dependent verbs rather than bring certain participants or circumstances into a position (e.g. Akan). Languages can also use the reservation process as a place to mark the transit role, as Tagalog does for the subject matter. As grammar evolves, there is a tendency for subjects to reduce the rank scale, which decreases in the process. For example, pronouns (the word rank) can slide down the rank scale to become pronominal affixes (morphema rank) serving as parts of verbs, and have (the word rank) can similarly be shortened in rank to become affixes (morphema) rank, serving as parts of the verb to indicate a tense/aspect, modality and the like. As an intermediate step, these elements can be attached to other elements before they become connected morphemes. This over time is one aspect of grammar, a process by which categories become more closely integrated into the grammatical system and the lexigram system creates new values in some grammatical subsystems. Another aspect of grammar is the reduction of delicacy: see below. 2.3 (3) On delicacy: from a more general to a more specific rank can be interpreted as the principle of the distribution of the lexigram system to a number of different areas or units organized into the hierarchy of constituencies, or the hierarchy of the organic whole and their parts (holarchy, as it was called with reference to biological and other non-semiotic systems). This factoring of the common system into the subsystem according to rank makes the overall system both easier and more powerful. This simplifies the overall precisely because it is taken into account or divided into subsystems that are relatively independent of each other and interact through pre-selection rather than Network. Thus, each subsystem has its own area of responsibility. This makes the overall system more powerful because, since each subsystem has its own area of responsibility, the different subsystems are basically freely variable in relation to each other, so the overall potential of the lexigram system is a complete crossroads of all possible functions in all subsystems. This overall intersection is, in fact, infinite, because when a system is ranked (i.e. counted in subsystems according to rank), its potential can expand through rank shift (see above); for example, a position can serve as if it were a group or word, thus opening up a complete clausified subsystem in the rank of a group or word. As an organizational principle, the rank is reasonably easy to detect (although, in linguistics, it is sometimes confused with other principles of the organization, in particular stratification: sometimes morphemes mistakenly thought to consist of phonemes rather than realized sequences of phoneme); rank is a rather explicit or explicit form of order, in whole parts, and it is even partially reflected in many writing systems. However, the lexigram is also organized in a more hidden or implicit way. We have already talked about such an organization: ordering system network systems due to delicacy. For example, PROCESS TYPE, TYPE-OF-BEING and RELATION TYPE systems in Figure 12 are organized with increased sensitivity. This lexigram order is more hidden because it is not directly reflected in the wording of the grammatical unit; rather, it is a more abstract form of order imposed on systems whose options, as the wording suggests, are being implemented. Delicacy is a very simple but powerful principle of organization. It orders systems on the line from the most common options systems to the most specific; and at the same time, it orders the implementation of these options in accordance with their system environment. This means that the implementation properties of the reservation or any other grammatical unit can be placed in the system, so this applies only to the corresponding subset of units. For example, only yes-no interrogation clauses have the implementation properties of the Ultimate Precursor (i.e. The End and the Subject); it does not apply to the question provisions as a whole, nor to the indicative provisions in general, nor to the basic provisions in general. Similarly, if indicative provisions have the realization properties of having a clear subject (i.e. subject), then increasingly delicate options available from the indicative, such as yes-no interrogators also have this property (p. Figures 4 and 7 above). That is, the realizable properties are inherited along the end of the delicacy from less delicate to more delicate. Thus, delicacy can be interpreted as a general principle of the organization of the lexigram, as well as rank; in particular, it is the principle of dissemination of information in the in accordance with the taxonomic scope of application. But the delicacy is, in fact, more than ordering system options and, as possible in meaning, implementing applications related to them. It is also the principle that two parts of the lexigram, lexis (dictionary) and grammar are related. If you look at grammar, lexis is the most delicate grammar; and looked at in terms of lexis, grammar is the least delicate (most common) vocabulary. In other words, system variants of more common systems in network systems (such as declarative/interrogated systems; 'wh-Yes-no'; 'material/mental/verbal/relational'; 'existential/expanding relational'; 'intense/possessive/indirect'; 'specific/non-specific') are implemented by grammatical fragments of the structure (e.g. Theme - Finite, Process - Existential) or grammatical elements (e.g., interpersonal particles ka, ne, yo in Japanese or ma, ne, ba in Chinese; defining, such as/as/this/that and have verbs such as do, be, have in English) while more delicate options are implemented Lexical verbs As we have already noted, the delicacy is a wedge, so there are regions between grammar and vocabulary, such as prepositions in English and phases in Chinese . it is common in languages for some lexical elements of movement that will be summarized in the delicacy to serve the grammatical elements of the implementation of options in tense systems (p. English going, French venir de, Swedish komma ut) and for some lexical elements of material manipulation: capture, taking to be summarized in a delicacy to serve grammatical elements of the marking purpose (under certain conditions; Figure 18 provides a very simple example of the transition to lexical delicacy in the PROCESS TYPE system in English as part of relational provisions. Pic. 18: To lexical delicacy in the intense scriptures of the relational provisions of Grammar and vocabulary never fully On the one hand, small lexical sets are often associated with small local grammars, i.e. delicate variations of grammatical potential, as in the case of a lexical set of astute processes in English (see. , notice the glimmer, the espi, hear, eavesdropping, feel, taste, smell; feeling, experience) that can be combined with different kinds of phenomenon than cognitive or affective processes. (For example, we can say that I saw someone crossing the street, but not I thought someone Street). On the other hand, collocations between small lexical sets usually occur between lexical elements, implementing closely related grammatical functions such as Process and Medium Medium Horse, bark and dog; age - wine, mature cheese). Process - Range (wreaking - chaos, don't dance, make a mistake; go crazy/crazy/mad/banana/bonker; fall - sick/sick), Process - Manner (regret - deep, understand - completely), and Facet - Thing (gaggl - goose, school - fish, herd) ; and in Chinese also Event - Result and Measure - Thing. In describing the lexigram systems of different languages, delicacy has proven to be a useful conceptual resource for managing complexity. Lexigram systems are investigated and displayed at a fairly low degree of delicacy, so that the overall distribution and organization of the system can be established. This review, which is limited in delicacy provides a map that can guide subsequent excursions into more delicate systems. This also applies to the transition from grammar to vocabulary: a lexical organization can be researched in terms of the categories of the grammatical part of the system; that is, grammar interprets the general parameters from which lexical differences are made. 3. The system and text 3.1 The function and rank of the Grammar System of each natural language can be presented in a simplified manner as a function/rank matrix, where the function is used in the sense of metafunction (see section 2.1). So for English we can build such a matrix as in figure 19. Ideological interspersed, text title class of logical empirical (cohesive) complex clause (TRANS clause. (process type) MODMODALITYPOLARITY THEMECULMIN-ATIONVOICE COHESIVE RELATIONS: THE phrase PREP. (circ. type) MINOR MOOD (adjunct type) GROUP CONJUNK-TION (verbal) group INTER-DEPENDENCY (paratax/hypotax) TENSE EVENT TYPEASPECT (not the ultimate) FINITE-NESS VOICEIDT-ICITY REFERENCE, ELLIPSIS - SUBSTITUTE-TION (nominal) LOGIC-SEMANTIC RELATIONSHIP (expansion/PROJECTION) MODICIA-ATION THING TYPECLASSIFI-CATIONEPI-CATION PERSONATTITUDE DETERMIN-ATION CONJUNK-TION (Adverb) MODIFIK-ATION QUALITY (type circ.) commentary (adj. Type) CONYUNK-TION word word) DERIVA-TION (DENOT-ATION) (CONNOT-ATION) information. unit of information. INFO unit. TAXI ACCENT-UATION KEY INFORMATION. FOCUS complexes simplex rice. 19: The function of the rank matrix for English there are four features to note about this figure. Each cell is the location (point of origin) of the system network, named in small capitals. Where two names are given (e.g. MOOD and MODALITY), this means that it is useful to recognize two (or more) subsystems on a semantic basis (i.e. from above; section 1.2, 3.3) to recognize two (or more) subsystems; but since they have the same address in the matrix, they share a common point of origin and thus form a single network. As we have seen, the system network is a theory of options: it defines the topological region in terms of values that can be interpreted by grammar. The network is open whatever differences you see, more can always be added. Structural considerations are embodied in the concept of rank: rank is a structural unit whose constituent functions are usually performed by lower grade classes, provisions consist of (functions filled with classes) groups and phrases, and so on. Compare the organic rank scale in biology: the organ-tissue cell. But beyond that, the structure does not play any part in the definition of topology; therefore, the matrix accommodates various alternatives to a strict composite structure. Some of these variations seem to be systematic: thus, English and at least some other languages reflect a tendency to: empirical systems to be implemented segmentally (by the constituency) interpersonal systems prosodically (by coloring) text system periodically (by hesitation) logical system sequentially (by iteration) (iii) Matrix has uncertainty, which is the property of all grammatical representations. Thus the structural manifestations of the range are not quite identical through different columns. For example, in English, interpersonal grammar shows a layering of structure between a reservation and a phrase/group (Mood and balance mentioned in section 1.3); and in textual metafunction there is a parallel structure in the form of an information block (Locus Given and New), which is in an unmarked connection with the reservation, but not identical to it. Similarly, there is a natamine in the columns: the system can occur with one metafunction, but be activated from within another; for example, English VOICE, where a) may be defined empirically, but (b) which option is taken from its communication with text systems INFORMATION and TEMA. Each network generates its own structural output in terms of segment configurations or other types of structure; the latter, however, can still be presented in a configuration form: for example, periodic movement, or oscillation, between two kinds of notoriety (information flow) in the English position presented as a dual configuration of the Theme - Rheme and Given s New. Thus, the item under the description usually has several views. For example, the provision in English, Chinese or Japanese (and possibly in all languages) will be presented three times, i.e. as a display on each other three different structures, one of which comes from each metafunction. Figure 20 shows such a multi-layered structure. qiu feng-b-cho-cho-choy-lua z'i d'-shungo autumn-wind marker Goals leaves blown to the ground position: (i) material : medium: eventive unmarked information focus Act Target Process Location Theme Com The peddler of the Adjunct Theme Rheme New NG marker NG VG phrase Classifier Thing Thing Event Result-ative Small-range noun verb pre-positive VB NG Thing Facet noun post-positive noun pic. 20: The multi-layered structure of the Chinese position in some languages, at least be helpful to represent certain specifics both empirically and segmental configurations, and logically, as iterative complexes: for example, the English nominal group: see Figure 21. Note that each line in the analysis is a report on a different vector of agation: that is, it expresses how the element is systemically connected to certain other elements. ----- - ε διτ; γλτ; βλτ: a two of the greatest professional golfers of all time, Deictic Numerative Epithet Classthet Classifier Thing; Minor Process Range Minor Fig. 21: Experimental and logical analysis of the English nominal group 3.2 System and, for example, what activity is thus grammar? What does grammar do when working on language grammar? The maintenance of grammar means establishing and explaining the principles underlying the formulations of the natural language: in traditional terms, its syntax, morphology and vocabulary (dictionary). This three-part division is methodological: in Western linguistics, different methods have evolved for syntax (grammar above the rank of word), morphology (grammar below the rank of word) and lexicology (relationships and meanings of words). As for the phenomena themselves, they are a single layer (section 4.1 below). In many languages, the distinction between syntax and morphology is not required even at methodological levels, as the words themselves are non-variant (no morphology), and therefore no special methods are required to account for grammar below the rank of the word (e.g. Chinese, Vietnamese). Establishing and explaining principles means acknowledging that grammar is not accidental; it shapes the system. (It's certainly an assembly of different systems, but we can still refer to aggregate as a system.) But the task of grammar is not only to describe the system; it should also coordinate the system with the instance, or rather (since it is not separate steps), describe the system as it relates to actual instances of the language (called text). This system's relationship to text, known as the moment, is not as simple as it seems at first glance; in fact, it's quite problematic. The system and the text are not two different things; it is the same thing that can be seen from different points of view, from different points of view of the observer. A useful analogy may be climate and weather: there is only one set of phenomena, not two, but we call it weather when we experience it instantly, like a meteorological text, and a climate where we make a long-term perspective in order to establish and explain the principles of the meteorological system that lies behind. The text only makes sense because it is an instant awareness of systemic potential: it is what we mean by saying that the speaker and the listener should share command of language, unconscious awareness of intertextist models (how forms of formulation understand meaning and are realized in sound) and the topology of each layer (as what is said contrasts with what could be said, but has been said, but has been said, but has been said. At the same time, our concept of the system is valid only because it is instantly in the text: each instance retains the potential on the one hand, strengthening it, and on the other hand, challenging and changing it. This dialectic of text and system is what we understand in a living language. The language lives in the sense that it is a dynamic open system that is maintained in existence by constantly changing in interaction with the environment. The system is probabilistic (as climate); when we say that there is a choice, say, in MOOD, between declarative and interrogator, we mean with a certain degree of probability attached. (The probability is likely to vary, of course, in different functional contexts: there are both local and global probability profiles.) Therefore, every instance of an indicative reservation endlessly resents probabilities; and from time to time the effect will be catastrophic, bringing the new system into existence or the same elimination of the old (as happened in English, when the probability of an informal singular you, as opposed to polite or plural you fell gradually to zero). Network representation of system grammar is a way of modeling capacity in order to ensure its current evolution. One aspect of this evolution is grammar: instant patterns in texts can gradually become part of the grammatical potential. The peculiarity of semiotic systems (because they are social: see section 4 below) is that the instance carries value. Thus, this text can be particularly appreciated: for example, a political manifesto or a literary artifact. Therefore, grammars have to interpret the text not only as a window into the system, but also as an object in itself, explaining not only why it means what it does, but also why it is valued for what it is. In the context of language education, for example, analysis should show why one part of a student's writing is more effective than the other. However, most of the work of grammar can be located at some intermediate point of the instantly wedge: for example, when studying codes and registers. Registers are functional (or diatypical) language varieties that evolve in different contexts of use: formal or casual, technical or non-technical, more open or more closed. They are not options in the sense of alternative implementations of general meaning on some higher layer. Codes are subcultural variants, different discourses of young and old, men and women, different classes or cast in society; these are different semantic styles, usually associated with some generalized context of use. The codes are difficult to study precisely because their instant status is uncertain: should they be presented as repetitive classes of instances or as subsystems of the common system? To use our analogy is not clear whether the codes should be treated as long-term weather trends or as minor minor Climate. (The answer is, in fact, like both, but that's exactly where the difficulty arises.) Working on the grammar of the language, a person tries to move freely on the clyin of instant will. We can make it easier once we have a case, a treasure trove of copies that we can go back to all the time to resume communication. This is the main database of grammar data. The case is not a substitute for theory; it does not contain all the facts as hidden words are buried in piled letters. The facts and principles underlying them must be interpreted; but they can be interpreted much more reliably on a quantitative basis of the modern computerized case. We can be an instant clima, as in figure 22. Fig. 22: Instant at this stage of knowledge, we usually try to write grammar for the language system as a whole, citing as special cases lexigram changes because of the register or code. The reason for this is that such differences are largely quantitative; it includes the relative frequency of terms in systems, not the presence or absence of the entire system. For example, there are certain registers in which the first and second person is extremely rare; but we probably don't want to write separate grammar for these registers, with the face of the system completely out of the way. When it comes to semantic representation, since codes are actually semantic variants, they can be best explained by reference to common semantic systems, as in Hassan's studies of social-semantic code changes among mothers and children in Sydney. Registers, on the other hand, do not have a higher level of constant communication and can therefore be more effectively represented as separate semantic subsystems. 3.3 Descriptive principles As in any scientific theory, basic concepts (such as layering and metafunction, implementation, instantaneity, delicacy and rank) are beyond empirical validation; they form an abstract basis, or a model created as a means of study and explanation. (An abstract model of this kind is itself a semiotic system: see section 4 below.) This model is constantly being improved and developed in use. Unlike these general theoretical categories, descriptive categories are established on the basis of the specific characteristics of these languages and are therefore in principle verifiable. In other words, they can be described in such a way as to be able to decide whether something is a copy and whether there is any category in the system at all. As a rule, we are talking about two kinds of considerations. (i) Most of the generalizations made in the description of grammar are only valid with a certain degree of probability. They allow us to identify exceptions for which we then seek further generalization; And so on. For example: we say that English Moodtag from Tagfinite and Tagsubject, where the first repeats the Finite operator, and the second repeats repeats (every grammar is in ditkic form, as Mary knew, didn't it?). Typically, the tag repeats Finite; but we also face cases like it will be like fairy tales, right? where Finite will be replaced does. The point is, I hope she loves fairy tales; Will you confirm my expectations?. This contrasts with what will be like a fairy tale, will/isn't it, which will mean Do/Don't Share My Expectations?; and this is an example of a more delicate subclass in which the modal end in the reservation is replaced by a temporary tag (wed. It had to be crowded there, right?). And where the tag system generally advocates reversing polarity (positive zig; negative or negative, the loathed probability that polarity will remain constant, although in both cases there is another, marked option. Such probabilistic generalizations can still be verified, citing quantitative models in the case. They are important because they allow us to define the meaning of doing something as opposed to the point of not doing it, or doing something else. Definition then appears as a limiting case of probability, a point where no additional meaning is created. Thus, if the second part of the generalization above (repeat the subject) is true in all cases, there is no more delicate point of choice here in which a more semantic space is open. Then we go back to the enclosure to check; we find it, but my husband heard it too, didn't he? and we have to decide whether it fits the pattern or not. This leads to the following principle to be considered. (ii) Obviously, the answer to the question of whether you're in the tag in the last example is a repetition of the Topic or not depends on how we look at it. If we look at it from the bottom, at how it is implemented in form, it is not so; pronominal my husband must have it. If we look at it from above, at the meaning that is being realized, it is so; you function anaphorically, and these two are co-reference. Probably the speaker turned to, moving in the tag; but please note that we do not need any information of this kind from outside the text, it is the text itself that interprets the meaning and context of the situation for us. Because we know the English MOOD system, including the Tag principle (based on the value of the Subject as a modally responsible element in a sentence), we can interpret the instance by placing it in its place in the sense of potential. And here we take the third perspective, looking at it from all over. As we have seen in section 1, it is a critical feature of systemic grammar that grammar has binocular vision, looking at any phenomenon from each of these three perspective layers. We can choose the privilege of one or another; but they are all taken into account, and since they tend to conflict the optimal description for any particular case would almost be a compromise. Traditionally grammar started by looking from below because it is the most obvious way in: we ask questions like what is the meaning of va in the Japanese reservation?, first define the form (it then becomes a grammatical fact) and then ask what this form means. But in functional grammar, such as system systematics, a relatively higher priority is given to the perspective from above, where the question is one, such as How does the Japanese reservation interpret the flow of information?. Interestingly, the perspective that seems to be most often ignored is that from everything we build a paradigmatic environment: a set of options that make up local grammatical potential. In this example, we would like to create a network of systems that make up the text resources of the position: similar to the English language, the THEME and INFORMATION systems, and their implementation through the structural elements of Theme and Rheme and Given new. The analogy with English, of course, may not be carried out; and here again it is a binocular perspective, which is vital. There is no objective criterion for determining how similar the two phenomena should be to call them by the same name: in last resort, questions such as Whether there is a passive in this language? or how do we recognize an object in that language? these are questions about whether labels should be labeled when comparing one language to another. There is nothing wrong with making predictions about one language based on what is known about others; it's a normal way to get started. But you should beware of the categories along with the labels. The systemic approach is rather to ask a question such as is there a system that redistributes participants to different text statuses? (as an English actor, the goal, etc. are redistributed to different models of thematic and information structure). If there is, we call it a voice system; and then, if it creates some kind of opposition to unmarked/marked signs, we can call the term unmarked active and marked passive. Similarly, instead of how do we recognize the subject?, we might ask: Does the grammar include an element that has a specific function in relation to the validation of the sentence?, if so, we reasonably call it the Subject. All of these steps depend on taking the same point of view. 4. Perspectives beyond the lexigram In this final section we briefly contextualize what we discussed. First we look at grammar in its (stratal) environment in a language in context, and then we contextualize our own grammar, systemic theory, in relation to other types of grammar and in relation to language and other types of systems. 4.1 Grammar as a stratal subsystem of language in the context of Grammar, as we put it above, is a system of language formulations. More precisely, it is a system of implementation of meanings in formulations. Teh meanings of semantics, so we can say that semantics is realized by grammar. For example, the interpersonal mood resource in grammar implements the interpersonal resource of speech function in semantics; thus, the declarative reservation implements the movement in the dialogue that provides information. Implementation is an attitude that orders whole subsystems of language towards each other in symbolic abstraction; we say that he stratifies these subsystems. Semantics and grammar are stratified, with semantics as superior layer and grammar as bottom. Similarly, the wording is implemented by sounding (or writing); that is, grammar (formulation system) is implemented by phonology (sound system) (or graphology, writing system). For example, delicate variants within the interpersonal resource of mood in grammar are realized by differences in tone (direction of tone movement) in phonology; thus, the declarative reservation, unmarked, is realized by the drop in tone. Three layers or stratal subsystems of semantics, grammar and phonology (graphology) make up the linguistic system. Of the three, grammar is a layer that is purely internal to the linguistic system, slotted between the other two language layers. Grammar, therefore, should be organized so that it can both serve to implement semantics and at the same time be implemented by phonology. On the contrary, both semantics and phonology should interact with systems outside the linguistic system. Figure 23 is a strata organization of the linguistic system and illustrates it with the example above: the statement is implemented by declarative in a neutral way, which is realized by a drop in tone. As you can see from the diagram, terms in different layers, statement, neutral and falling, enter into different systemic relationships within each layer. This multiplication of systemic relations is part of what gives power to a stratified system. In the diagram, we showed each strata subsystem within the circle; circle represents the layer to which it belongs. Circles increase in size with the transition from phonology through grammar to semantics to show that these systems are increasing (both in size and complexity) with the transition to a higher layer. Our example comes from interpersonal metafunction (on the rank of the clause, in grammar); but the stratal principle it illustrates also applies to textual, empirical and logical metafunctions. However, there is one respect in which the example is not representative of the general principle of interstate relations. This suggests that interpersonal metafunction and, as it should, all metafunctions are projected throughout the linguistic system to organize each layer. However, the general principle is that metafunctions manifest themselves as organizational principles in semantics and grammar, but not in phonology. Why should it be so? quite quite well Semantics and lexigrams are layers of language content, while phonology (or graphology) is a layer of expression. Metafunctions are modes of meaning, not sound or writing modes. Being modes of meaning, metafunctions manifest themselves in the organization of two layers, touching meaning, layers of content, semantics and lexigrams. Figure 24 shows the metafunctional organization of content layers along with another global dimension of the organization, stratification. It is also a strata organization of the entire linguistic system, a context in which the system is embedded. We'll get back to the context now, but let's first say a few more words about metafunction and stratification. The meta-functional organization of both semantics and lexigrams is the most central aspect of the general stratal principle that semantics and lexigrams are natural to each other: the lexigram is the bottom of these two layers of content; it is not an autonomous formal system. The lexigram organization, both systemic and structural, is semantically transparent rather than opaque. For example, considering grammatical structures such as Theme - Rheme, Mood - Balance, or Carrier - Process - Attribute - Location, we can read it as a natural implementation of semantic configuration; and given grammatical systems like MOOD, we can read it as a natural implementation of a semantic system such as SPEECH FUNCTION. (The grammatical metaphor complicates the picture; but the metaphorical expansion of the system depends on the natural relationship between semantics and the lexicon.) In contrast, the relationship between phonology (or graphology) and the lexicon is largely normal (arbitrary) rather than natural. For example, in English, given some phonological structures such as the beginning of the peak and the code or lctus and Remiss, we can not read it as coinciding with the lexigram structure. Conversely, grammatical structures do not coincide with phonological, and grammatical and lexical objects are equally implemented by conventionally different sound forms. (There are local little partial iconic relationships, but they are marginal seen against the background of the common system.) One of the exceptions to the general principle is the intonation, or rather TONE and TONICITY in the highest rating of the unit of the phonological system, the tone of the group. TONE is naturally in relation to the interpersonal grammar system KEY, and TONICITY is naturally in relation to the textual grammatical system INFORMATION FOCUS. Natural relationships are part of a more general principle that interpersonal features tend to be implemented prosodically and text functions are usually implemented periodically (see section 3.1 above). There is no comparable correspondence in the ideological meta-function; and all interpersonal and textual grammatical and lexical elements of the lexigram (On a more abstract level, we can recognize the different ways of organizing we find in the content layers, iterative, segmental, prozod and periodic, as well as in phonology; but here they are not directly related to modes of meaning.) Fig. 23: An example of cross-country implementation (interpersonal metafunction) Let's now return to context. Context is a higher-level semiotic system in which the language is embedded. In particular, language is embedded in the context of culture or social system, and any instant study of language as a text is embedded in its own context of the situation. Context is an ecological matrix for both the common language system and specific texts. It is implemented through language; and being realized through language means that it is created and created by the language. This implementation of the relationship is organized in accordance with the principle of functional diversification. Like language, the context is functionally diversified into three common areas: field, tenor, and mode. The field concerns what is happening, the social processes and areas of the subject created by the language in the implementation of these social processes. The tenor concerns those who take part, the social roles and relationships of those who take part in interaction and speech roles and relationships created by language in the realization of these social roles and relationships. The regime concerns the role of language in context, its distance to those involved in accordance with the average (spoken, written and various more complex categories) and the channel (face-to-face, telephony, etc.), its complementarity with other social processes (from auxiliary to constituent), and its rhetorical contribution (didactic, instructive, persuasive, and so on). The field is usually implemented by ideological values, the tenor of interpersonal values, and the text value mode. For example, the tenor of the relationship between those interacting in the dialogue correlates with the range of functional variants they choose. To illustrate how the example of language in the context is stratally and functionally distributed, we will simply provide a snippet describing the following example from the weather report: The sky will be clear to partly cloudy over the rest of California. The description below shows (i) the contextual features of the field, tenor, and mode (referring to the type of situation to which example belongs), (ii) semantic features for example in each metafunction (idea: process configuration, interpersonal: moving and textual: message) and (iii) lexigram features from grammatical systems within three metafunctions and structural strands implementing these functions: : stratification: field tenor-interpersonal mode-text : Daily newspaper; Environmental condition: natural: weather (present - near future) Expert to lay the audience; impersonal, with uncertainty; Audience: public information: reporting and forecasting; Written: seal; Accompanied by other semiotics: maps, etc. semantics of the process of configuration of being, ascription of graded quality, future time of movement providing information (statement), positive and temporary messages of unmarked information distribution, with physical feature as point of departure and place as news lexigram (by point of rank) relational: aspect Intense and medium - locality: location Carrier (sky) - Process (to be) Partly cloudy) - Location (above the rest of California) Main: Indicative: Declarative: Untagged Remains Predictor (be) Supplement (clear to partly cloudy) - Adjunct (above the rest of California) unmarked The theme unmarked climax theme (sky) Rheme (to be clear, partly cloudy over the rest of California) graphological features: for example, the provision is implemented as an orthographic sentence, grammatical words separated by gaps of Rice. 24: Meta-functional diversification of content We thus interpret the lexigram not as an isolated system, but as an integral subsystem of language in context. Specifically, the lexigram is an internal layer for language, a mutual help of both semantics and phonology/graphology; and together with semantics, it forms a system of language content. He shares a metafunctional organization with semantics; and this metafunctional organization resonates with the diversification of context in field, tenor and mode. Thus, stratification and meta-function together build a common semantic space in which language systems are distributed in context. But as we've seen with the lexigram, the stratal subsystem has an internal organization; in particular, the lexigram is organized axially in systems (ordered in delicacy) and structure, and it is organized by rank in the hierarchy of units: positions, groups/phrases, words, morphemes (in English). It can be assumed that a semiotic system, such as language, will organize its stratal subsystems within the country in accordance with completely different principles, so that the internal organization we have discussed so far is unique to the stratal lexicon environment. However, the basic principle is the exact opposite: all stratal subsystems are organized on the same grid on the axis and rank. That is, all layers have two systems of axis organization, paradigmatic mode, network systems such as we met in grammar, and syntagmatic mode, structural configuration functions; and these system structure cycles are distributed according to the hierarchy of ranked units. Thus, we can interpret axis and rank as the general intralayer principles of the organization, which manifest themselves in different language environments in context: see Figure 25. Fig. 25: Axis and rank as principles of principles Organizationmanifested in various stratal subsystems of language in the context of 4.2 The search for systemic theory in the wider world Among modern grammar theories, system grammars can be located within a broadly defined class of functional grammars, which are usually characterized by certain orientations: it is oriented towards function rather than forming the rhetoric of the logical text of the proposal of the resource rules of meaning grammar in this general class, we have certain systems of specificity. (i) It is paradigmatic, accepting the system (theory of the possible and probable) as its basis rather than structure (composition theory). That is, the paradigm axis is a general organizing principle, not a syntagmatic axis. (ii) It is stratified, with layers linked by implementation (meta-energy, not time/cause) and extending beyond language in the context of situation and culture (e.g., through genre and ideology). (iii) It is comprehensive, varying in sensitivity and instantaneity, they are defined by reference to the general system of language. (iv) It is multifunctional, assigning equal value to interpersonal and textual, as well as ideological ways of meaning (both in semantic and lexigram layers); and those ways of meaning are both simultaneous in both the system and the structure. How does our grammar relate to language? Let's find a simple typology of systems (where the system, as always, means system-process): (1) physical systems (2) life biological systems (3) the value of social systems (4) means semiotic systems Language is a system of the fourth order, be researched (1) acoustically, (2) neuro-physiologically, (3) culturally, as well as (4) lexigrammatically (or rather (4) in terms of the basic layers of semantics, lexigram and phonology). The theory of any domain is also a semiotic system, one of the specialized: the part develops, the part is developed as a means of reflection and action. Language theory is thus dedicated to meta-semiotic. The prototype semiotic system is a natural language: human consciousness can be defined as the ability to average. At the same time, natural language is contextualized among other semiotic systems by everything we denote under culture: visual and other forms of art; Behavioural patterns, secular and religious; social institutions, ways of self-presentation, and so on. We can use our grammars to interpret these different non-linguistic semiotic systems, asking to what extent they are specific than natural language. In particular, to what extent does our understanding of the problematic relationship between the system and, for example, language relate to the semiotic system as a whole? And to what extent does language function as a connotative semiotic, through which other semiotic systems are represented (or implemented)? Language does not reflect or conform to some of the Reality. Language builds reality; or rather, we, as humans, build reality on the language. We do this through a metafunctional interaction of action and reflection: language both accepts interpersonal relationships and interprets human experience. Thus, the (talking) object, multifaceted personalities, hierarchies and power structures that we call society are created in the language. The ideologies of class, gender and the like are established and supported, and challenged through the meaning of the potential of language. People exchange goods and services, and exchange information: human history is a constant dialect of material and semiotic processes. (We can observe how this pattern is formed in the first few months of each person's life.) In the scientific, modern context, all systems were modeled in material terms, and physical systems were taken as prototypes. In the postmodern information society, we are increasingly using semiotic models, interpreting even physical systems in terms of exchange of meanings. Quantum physics in particular veered us in that direction. This puts grammar right in the center of the stage; not only as a theory of grammar, but also as a theory of knowledge, that is, all systems interpreted as systems of meaning. In this environment, grammar means using grammar for thought: its context of work is a theory that our understanding of language can be drawn to phenomena of any kind. Neither systemic theory nor any other theory of language has reached this level of achievement. We are still quite far from understanding even the basic properties of the semiotic system. At this stage, it is important to find grammar theories in the current intellectual context so that, as they continue to develop and improve, they will approach, rather than further from the transdisciplinary concerns of thoughtful people in general. Appendix 1: Glossary Category. Design or abstraction in system theory; Units, functions, classes, and so on are categories of grammar theory. it contrasts with the scale (cf. Halliday, 1961). Class. A systemic term for the term is a category in official grammar. It summarizes the traditional concept of word classes and thus applies to morphemes, groups, phrases and clauses, as well as words. The least delicate classes are sometimes referred to as primary classes, and the lower differences are the middle classes (cf. Halliday, 1961; 1963). Cohesion. Text lexigram resources to express relationships within text without creating a grammatical structure. Close-knit resources include background information, substitution/ellipse, connection and lexical cohesion. The term cohesion is also used in non-systemic literature, sometimes in direct reference to systemic work on cohesion (particularly Halliday and Hasan, 1976), sometimes more freely refer to text-ness text. (The term has different uses in Tagmemics; four cells in a four-cell tag.) Complex. Complex grammatical units of any rank or class, potentially linear

recursive; complexes include traditionally recognized categories of coordination (expanding complexes) and oppositions (complex development). Context. The context of culture; context of the situation. Semiotic systems of a higher order over the linguistic system. Context covers gender, tenor and mode. (In previous writings, context has been used for so-called semantics.) The term context is also widely used in non-systemic literature, sometimes in a systemic sense sometimes not. The frames, schemat and scenarios in cognitive psychology and AI are very similar to the types of situations and situations. The context of the situation and the context of culture come from Bronislaw Malinovsky, an anthropologist working in the first half of this century. Working on the ground in the Islands of Trobriand, he came to the recognition and argument of the importance of context in the interpretation of the text. His work on the context was further developed in the framework of linguistics, first by Firth and then by Holliday and others. Holliday and Hassan (1985); Martin (1992: Ch. 7). Delicacy. Scale from general to specific. In a system network, delicacy matches the order of systems from left to right using entry conditions. For example, the following MOOD systems increase the delicacy from left to right: Feature. The term label in the system; it can be semantic, lexic-grammatical or phonological. For example, there are two terms in the system: indicative and imperative. The characteristic is also widely used in non-systemic literature, where it does not entail systemization in the system. It is quite widely used in phonology and lexical semantics, but also (increasingly) in grammar, in particular, in the generalized grammar structure of phrases and lexical functional grammar. The term component is also used (as in component analysis). Functions. A general term in both system and non-systemic linguistics. In system linguistics, there are three terms for specific types of functions. Microfunctional function: functionally defined component; for example, Theme, Actor, Theme. Macro-function: the use of language in the early language of children before use and metafunction became differentiated. (iii) Metafunction: a generalized functional principle of linguistic organization. There are three metafunctions, ideational (empirical and logical), interpersonal and textual. (Note that in mathematics and formal semantics there is a special use of the term function: this function takes the argument and returns the meaning.) Grammar. The term has a traditional meaning in system theory. That is, it includes syntax as well as morphology, the two just having different domains on the grammatical rank scale. Grammar is considered to be the most common part of the lexicon, a resource for expressing meanings. Another part of the lexicon (dictionary). Grammar. The systemic term for grammatical theory is sometimes used to avoid the potential ambiguity between grammar in the sense of grammatical theory (as in Functional Grammar) and grammar as a studied phenomenon (as in Hopi grammar). Instantiation.Cline between the common system potential of language and text (example of potential). Lying along the instant intermediate cellin between these two endpoints are a variety of register and code. In a higher-level context system, the overall system potential is related to the context of culture, case types registers, and situation texts. The moment also refers to the process of moving between potential and instances, the process of updating the system in the text. Metafunction. The highly generalized language of functions has evolved to serve and which are evidenced in its organization (and thus inherent in language). Holliday (1967/8) identifies three metafunctions, ideas, interpersonal and textual. The idea of metafunction can be further differentiated in empirical and logical subtypes. Metafunctions differ from macrofunction and microfunction. Macrofunctions can be identified during the transition of a child between his protolange and adult language (cf. Halliday, 1975); microfunctions are the first functions/use of the baby's proto-lange. In other linguistic theories, ideaal grammar is often seen as part of semantics and is seen as a lexical rather than grammatical phenomenon; while textual and interpersonal grammar is usually referred to as a pragmatic title. In system theory, all three metafunctions are located at both the semantics and grammar levels: for example, transit is analyzed as a grammatical system, which is then interpreted in more explanatory terms at the semantics level. The metafunctions are summarized in the table below. Network. The relational type of organization; Schedule. Examples include discrimination networks, stratification theory networks and system networks. In system theory, the network is, in particular, a system network. In this sense, the network is an assembly of systems with the same point of origin (general state of entry), so that each system is associated with all others by some combination of simultaneous and dependency in delicacy. Rank (scale). Hierarchy of units such as reservation, group/phrase, word, morphema or tone of group, foot, syllable, phonemes. The rank scale reflects the main implementation models. Unit functions in one rank are implemented by units at a lower rank. For example, clause functions are implemented in groups/phrases, and group functions are implemented in words. The term level is sometimes used in non-systemic work. (The term rank was used in another context in the writings of Jespersen.) Rangshift. A situation where a unit of the same rank serves in the structure unit, as if it were a lower-ranking unit, as in the defining relative reservation, serving as a postmodifier in the structure of the nominal group. Implementation. The term in linguistics as a whole for the symbolic relationship between content and expression; Implementation and mutation were contrasted (Gr. Gleason, 1965) as the basic principles underlying grammatical theories. System grammar is realisation, while transformational grammar is mute. Implementation operator. Together with one or more operators, the implementation operator makes a statement of implementation. Implementation operators are Insert, Conflate, Expand, Order and Preselect. See the implementation statement. Application statement. The specification of a structure fragment, such as having a function or ordering it to another function, is stated as a reexpression of a system function or a combination of functions. The implementation statement consists of one implementation operator and one or more operas. For example, the operator (Conflate Subject Agent) consists of the conflation operator Conflate and operands Subject and Agent, which are grammatical functions. Layer. Subsystem of a certain order of symbolic abstraction in the language: semantics, lexicogram and phonology are three layers of systemic theory. Strata is linked through (inter-layer) implementation; for example, semantics is implemented through a lexicogram. The earlier term in systemic linguistics (taken from Firth) was at the level (as in Firth's analysis levels); because the level is used in other senses in non-systemic linguistics, the equivalent term layer was taken from stratifying linguistics. In relational grammar, the layer has a different use, more like a layer in the function structure. Structure. The function structure (or structure for brevity) consists of a configuration of grammatical functions such as actor, subject and subject. Each function can be implemented either by a set of grammatical functions or by a set of lexical functions. A set of grammatical functions is a pre-selection of functions that must be selected when re-importing grammar for further development of the function. For example, the Actor function may have a related pre-nominal group, which means that once the structure of the position in which the Actor is an integral part has been fully defined, the grammar returns and the actor develops as a nominal group. The structure of the term function is used inside and outside systemic linguistics. This always applies to function configuration, but some non-systemic theories may have only one functional layer. In system theory, the structure of functions contrasts with the syntagma (Halliday, 1966). In lexical Functional Grammar, there is a similar contrast between the function structure (f-structure) and the composite structure (c-structure). System. The system is category to represent a paradigmatic organization on any layer, phonological, phonological, or semantic. It consists of (i) a statement of choice between two or more terms presented by the functions (ii) and the entry condition that determines when the choice is available. The entry condition is a simple function or feature set; these features are terms in other systems. Because of the entry conditions, systems form systems networks. Each term in the system may have one or more statements about the implementation associated with it. (Implementation statements indicate fragments of structure; in their view, the system is similar to a metarule.) Example: Appendix 2: System Convention System Network (II) Implementation Statement Implementation Statement consists of an operator such as an insert or merger, and one or more operas, at least one of which is a grammatical function. The presence of functions in the structure: the presence of a function in the function structure is determined by inserting the function into the structure; The operation of the insert is symbolized by the 'k'; For example, Subject, Mood, etc. Functional relations between constituents: two functions can be linked by county and indicate this relationship between districts in the structure of functions, one function expands the other; The extension is symbolized by placing an expanding composite function in brackets, such as Mood (Subject), which means that the mood expands to have the subject as an integral function. The feature can be extended to more than one other function, such as Mood (Subject, of course). The relative order of functions and the order relative to the unit boundaries: two functions can be ordered in relation to each other in the function structure, and this relative order symbolizes the 'me'; for example, Theme - Ultimate, Mood and Balance. The order can also be relative to the left or right boundary of the grammatical unit (represented by q), for example. Merge one function with another: one function from one point of view is merged with the function from a different point of view, i.e. two functions are listed as different layers of the same component, they are identified with each other. The conflict is symbolized by '/'; for example, The Subject/Agent means that the Subject (interpersonal) and the Agent (idea) apply to the same component. Implementation of the function from the rank function point of view is lower: the implementation of the function in the function structure is indicated by pre-preparing one or more functions from the unit, implementing it; the pre-selection is symbolized by ':', for example, Theme: nominal group, Fintite and predicator: verbal group, etc. They are organized by four headlines: 1. Analysis of the discourse General report on English discourse from a lexicogrammatic and semantic point of view provided by Martin (1992). Hassan (1985) deals, in particular, with poetic and other literary ways of discourse. Holliday (1985) grammatical systems that are likely to be at the forefront of discourse of all varieties; Mann and Thompson (1992) includes a series of articles describing a specific text in terms of system and other functional theories. Appendix 1 in Halliday (1994) gives a paragraph on the point of analysis of the brief passage of spontaneous English speech. For analysis of informal speech, see Eggins and Slade (1997). 2. Lexicogram descriptions There are two general descriptions of English grammar in system-functional terms: Halliday (1994) presents grammar from a structural point of view, while Matthiessen (1995) presents it as a strata and system network. Butt, Fahey, Spinks and Yallop (1995), Martin, Mattissen and the artist (1997) and Thompson (1996) present grammar as a textbook. Examples of scores of specific parts of grammar are: (transit) Davidze (1992, 1996), Fawcett (1987); (on) Collins (1991), Fries (1995) and various newspapers in Gadesi (1996); (on the complex clause) Mattissen and Thompson (1988), Nesbitt and Plum (1988); (in intonation and grammar) Elmenufi (1988), Holliday (1967); (on a stressful basis) Mattissen (1996). A number of different topics are covered in Berry, Butler, Fawcett and Juan (1996). For grammatical descriptions of other languages within the system, see, among others: (Chinese) Fang, MacDonald and Cheng (1995), MacDonald (1994); (Finnish) Shore (1996); (French) Cafefarel (1992, 1995); German (Steiner and Ramm, in the press); (Goniandi) McGregor (1990); (Japanese) Hori (1995); (Pityanjatjara) Rose (1996); (Tagalog) Martin (1990, 1996). Johnston (1992) provides a meta-functional interpretation of Auslan grammar (Australian Sign Language of the Deaf). Halliday (1992) is a system syllable analysis in Chinese. Additional documents on aspects of Chinese grammar, mostly written in Chinese, will be found in Hu (1990) and Ju (1993). System methods have been deployed in a variety of applications, such as natural language processing, language education and the development of children's language. In the field of natural language processing, Mattissen and Bateman (1991) describe text generation studies in English and Japanese; Fawcett (1988) and Cross (1992) explore various aspects of the lexicogram in computational form. In the field of language education, the newspapers of Hassan and Martin (1989) provide representative coverage of central issues, while Holliday and Martin (1993) explore a grammar-based approach to the theory and practice of education. Christie and Martin (1997), which also includes extensive analysis of texts, explores genres as social processes. Hassan and Perrett (1994) offers a system angle in the second language of instruction and teaching. Systemic language development studies in early childhood include Halliday (1975), The Artist (1984, 1996; see also the artist's chapter in Hassan and Martin, 1989). To apply systemic theory in system other than language: (art, architecture and sculpture) O'Toole (1994), (music) Steiner (1988), (visual images) Cress and van Leeuwen (1996). 4. The theory for a more comprehensive treatment of the system theory pertaining to this account, see Halliday (1976, 1978) is a compilation of earlier theoretical works on language and its connection with social processes. Fawcett (1980) provides a detailed account of the organization of systemic grammar in a widely cognitive perspective. Various aspects of the theory are explored in various chapters of Davis and Ravelli (1992); Holliday and James (1993) explores a probabilistic approach to grammar based on quantitative data from a large-scale corps. Martin (1992) presents a system-functional report on grammar in relation to the semantics of discourse. The idea of the function of grammar as an experience theory is studied in Halliday and Matthiessen (coming). Hassan, Cloran and Butt (1996) includes both a discussion of systemic theory and theory based on descriptions of transitivity in different languages. Hu et al (1989) presents a comprehensive report on systemic functional theory written in Chinese. To discuss language in relation to general system theory, see Lemke (1993). Benson Bibliography, J., M. Cummings, W. Greaves (eds.), 1988. Linguistics in a systemic perspective. Amsterdam: Benjamins. Berry, M., C.S. Butler, R.P. Fawcett and Juan Goven 1996. Meaning and form: systemic functional interpretations. Norwood, N.J.: Ablex (Meaning and Choice in Language: Research for Michael Holliday). Butt, D., R. Fahey, S. Spinks and K. Yallop. The use of functional grammar: a guide to the researcher. Sydney: Macquarie University, NCELTR (National Centre for Teaching and English Studies). Kaffarel, A. 1992. 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