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A Study of Interpersonal Grammatical
Metaphors in Weekly Radio Speeches



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摘要

韩礼德认为系统功能语法为语篇分析提供了一个多层次、多功能的理论框架。作为此框架中的一个重要组成部分,人际语法隐喻的研究在语篇分析中有着重要作用,它能激发我们对文本的综合理解和分析。这种现象已引起了国内外一些学者的注意。然而,大多数学者对人际语法隐喻的研究都集中在探讨其隐喻的体现形式和分类上,很少有人把人际语法隐喻应用于语篇分析中,尤其是对一特定语篇的分析。人际语法隐喻并没有受到足够的重视。但是,我们也看到了少数学者(如范文芳,2000;常晨光,2001等)已经开始关注人际语法隐喻在语篇分析中的作用。也有一些中国的研究生(如余晓曼,2003;王爱会,2005;张志祥,2006;赵郁芳,2007等)开始了对特定语篇中人际语法隐喻功能的探讨。

鉴于人际语法隐喻在语篇分析中的重要作用,本研究旨在探究政治语篇中人际语法隐喻问题,主要分析美国总统奥巴马每周电台演讲中人际语法隐喻在帮助总统实现交际目的过程中的作用。本研究主要围绕以下两个问题展开:1.人际语法隐喻在每周电台演讲中出现的频率和分布情况;2.人际语法隐喻在演讲语篇中的作用。

本研究以 www.putclub.com 网站下载的美国总统奥巴马的30篇电台演讲为语料,语料选择从2009年1月24日到2009年8月22日止,共30篇。本文以韩礼德的人际语法隐喻模式为理论基础,采用定量分析和定性分析相结合的研究方法。通过定量分析,统计和比较了人际语法隐喻在语料中的频率和分布情况,试图回答第一个问题。通过定性分析,探讨了人际语法隐喻在帮助总统实现交际目的过程中的作用,试图回答第二个问题。

本研究主要有以下发现:1.在每周电台演讲中,演讲者巧妙地采用了大量语气隐喻和情态隐喻来实现他的交际目的;2.在语气隐喻方面,演讲者采用较多的let me...结构来代替阐述政策的陈述语气,从而树立其作为总统的权威;大量使用陈述语气来发布命令有利于缩短与听众的距离从而赢得他们的理解和支持;根据情况,用疑问语气来表达陈述,有助于隐蔽地传达观点或形成与听众之间的互动。此外,说话人也使用了少量的陈述语气来表达疑问,有利于建立与听众之间的良好关系。3.在情态隐喻方面,大量运用显性主观隐喻或强调演讲者的信念,或表达演讲者的不确定,有利于树立总统自信、负责、谨慎的良好形象;同时运用显性客观隐喻,演讲者可以掩饰情态的主观来源,从而为自己的个人判断推卸责任。

本文的研究进一步证实了系统功能语法能够为语篇分析提供一个多层次、多功能的理论框架的观点,有助于深刻理解人际语法隐喻在每周电台演讲中的运作。这些研究发现对英语教学也有一定作用,

有助于促进英语高级听说课的教学，提高英语学习者听、说、写的技能，从而有效培养他们英语交际的能力。

关键词：人际语法隐喻；语气隐喻；情态隐喻；每周电台演讲

Abstract

According to Halliday (1985), systemic functional grammar can provide a theoretical framework for discourse analysis due to its multi-level and multi-function properties. The study of interpersonal metaphors can trigger a comprehensive understanding and analysis of a text, which has attracted scholars' attention both at home and abroad. However, scant attention has been paid to the application of interpersonal grammatical metaphor to the study of political discourse. Most research seems to be concerned with the study of its classification and ways of judgment. The interpersonal grammatical metaphor has not received enough importance. However, some scholars are beginning to show their interest in researching interpersonal grammatical metaphors in discourse, such as Fan Wenfang (2000), Chang Chenguang (2001). Some graduate students are also beginning to investigate the functions of interpersonal grammatical metaphors in specific discourse.

Owing to the important roles interpersonal grammatical metaphors play in discourse, it seems to be of great value to probe into political discourse in terms of this aspect. The present study is an attempt to analyze American president Obama's weekly radio speeches, and provide English learners with deeper insights into interpersonal grammatical metaphors and their functions in helping the President realize communicative purposes. Two research questions are formulated in this thesis: 1. the occurrence and frequency of interpersonal grammatical metaphors in Obama's weekly radio speeches; 2. the functions of interpersonal grammatical metaphors in the political discourse.

The study is carried out on the basis of Halliday's model of interpersonal grammatical metaphor. Thirty samples are downloaded from *www.putclub.com*, dated from January 24, 2009, to August 22, 2009. Through quantitative analysis, the occurrence and frequency of the interpersonal metaphors in this corpus are counted and compared. Moreover, through qualitative analysis, the author probes into the application of interpersonal grammatical metaphors by examining their functions in helping the President achieve his communicative goals.

The major findings are summarized as follows: First, through quantitative analysis, it is found that the speaker in weekly radio speeches achieves his communicative purposes by

tactically adopting a great number of metaphors of mood or metaphors of modality. Second, a lot of statements clarifying the policies are realized by the "let me" structure of imperative mood to show the speaker's authoritativeness as a president. Metaphors of mood issuing commands with declarative mood are also widely used to shorten the distance between the President and the audience so as to gain their understanding and support. Some statements realized by interrogative mood are adopted to convey the speaker's implications or form an atmosphere of intercommunication, depending on the situation. In addition, there are few questions realized by declarative mood to show the speaker's respect to the audience with the final goal of establishing a cooperative relationship with the audience and getting their support. Third, in weekly radio speeches, a large number of explicit subjective metaphors of modality are adopted to emphasize the speaker's strong belief so as to present the President's good image of being confident and being willing to take responsibility. By contrast, explicit objective metaphors of modality and nominalization are adopted to disguise the source of the modality so that the speaker can shirk the responsibility of his personal judgment. At the same time, the speaker uses many explicit subjective metaphors of modality to express his uncertainty in an attempt to show his caution and carefulness.

These findings bear significant pedagogical implications. The author proposes that this study enables us to have a better understanding of how interpersonal metaphors work in weekly radio speeches; additionally, it will facilitate the teaching of advanced listening and speaking and improving non-native English learners' listening, speaking and writing so that they can develop their communicative competence more effectively.

Key words: interpersonal grammatical metaphor; metaphor of mood; metaphor of modality; weekly radio speech

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Chapter One Introduction

1.1 Research background

It was the great ancient Greece thinker, Aristotle, who begun the study of metaphors as early as more than two thousand years ago. Since then, many other scholars from different academic fields have approached metaphors from different perspectives and put forward a series of important theories. Most of these are concerned with metaphorical expressions at the lexical level of language, but seldom the grammatical level. Later, some researchers such as Richards(1965), Max Black(1979), Lakoff & Johnson(1980) studied metaphors from the cognitive perspective. However, not until the 1980s, did the study of grammatical metaphor really begin to arouse the great interest of researchers. The seminal article about grammatical metaphor was written by Alford entitled *The Grammatical Metaphor: A Survey of Its Use in the Middle Ages* in 1982.

However, the real beginning of the conscious study of grammatical metaphors in the sense of our present research began with Halliday, because he was the first linguist who formally declared the existence and importance of grammatical metaphors. Represented by Halliday (1985, 1994), Revelli (1998), Martin (1992), Mathiessen(1995) and Thompson(1996) were among the most important researchers to introduce and carry on a continuous study of grammatical metaphors.

According to Halliday, systemic functional grammar can provide a theoretical framework for discourse analysis due to its properties of multi-level and multi-function. The study of interpersonal metaphors can trigger our comprehensive understanding and analysis of a text. However, few of them employed the interpersonal grammatical metaphor in discourse analysis. Most scholars have paid more attention to the study of its classification and ways of judgment instead of the study of the interpersonal grammatical metaphors in discourse, especially, in a specific discourse. The interpersonal grammatical metaphors have not had enough

importance attached to them.

Political speeches have attracted increasingly more attention from many scholars. However, few studies were based on systematic investigation of linguistic data; few studies dealt with the grammatical metaphors in the political speeches, and the combination of interpersonal grammatical metaphor and the President's weekly radio speeches has not been addressed.

In fact, the President's weekly radio speeches have been very important tools to help the President to build and maintain his good personal public image. In the speeches, the President will clarify political policies, state his political opinions, anticipate their future, or make grand promises so that he can bridge differences, arouse the morale of the public and persuade people to accept and support his policies. In order to realize these purposes, the President will employ a variety of language skills. One important strategy is to exploit the interpersonal grammatical metaphors to facilitate his communicative purposes and make the speeches more effective.

1.2 Research questions

In this thesis, I will undertake practical research on the application of interpersonal grammatical metaphors in Obama's weekly radio speeches downloaded from *www.putclub.com*, dated from January 24, 2009, to August 22, 2009. Through quantitative analysis, I will attempt to explore the differences in application of metaphors of mood and metaphors of modality. Comparisons are made in the frequency of these two kinds of interpersonal grammatical metaphors. Moreover, through qualitative analysis, I will probe into the application of interpersonal grammatical metaphors by examining their functions in helping the President achieve his communicative goals. Both of the research results are expected to shed light on theoretical study and pedagogical practice.

The research questions to be addressed in the research are as follows:

1. What are the occurrence and frequency of interpersonal grammatical metaphors

in Obama's weekly radio speeches?

2. What are the functions of interpersonal grammatical metaphors in the discourse?

1.3 Organization of the thesis

This thesis falls into six chapters.

Chapter One presents an overview of the research background against which the present research is made, followed by a brief introduction to the study carried out in this thesis.

Chapter Two is a literature review, which covers the previous and present studies on grammatical metaphor at home and abroad as well as the theoretical framework of the interpersonal grammatical metaphor. Characteristic features of the related public speaking and weekly radio speeches are also examined and discussed.

Chapter Three outlines the research methodology of the study. The collection of data and the method of analysis are described in detail.

Chapter Four and Five are the main parts of this thesis. Chapter Four discusses the identification of interpersonal grammatical metaphors. Chapter Five deals with the results of the study, followed by a discussion based on the data analysis of Obama's weekly radio speeches.

Finally, in Chapter Six, the major findings of the study are summarized. After this summary, pedagogical implications and the limitations as well as areas for further research are proposed.

Chapter Two Literature Review

This chapter attempts to scrutinize the former studies of grammatical metaphor and political speeches, concluding that the grammatical metaphor is widely used and plays an important role in discourse, and political speeches have been extremely popular for discourse analysis and are attracting increasingly more attention from linguists. In addition to a critical review of the previous literature on these topics, I also put forward the theoretical framework for the analysis of how interpersonal metaphors realize their functions in political speech discourse.

2.1 Grammatical metaphor

2.1.1 Halliday's grammatical metaphor

Most people agree that the real beginning of the conscious study of grammatical metaphor began with Halliday, because he was actually the first linguist who formally declared the existence and importance of grammatical metaphors. He first brought forward the concept of grammatical metaphor by making an analogy between the rhetorical transference in lexis and in grammar in his book *An Introduction to Functional Grammar* in 1985, and this clearly indicated the establishment of the theory of grammatical metaphor.

Halliday (1985) expressed his ideas about the nature, function and classification of grammatical metaphors. Then, he continued to state that "Many metaphors can be located in lexical expressions, but even with these there is often grammatical variation accompanying them" (Halliday, 1985.p.341).

Before Halliday, linguists regarded metaphors as something occurring at the lexical level. However, now we can conclude that as a kind of variation, a metaphor not only emerges at the lexical level, but also at the grammatical level. He insisted

that “we are looking at metaphor not ‘from below’, as variation in the meaning of a given expression, but ‘from above’, as variation in the expression of a given meaning; the concept of ‘literal’ is therefore not very appropriate, and we shall refer to the less metaphorical variant as ‘congruent’”(Halliday, 1985.p.342). This indicates that a lexical metaphor involves the usage of the same word, while a grammatical metaphor involves the expression of the same meaning. The following figure 1 showed by Halliday (1985.p.342) illustrates the contrast between the two perspectives.

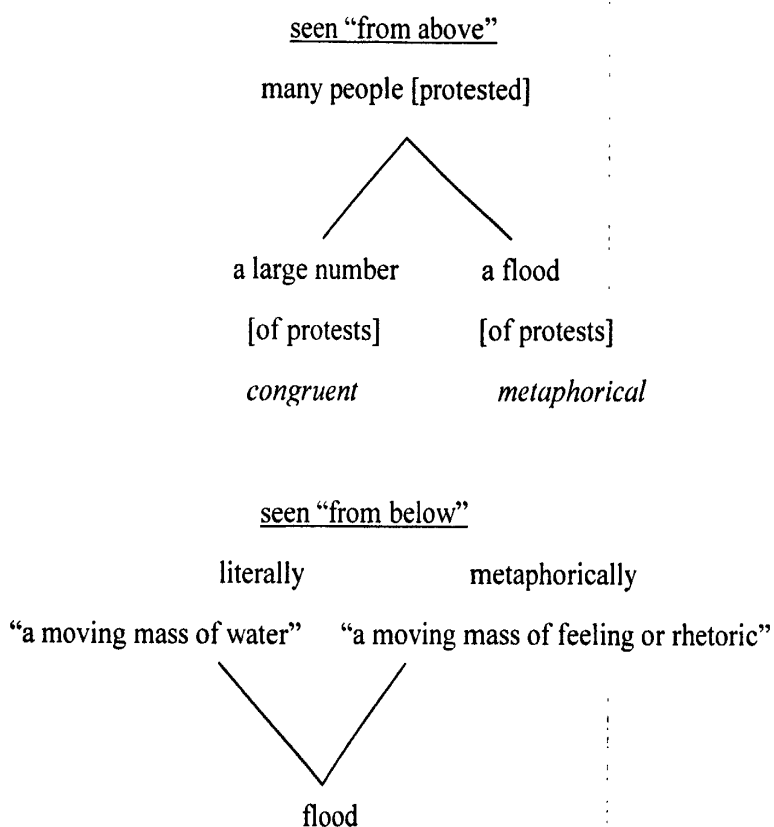


Figure 1 Two perspectives on metaphor

In order to clarify the term “grammatical metaphor” clearly, Halliday (1994) also brought in the concept of congruence, as the opposite of incongruence or metaphorical expression, used to refer to the nominal expression of the real world.

This term was further explained by Halliday’s views about the stratification of language system. According to his opinion, language is a multi-level system composed of semantics, lexicogrammar and phonology. The relationship between the

levels is that of realization. Therefore, language as a multiply-coded system could be described in the following figure 2 (Halliday, 1994.p.344).

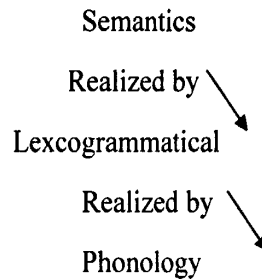


Figure 2 Language as a multiply-coded system

Theoretically speaking, the process of realization concerns free variations, i.e. one meaning can be expressed by several different forms at the lexicogrammatical level, and one form can express several different meanings.

Based on this, Halliday put forward two types of realization relationship between grammar and semantics, respectively named “congruent” and “incongruent”. Congruent realization just means the natural relation between semantics categories and grammatical categories. On the other hand, incongruent realization refers to the unnatural relation between semantics and grammatical categories. In fact, Halliday’s study on grammatical categories is that of incongruent realization. However, he also admitted that “there is no clear line to be drawn between what is congruent and what is incongruent” (Halliday, 1985.p.327). He preferred to use the term “grammatical metaphor” instead of “incongruent”. In this thesis, I will also adopt his preference.

According to Halliday, language is a resource for making meaning and it serves three grammatically relevant language functions, namely the ideational, the interpersonal and the textual function, together termed as metafunctions. However, he identified two types of grammatical metaphors, “metaphors of mood (including modality) and metaphors of transitivity. In the terms of the model of semantic functions, these are respectively, interpersonal metaphors and ideational metaphors” (Halliday, 1994.p.343).

Now that Halliday has brought forth the concept of grammatical metaphor without

reference to any theoretical source and origin, he could neither give an explicit definition of grammatical metaphor nor make a clear distinction between congruent and incongruent. This implicit explanation of the two concepts can be regarded as a serious defect of the grammatical metaphor theory and leaves latitude for further study.

2.1.2 Studies on grammatical metaphor

Halliday's idea of grammatical metaphor actually opens up a new realm of metaphor study; however, the theory proposed by him is still imperfect and has its own limitations. Subsequently, many other foreign systemic-functionalists have engaged in this topic and made great contributions to it.

Ravelli was one of Halliday's earliest followers, and she described grammatical metaphor as "two different grammatical categories may realize largely the same thing." (Ravelli, 1985.p.5). In her opinion, grammatical metaphor can happen to different grammatical categories. But in her later studies, she narrowly defined grammatical metaphor as "an alternative lexical realization in the semantics" (Ravelli, 1988.p134-135). Ravelli's idea of grammatical metaphor is actually similar with Halliday's and is only a different expression of the same thing. So it is still too general to be used to define grammatical metaphor in depth.

Martin also made a distinction between congruent and incongruent realizations. He stated that if the relation between semantic and grammatical categories is natural, then it's a congruent relationship (Martin, 1991.p.328). He also claimed that "every meaning has more than one form of realization, either congruently or incongruently. The grammatical metaphor is the process by which the meanings are multiply-coded at the level of grammar" (Martin, 1991.p.329). Even if his theory is important, he mainly put emphasis on the different relationships between semantic and grammatical words classes. Another of Martin's attempts was to add the term textual metaphor, and he wrote a detailed discussion about ideational, interpersonal and textual metaphors.

Despite Martin's great contribution to Halliday's original model, his theorization about textual metaphor was not convincing enough and never gained much recognition even among the systemic functional linguists (Yan Shiqing, 2000.p.47), so there is still latitude for further research.

Matthiessen (1992) studied grammatical metaphor from the perspective of textual metafunction. He researched the motivation of using grammatical metaphors rather than giving a definition. This suggested that Matthiessen has not realized that textual metafunction was merely one of the multi-motivations offered by ideational metaphors.

Thompson tried to distinguish congruent from incongruent. In his opinion, the term congruent can be interpreted as "closer to the state of affairs in the external world" (Thompson, 1996.p.164). He also thought that grammatical metaphor is an expression of a meaning through a lexico-grammatical form, and it is originally employed to express a different meaning (Thompson, 2000.p.165). Similar to Martin, Thompson admitted the existence and significance of the textual metaphor, which was not mentioned by Halliday.

Goatly seemed to diverge significantly from Halliday and other linguists. He held that grammatical metaphor can be thought as easily one form of markedness (Goatly, 1997. p.237). His interpretation broadens our horizon on the grammatical metaphor; however, it presents a problem. It is true that there is a definite relationship between the unmarked and the congruent mentioned by Halliday. However, even there is a relationship between markedness and metaphor; we still can not say that markedness is metaphor (Fan Wenfang, 2000.p.27). In fact, the phenomenon of grammatical metaphor is far more complicated than markedness.

Influenced by metaphor study abroad, some Chinese scholars have also attempted a tentative study. They not only introduced some influential books abroad and the latest theories of metaphor study in western countries, but also began to challenge foreign linguists in their own insightful views.

Hu Zhuanglin (1996) pointed out that the fashion of employing grammatical metaphors and lexical metaphors reached its peak in the Middle Ages and one can

find such traces in various areas of human endeavor, such as religion, politics, literature and philosophy. Hu (1996) also made a comprehensive summary of some American functionalists' studies on grammatical metaphors. In addition, he put forward that Halliday did not give a clear definition of incongruence and congruence form (Hu Zhuanglin, 2000). Hu Zhuanglin held different views in respect to grammatical metaphors, he believed that if a word class changed in the clause, and then a grammatical metaphor took place (Hu Zhuanglin, 2004.p.192). His views enable us to have a better understanding of grammatical metaphors.

Zhu Yongsheng(2000)further argued that the biggest flaw in Halliday's theorization lay in the distinction between congruent and incongruent forms, which lacked explicitness and had no fixed or applicable criteria. However, Yan Shiqing (2000) compromised a little and pointed out that there was little sense in searching for a fixed criterion for reference since metaphoricalness was only a matter of degree. Yan stated that the difference between lexical metaphor and grammatical metaphor was more a matter of perspective than essence, and that they were complementary to each other (Yan Shiqing, 2000.p.188).

Among many Chinese linguists, Fan Wenfang was the first and the only one so far who made the most systemic and comprehensive research into grammatical metaphors. She (2001) made a great contribution to grammatical theory by exhaustive discussion of ideational and interpersonal metaphors, additionally, suggested a third kind of metaphor, textual metaphor. In addition, Fan Wenfang stated that the connection between semantic and grammatical structures is natural; in contrast, incongruent realization is unnatural. She continued to explain that grammatical word structure would not merely be limited to grammatical word; it also refers to clauses (Fan Wenfang, 2001.p.30). Fan Wenfang (2001) not only elaborated her own ideas of grammatical metaphors, but also reviewed the studies done by other linguists. Finally, she proposed her own tentative definition, and thought that "grammatical metaphor is an incongruent realization of meanings; it involves transference of grammatical units from one domain to another, or from a basic domain to a subdomain, or from one subdomain to another subdomain" (2001.p.33).

From the discussion above, we can conclude that researchers both in China and abroad have tried to explain the phenomenon of grammatical metaphor from different perspectives. Although they all accepted the division of “congruent” and “metaphorical”, except for Goatly, they could neither come to an agreement on the criteria for distinguishing these two realizations nor gave a convincing explanation about the definition and types of grammatical metaphors. Therefore, grammatical theory still needs some clarifications.

2.2 Interpersonal grammatical metaphor

2.2.1 Halliday's model of interpersonal grammatical metaphor

A metaphor is described by systemic functionalists from the point of view of how the meaning is expressed. In Halliday's (1985; 1994) opinion, a metaphor was the variation in the expression of meaning, which was located in the lexicogrammatical level, as well as in lexical level. Functional linguists thought that form is the realizations of meaning, while meaning comes from the combination of form and function. It is consistent with Huang Guowen's (1999) statement that “a meaning can be realized by more than one form, while a form can express more than one meaning”. The one-to-one relationship between form and meaning does not really exist. This phenomenon fully occurs in the expression of interpersonal meaning.

According to Halliday (1994), an interpersonal grammatical metaphor was further divided into metaphor of mood and metaphor of modality. A linguistic realization that is grammatically metaphorical, or we can call metaphor of mood, results from the remapping between mood and speech function. For example, a statement is congruently employed to provide information, but on some special occasions, it is hoped to issue an order by the speaker. There's an example provided to account for this point: *It is the library.*

Suppose it would be a better place for study if some students stop talking loudly

or making a telephone call, then this sentence, declarative in mood, is actually a command among speech functions. The congruent form would be: *Please stop talking / making a telephone call.*

Halliday has always roughly described metaphor of modality as “the explicitly subjective and explicitly objective form of modality”, and in his opinion, they are metaphorical, because they represent the modality which is the real proposition” (Halliday, 1985.p.340). We can simply use an example to illustrate it: *It's likely that Susan knows.*

This example is a typical case of the explicitly objective form of modality (the implicit form might be ‘Susan will know’), and its metaphoricalness can be shown by a tag-test, for instance, we can not tag with “isn't it”: *It's likely that Susan knows, isn't it?* but “doesn't she”: *It's likely that Susan knows, doesn't she?* That mean we can not consider “It's likely” as a proposition (even though it is made to appear to be by its grammatical form) while a metaphor of modality.

In the following sections we will concentrate on the metaphor of mood and metaphor of modality--- the incongruent realizations of mood and modality.

2.2.2 Metaphor of mood

Lemke indicated that “Mood is the system for typical exchange of commodities between speaker and listener” (Lemke, 1992.p.84). According to Halliday, there are two variables in the communication, and they are speech role and commodity exchange. In any communication, giving (and taking) or demanding (and being given) a commodity of some kind are the most basically two types of speech role. The commodity being giving or demanding is information or goods-&-services(Halliday, 1994.p.68). Four primary speech functions (offer, command, statement, and question) are determined by the two variables of speech role and commodity. Three of them are closely related to specific grammatical structures: statements giving information are most naturally realized by declarative clause; questions aiming to get response by

interrogative clause; and commands demanding goods-&-services by imperative clause. They are the three major types in mood system. However, an offer giving goods-&-services can be realized by different moods. The typical realizations of speech functions in mood types can be shown as the following table 1(adapted from Fang Wenfang's table, 2000.p.29).

Table 1 Typical realization of speech functions in mood types

speech function mood	statement	question	command	offer
declarative	You have never been there.			
interrogative		What's your idea of the picture?		Can I help you?
imperative			Hand in your exercise book.	Let me help you.

From the table, we can see that a one-to-one relation between speech functions and mood types really exists except for offer. However, it is not certain that the speaker will use congruent form to realize speech function in real communication. That means there is no simple one-to-one relation between grammatical type and semantic in real situation. For instance, an interrogative mood can be realized by a question, and the declarative and imperative mood can also be used to realize a question:

- (1) What's your idea of this picture? (interrogative)
- (2) I wonder what your idea of this picture is. (declarative)
- (3) Tell me what your idea of this picture is! (imperative)

Here, not only (3), but also (1) and (2) are the congruent realization of the interrogative mood. While both (1) and (2) are metaphorical form. The different choice is usually decided by the culture or the context. That is to say one speech role may be realized by various moods. Actually, it involves the transference from one domain to another. This is called metaphor of mood. Now, we choose an imperative mood to realize a command:

(4) Hand in your exercise book.

However, we can also choose the declarative or interrogative mood to realize the command:

(5) You should hand in you exercise book.

(6) Could you hand in your exercise book?

Here the metaphorical realization of a command concerns the transference from the imperative subdomain of mood to the declarative subdomain and the interrogative subdomain.

According to this, we can expand the realizations of speech functions in mood types. We can have a clear understanding from the table (adapted from Fang Wenfang's table, 2000.p.30) below.

Table 2 Typical and metaphorical realizations of speech functions in mood types

speech function mood	statement	question	command
declarative	You have never been there.	I wonder what your idea of this picture is?	You should hand in your exercise book.

interrogative	Have you ever been there?	What's your idea of the picture?	Could you hand in your exercise book?
imperative	Admit that you have never been there!	Tell me what your idea of this picture is!	Hand in your exercise book.

2.2.3 Metaphor of modality

Eggs (1994.p.179) stated that modality means how a language user can impose on his/her information, expressing all kinds of opinions and attitudes. Therefore, modality means not only the speaker's attitude towards, or opinion about a proposition, but also the speaker's attitude towards the situation or event, all expressed by a clause.

Halliday (1994.p.357) clearly indicated that "ORIENTATION" is basically used to distinguish the subjective and objective modality, or the explicit and implicit variants." This system can be shown by the following figure.

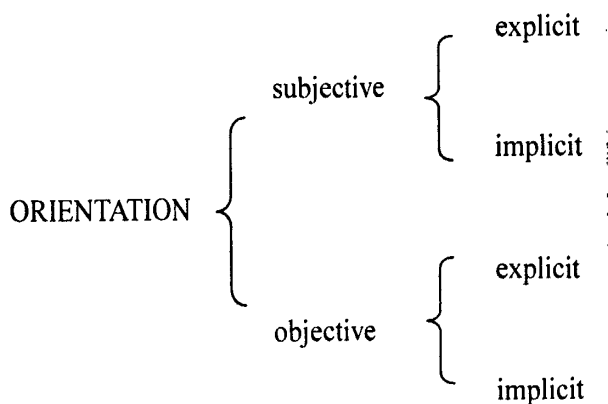


Figure 3 System of orientation in modality (Halliday, 1994.p.358)

According to Halliday (1985), modality can be divided into two main types according to their relation to two kinds of clause, and these two types are modalization and modulation. The clause is named proposition when it is used to exchange information, or proposal when it is used to exchange goods&services. Furthermore, it is regarded as modalization when modality is used to argue about the probability or frequency of propositions, or modulation when modality is used to argue about obligation or inclination of proposals. This system can be shown as figure 4.

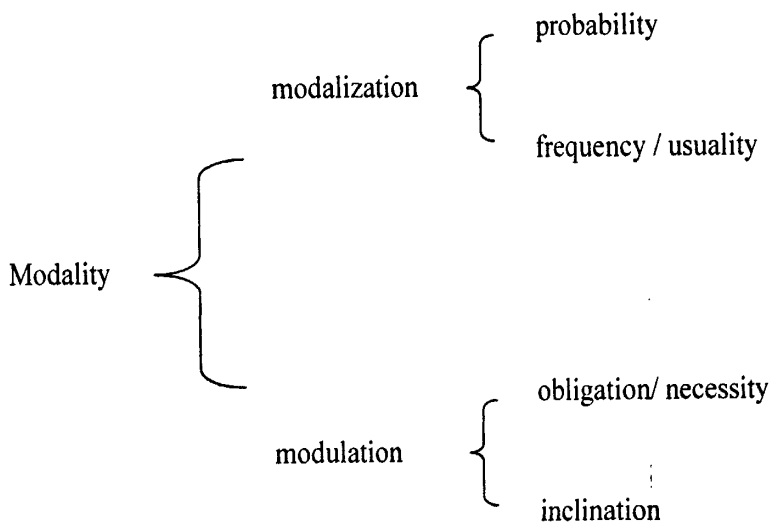


Figure 4 System of types of modality (Halliday, 1994.p.357)

Combining figure 3 with figure 4, we may get the following table 3.

Table 3 Modality: examples of “type” and orientation combined

	Subjective: explicit	Subjective: implicit	Objective: implicit	Objective: explicit
Modalization: probability	I think Susan knows.	Susan'll know.	Susan probably knows	It's likely that Susan knows
Modalization:		Tom'll sit	Tom	It's usual

usuality		quite quiet.	usually sits quite quiet.	for Tom to sit quite quiet.
Modulation: obligation	I want Mike to go	Mike should go	Mike's supposed to go.	It's expected that Mike goes
Modulation: inclination		Mike will help.	Mike's keen to help.	

(Adapted from Halliday's, 1994.p.358)

Halliday (1994.p.362) pointed out that “explicitly subjective and explicitly objective forms of modality are all metaphorical, because they all represent the modality as being the real proposition”. Therefore, modality expressed explicitly is the metaphorical realization of modality. In other words, congruent realizations express modality implicitly while metaphorical realizations express modality explicitly. For example:

- (7) a. I think Susan knows, doesn't she? (probability)
 b. Susan probably knows. (doesn't she?) (the congruent form)
 c. I think Susan knows, don't I?
 d. Mike thinks Susan knows, doesn't he?

In “*I think Susan knows, doesn't she?*”, “I think” is a typical explicitly subjective form of modality. It is obviously different from “Mike thinks Susan knows, doesn't he?” Here the speaker's opinion about the probability is posed as a separate, projecting clause in a hypotactic clause complex, while not its congruent realization, as a modal element within the clause.

The examples in table 3 reveal that the clauses in explicitly subjective type are all expressions of mental processes, and they emphasize the subjectivity of the speaker's judgment. While the projecting clause in explicitly objective type, as the realization of a part in relational process clause, is posed as a proposition with some attribute, thus highlighting the objectivity of the speaker's opinion or assertion.

There is another aspect that should be put forward. Halliday (1994.p.352) stated that "Nominalizing is the most forceful device for forming grammatical metaphor. By this device, processes and properties are reworded metaphorically as nouns; rather than functioning as Process or Attribute in the clause; they work as Thing in the nominal group". This means that explicitly objective orientation can also be realized by nominalizing modal meaning. The nouns, such as possibility, probability, likelihood, certainty, unusualness, regularity, typicality, etc are often used to express probability and usability. By these nouns, the source of modality is concealed by means of constructing the modal meaning as a "thing" (Chang Chengguang, 2001.p.7-8). For example:

(8) There's a possibility that it's going to snow tomorrow morning.

Similarly, obligation and inclination can also possess explicitly objective orientation by being constructed as a "thing". Nouns such as intention, desire, determination, need, obligation, regulation, compulsion, etc are all in the list.

(9) There's no need for you to wear uniform except Monday.

In addition, Thompson (1996.p.67) stated that the metaphorical realizations of evaluation should be included in interpersonal grammatical metaphor. For instance:

(10) I'm afraid you've failed in the English exam.

(11) It's amazing how much courage it will take a grown-up to subject himself to such stress and shame.

The introductory clause may serve as a means of both evaluating the information in the clause and expressing modal meaning objectively.

2.2.4 Application of interpersonal grammatical metaphor

Language enables people to interact with each other, to establish and maintain relationship with each other, to influence their behavior, to express views on the world, and to enlighten or change them. This is the interpersonal function of language. In other words, people use language to participate in communicative acts, to take on

roles, and to express and understand feelings, attitude and judgments(Thomas Bloor & Meriel Bloor, 1995.p.9).

As the most significant means of performing interpersonal function, interpersonal metaphor deserves the researchers' attention. Luckily, it has attracted some scholars' attention both in China and abroad. They introduced and carried on a continuous study of interpersonal grammatical metaphor. However, few of them employed the interpersonal grammatical metaphor for discourse analysis. Most scholars have paid more attention to the study of its classification and ways of judgment instead of the study of interpersonal grammatical metaphor in discourse, especially, in a specific discourse. Interpersonal grammatical metaphor has not had enough importance attached to its study. However, some scholars are beginning to show their interest in researching interpersonal grammatical metaphor in discourse. Fan Wenfang (2000) pointed out that metaphors of mood are advanced use of language and contribute a lot to the construction of text. Chang Chenguang(2001) talked about the possible relationship between interpersonal grammatical metaphor and discourse analysis. He mentioned that some real modal sources can be concealed in order to achieve certain effect and the study of interpersonal grammatical metaphor can improve the delicacy of language and help people get a good understanding in linguistic communication.

What's more, the study of interpersonal grammatical metaphors in discourse is gradually gaining popularity among some young Chinese graduate students. They have made some attempts to investigate the functions of interpersonal grammatical metaphors in specific discourse. Yu Xiaoman (2003) gave an interpretation of interpersonal grammatical metaphors in English editorial genre, but her interpretation is not detailed enough. Wang Aihui (2005) explored the realizations and their corresponding functions of interpersonal grammatical metaphors in American presidential inaugural addresses. However, her analysis of the functions of interpersonal grammatical metaphors is still not sufficient. Zhao Yufang (2007) made a study of interpersonal grammatical metaphors in English academic book review; regrettably, she failed to identify the metaphors of mood in book review,

therefore, failed to analyze its corresponding functions. Zhang Zhixiang (2006) made a study of interpersonal grammatical metaphors in political debates from a functional perspective, and his identification of interpersonal metaphors and analysis of their corresponding functions are sound and exhaustive. In fact, Zhang's works has benefited me a lot and facilitated the completion of my thesis. Although there are studies about the interpersonal metaphors in political speeches such as American presidential inaugural addresses and political debates, the linguistic study of weekly radio speeches mainly focused on the analysis from the perspective of interpersonal grammatical metaphors has not been addressed. As a sub-category of political speeches, the weekly radio speeches should have importance attached to.

2.3 Political speaking

2.3.1 Definitions and features of public speaking

Before we observe the political speaking in detail, we'll first look at the definitions and features of public speaking. Lucas defined that "Public speaking, actually the same thing as speech and address, refers to a public speaker delivering a continuous speech in the presence of a large audience about his systemic suggestions and propositions in spoken language with the help of facial expressions, sign and body gestures and strong emotions, for the purposes to move, to inspire, to encourage, to persuade the audience or event to teach them something" (1986.p.7). Wilson (1994.p.37) proposed that public speaking is usually regarded as a unified strategy aimed at realizing its specific intention, informative, persuasive, or others, to the extent that it is clear, interesting, credible and appropriate for the audience within a given time limit. We can trace public speaking back to ancient Greece and Roman times in western countries. Mainly, it was adopted for argument to make a decision of the policy. Later, it went into the fields of political argument, scientific discussion, encouragement to the younger generation, reasoning, convincing, deep emotion

expression, and enthusiastic praise of a person or stern rebuke to some one, etc, naturally, becoming a form of democratic system. It has brought the social, cultural, and political values of people together. It is an important force in our cultural life. The public speakers are changing our society.

Lucas (1989) identified some features to distinguish this situation from others.

First, public speaking is well organized. Its context, message, and channels are all well designed to form a single entity. For example, speakers may be required to limit their words to about fifteen minutes; a public speaker must structure his words much more carefully than he does in a causal talk or group communication in order to hold the audience's attention.

Second, public speaking is supposed to carry more carefully drawn arguments and evidence than conversation. People will not believe a claim without supporting evidence. Therefore, in the case of language usage, delivery, and in the use of evidence and argument, public speaking should be more formal than conversation. As listeners, they expect some more formal standards of grammar and usage in a public speaking situation while not for casual talk. Speakers should pay more attention to cases of style and grammar.

Some other scholars also put forward their opinions about the features of public speaking. Wood (1998) claimed that the speaker and the appropriateness to situation are the basic factors for an effective public speech, which depend on not only the content but also the linguistic means. Anderson (1988.p.261) pointed out that "In public speaking, the interaction between the speaker and the hearer is not as direct as that in the conversation. But the interaction in speeches is potential and should be maintained through the whole course; otherwise, it will fail to attract the hearer's attention." What's more, the language of the public speaking should be as polished as the language of the written essay but conversational in tone and direct in reference (Devito, 1984.p.291).

2.3.2 Features of political speaking

Based on contents and functions, English public speaking can be classified into political, economic, academic, religious, legal, moral, military speeches and so on. Here we mainly talk about political speeches. They refer to those delivered by authorities with political purposes to influence a specific group of people. According to this definition, we can easily get the main features of political speeches. One is the multiple aims, and the other is the power, with which enforcing the aims upon the listeners. The political speeches should at least fulfill three functions: 1) to present the sound and correct political proposition; 2) to arouse the listeners and make them brood on their speeches; 3) to persuade them to accept their opinions and take actions. Therefore, the political public speaking is more strictly and solemnly required. A famous speaker has ever said: "the public speech has a structure of thesis, truth of news item, language of fiction, passion in a poem, material of a prose, and the humor of a comic dialogue." This vividly shows the strict requirements of public speeches. In short, a political public speaker will certainly employ the means of informing, moving, persuading and inspiring audience to take actions if he wants to realize their goals.

The study of political speeches is very popular and necessary, from which we can appreciate how the authorities try to achieve his goals by making full use of multi-leveled linguistic resources and also appreciate the rhetorical function of different linguistic devices. It proves that the study of political speeches is meaningful and practical, and a lot of linguists have devoted their whole life to the study of various speeches. In the second half of the 20th century, scholars made great efforts in the analysis of political speeches.

First, in the 1980s, some British scholars set foot in pragmatics, and the theory of speech acts, implicit meaning of various types (Sperber and Wilson, 1981), politeness theory (Brown and Levinson, 1978) were especially famous. Later, transformational-generative grammar also influenced political speech vigorously. Some linguists such as Fowler and Kress described certain syntactic forms with political pragmatic implications (Feldman and Landtsheer, 1998).

Chilton and Schaffner (1997) gave a literature review on political discourse. They summarized three kinds of political discourse analysis in broad meaning, namely, French approach, German approach, and Anglophone approach, based on the consideration of historical specificities of particular countries and cultures. In the same article, they held that all levels and aspects of language should be considered when dealing with linguistic analysis of political discourse---pragmatics (interaction between speakers and hearers), semantics (meaning, structure of lexicon), and syntax (the internal organization of sentence). Azuma (2000) brought forth this kind of research by concentrating on the speeches given by Japanese in terms of power and solidarity.

Feldman and Landtsheer (1998) edited a collection of essays named *Political Speaking* on political discourse. However, these essays mainly concern analytical tools. Their main contribution is that their way to study the political speeches is broad and scientific. Beard (2000) clarified his analysis of political speeches from verbal and non-verbal, as well as the micro-level (a word) to a macro-level (the whole speech) in his book *The Language of Politics*.

We can also find the stylistic approach to the study of political speeches, however, much work on traditional stylistics is on the basis of structuralism approach (Sandig & Selting, 1997.p.143), and its focus is the classification of stylistic features on three level: lexical, syntactical , and textual .

However, among all the approaches, the functional approach is the most important. Although the leading figure, Halliday, himself did not make any research on political speeches or political discourse with Systemic Functional Grammar, his theory is insightful and influential. SFG emphasizes that language is a resource for making meaning and it has three meta-functions: ideational, interpersonal and textual function. The interpersonal function refers to that language is adopted to establish and maintain social relations. The speaker can realize his interaction with others through this function (Haliday, 1994).

2.3.3 Features of weekly radio speech

People deliver speeches through different media in different places or settings, such as on TV, radio and so on. Speakers would choose proper words, manners and especially proper behavior and mood, right for the situation, during the speeches. However, radio speeches differ from present speeches mainly on two sides. First, it's likely that the audience would neglect what they are listening when doing their routines. Therefore, an attractive radio speech may attract their attention from their jobs. Second, the audience can not see the speaker's facial or behavioral expressions. So, the sound effect is far more important at this time.

The most famous President's weekly radio speeches were Roosevelt's fireside chats during the Great Depression between the 1930's to 40's. But, it did not become a convention for every week until Reagan's presidency. The first true weekly radio address happened on April 3rd, 1982, in which, Reagan said he hoped to spend some minutes talking about the problems that the country was facing and the corresponding solutions. He also said it's impossible for him to finish all the talks in five minutes, so he would appear on the radio at the same time for each Saturday, and he hoped his audience could keep on listening.

Taking the social factors and settings into account, a radio speech is mainly composed of sound, lecture and identity of speaker. This thesis concerns about the text of political lecture on radio, a combination of linguistic features quite different from present political speeches. Therefore, Obama's weekly radio speeches can be defined as:

Domain: politics

Motives: principle clarification, confidence mobilization under world financial crisis

Settings or media: radio

Expectant listeners: All Americans

Identity of Speaker: president of America

Presidential speeches are the most influential weapons for the President to relate to the public. They enable the President to discuss issues with the public instantaneously and without interruption. During crises, presidential speeches may be especially important in influencing public opinion and arousing their confidence.

Obama's weekly radio speech starts from his inauguration and is delivered on every Saturday morning. At first glance, his aims are to summarize the government's main work during the previous week, anticipate important topics for discussion of next week, clarify the main national policies, celebrate important annual days and so on. However, there are other hidden aims such as motivating American citizens' confidence in combating against financial crisis, presenting himself a good image of a responsible president and maintaining people's continuous support. Therefore, there are always both explicit and implicit aims in political speeches, because politicians will not give up any chance to enforce their attitudes upon the audience. For this reason, the speaker must take the influence of his words on his audience into consideration. He should presuppose what kinds of questions, comments, or opposing argument the listeners may put forward at some points, and plan to address these points during the speech.

2.3.4 Relationships between interpersonal grammatical metaphor and weekly radio speech

Political speeches have drawn increasingly more attention from many scholars. However, the studies were hardly based on systematic investigation of linguistic data; few studies dealt with the grammatical metaphors in the political speeches, and the combination of interpersonal grammatical metaphors and the President's weekly radio speeches has not been addressed. From a functional approach, the thesis attempts to analyze weekly radio speeches based on the elaborated framework of Halliday's model of interpersonal grammatical metaphor and illustrate how interpersonal functions in weekly radio speeches are realized through metaphors of mood and

metaphors of modality. In fact, the President's weekly radio speeches have been very important tools to help the President to build and maintain his good personal public image. For Presidents in the United States, it has been a tradition to give a radio speech since April 3rd 1982 from Regan government. The President's weekly radio speech is an extremely important part of his work and attracts great attention from the nation. In the speech, the president will clarify the political policies, state his political opinions, anticipate their future, or make his grand promises so that he can bridge differences, arouse the morale of the public and persuade people to accept and support his policies. It is even said that the President is judged by what he said over what he did. In order to realize these purposes, the President will employ all kinds of language skills. One strategy is to exploit the interpersonal grammatical metaphors to realize his communicative purposes and make the speech more effective. As President's weekly radio speeches are important both as historical documents and literary masterpieces, the study of interpersonal grammatical metaphor of Obama's weekly radio speeches will definitely add new spice to the legacy of political speeches.

Chapter Three Research Methodology

3.1 Objectives

Halliday(1994.p.342) claimed that “metaphorical expressions are characteristics of all adult discourse. There are a lot of variations among different registers in the degree and kind of metaphor; and none will be found completely without it.” In his opinion, any text of more than minimal length certainly involves some metaphorical elements that need taking into consideration. In 1985, Halliday only proposed some of the functions realized by grammatical metaphors in spoken and written language. In his later studies, he applied his theory to the analysis of scientific texts. However, grammatical metaphors also exist sufficiently in news discourses and political essays, besides in scientific texts. Namely, the existence of different grammatical metaphors in various discourses is a distinctive generic feature.

This thesis will apply Halliday’s systemic functional grammar to the study of interpersonal grammatical metaphors in Obama’s weekly radio speeches so as to answer the following two questions:

1. What are the occurrence and frequency of interpersonal grammatical metaphors in Obama’s weekly radio speeches?
2. What are the functions of interpersonal grammatical metaphors in the discourse?

3.2 Data collection

To get a convincing and persuasive result, the data collection is very important. In this research, the data used to be analyzed were downloaded from *www.putclub.com*, Barack Obama’s weekly radio speeches from January 24, 2009, to August 22, 2009. These thirty speeches are a corpus for my study. They are chosen

from Obama's first weekly radio speech after his inauguration to the beginning of this thesis.

3.3 Methods of analysis

In this thesis, I adopt a quantitative and qualitative discourse analysis method to analyze the data. By quantitative approach, the occurrence and frequency of the interpersonal metaphors in the corpus will be counted and compared. Qualitative approach is adopted for those linguistic features which are difficult to be digitized. Moreover, due to the insufficient explanation of statistical numbers of the interpersonal grammatical metaphors, many specific examples are used to illustrate their functions in Obama's weekly radio speeches.

Chapter Four Interpersonal Grammatical Metaphors in Weekly Radio Speech

Since our final goal is to investigate the functions of interpersonal grammatical metaphors in Obama's weekly radio speeches, the first thing we should do is to identify the corresponding interpersonal grammatical metaphors.

4.1 Identification of metaphor of mood

We can identify metaphor of mood in two ways. One is through desired response to speech functions and the other is through evidence from the context. Now I will deal with them respectively.

4.1.1 Through desired response to speech function

As discussed in chapter two, there are four basic speech roles and four primary corresponding speech functions. Generally speaking, they are matched by desired responses, however, there is always mismatch between speech roles and speech functions due to the listeners' free choices, and this mismatch was called *the discretionary alternative* by Halliday (2000.p.69). We can see the following table 4.

Table 4 Speech functions and responses (Halliday, 2000.p.69)

	initiation	expected response	discretionary alternative
give goods-&-services	offer	acceptance	rejection
demand goods-&-services	command	undertaking	refusal
give information	statement	acknowledgement	contradiction
demand information	question	answer	disclaimer

This table is helpful for us to judge a metaphorical form and to understand its intended meaning. For instance, an interrogative mood may express a question, but a declarative clause may also express a question (a 'queclarative'). We can explore the differences between choosing a queclarative and interrogative in a certain context on the basis of the meanings related with the declarative and interrogative structure in general. Similarly, in reality, an interrogative may not clearly be required to give a response, but its response-demanding function does exist and explains part of the reason for the speaker's choice of an interrogative instead of a declarative. The reason is to achieve his/her intended meaning. For example:

(12) When President Roosevelt was working to create Social Security, opponents warned it would open the door to "federal snooping" and force Americans to wear dog tags. When President Kennedy and President Johnson were working to create Medicare, opponents warned of "socialized medicine." **Sound familiar?** [Congruently: These things sound familiar.]

-----Obama's weekly radio speech, Aug.15, 2009

It seems that Obama is looking forward to an answer from the audience by asking a question. Congruently, the audience should give a response as the answer. In fact, however, it's not Obama's real meaning. By variant of mood, Obama's real intention is successfully implied: these are the opponents' tricks; he takes a negative and sarcastic attitude towards the opponents' warnings.

From the example above, we may conclude that the speaker will employ grammatical metaphors to express himself when he doesn't really want a response from the audience in asking a question. It is the speaker's strategy to achieve his goals with metaphorical form.

4.1. 2 Through evidence from the context

Halliday claimed that "all use of language has a context" (1985.p.45). Context includes both the context of situation and the context of culture. According to Halliday's definition, the context of situation is "the immediate environment in which

a text is actually functioning" (1978.p.28). This notion can be used to explain the reason for saying or writing certain things on some particular occasion. However, the context of situation is merely the immediate environment. The context of culture offers a broader background for the interpretation of the text. People do certain things on certain particular occasions and attach certain intentions and values to them: this is what the culture means.

Although I have no plan to investigate the problem of what the broader contextual factors are and how they decide meanings in a systemic way, I'd like to mention some of these factors, because it is useful in analyzing the texts. We can use the concepts of register and genre in functional grammar to explain these factors. Defined by Halliday (Halliday & Hasan, 1985.p.41) register refers to "Variation according to use". This means that some certain recognizable configurations of linguistic resources are typically used in certain contexts. Register consists of three main dimensions of variation: field, tenor, and mode. Field refers to what is being talked about, tenor refers to the people involved in the communication and the relationship between them and the mode refers to how the language is functioning in the interaction. These three dimensions are distinct and each of them corresponds to one of the metafunctions: the field mainly determines the experiential functions; the tenor mainly determines the interpersonal functions; and the mode mainly determines the textual functions. Thompson (2000.p.36) held that "Genre, in very simple terms, can be seen as register plus purpose". It gave a more general idea of what the interactants are doing through language and how they organize the language event so as to achieve their purposes.

Generally regarded as a sub-genre within political speeches, weekly radio speeches sever several communicative purposes. The speaker as well as the audience has a common understanding of the functions of this genre. As a linguistic strategy, interpersonal grammatical metaphor plays a very important role in achieving its communicative purposes in a weekly radio speech. For example:

(13) But earlier generations of Americans didn't build this great country by fearing the future and shrinking our dreams. **This generation – our generation - has to show that same courage and determination.** I believe we will.

-----Obama's weekly radio speech, Jul.11, 2009

It is a special period when the Obama government comes into office, facing the most severe economic downturn since the Great Depression. His Recovery Act encounters a lot of oppositions and suspicions from his opponents. He takes the earlier generations for an example to illustrate the hardship, importance and necessity of insisting on this reform, and encourage the Americans to hold their confidence to recover their economy. Therefore, when Obama says **This generation – our generation - has to show that same courage and determination**, he is not offering the information---eliciting statement but actually is demanding an action. With the help of the context, the audience knows this statement is not a declarative but an imperative. This is a typical example of interpersonal grammatical metaphor.

4.2 Identification of metaphor of modality

Similarly, the metaphor of modality can be identified in two ways. One is through clause, and the other is through nominalization. I will deal with them respectively in this following section.

4.2.1 Through clause

There is a type of interpersonal metaphor commonly based on the semantic relationship of projection. For example, *it probably is so* is a congruent form regarding the probability, and its metaphorical variant is *I think it is so*, with *I think* here as the primary or 'alpha' clause (Halliday, 2000.p.354). In this example, the speaker's opinion about the probability is not considered as a modal element within the clause, but as a separate projecting clause in a hypotactic clause complex. It is

considered as a metaphorical variant because the proposition is not *I think*, but *it is so*. It can be clearly shown by the tag: *I think it is so, isn't it?* We can find such similar examples in Obama's weekly radio speeches.

(14) And if we can come together, and listen to one another; **I believe**, as I always have, that we will rise to this moment, we will build something better for our children, and we will secure America's future in this new century.

-----Obama's weekly radio speech, Aug.15, 2009

(15) Now I know there are those who are urging us to delay reform. And **some of them have actually admitted** that this is a tactic designed to stop any reform at all.

-----Obama's weekly radio speech, Jul.25, 2009

(16) But **I also don't think** insurance companies should have free reign to do as they please.

-----Obama's weekly radio speech, Jul.18, 2009

(17) We are called to remember **how unlikely it was** that our American experiment would succeed at all

-----Obama's weekly radio speech, Jul.4, 2009

In the above examples, the speaker's opinions are expressed metaphorically in a projecting clause, such as **I believe**, **some of them have actually admitted**, **I also don't think**, or **how unlikely it was**, while not with modal elements. But, these projecting clauses do not express the propositions in the sentences. The propositions are respectively *we will rise to this moment...* in (14), *this is a tactic designed...* in (15), *insurance companies should...* in (16), and *our American experiment...* in (17). It can be shown by the tag:

(18) *I believe, as I always have, that we will rise to this moment, won't we?*

(19) *And some of them have actually admitted that this is a tactic designed to stop any reform at all, isn't it?*

(20) *But I also don't think insurance companies should have free reign to do as they please, should they?*

(21) *We are called to remember how unlikely it was that our American experiment would succeed at all, was it?*

Therefore, these examples are all metaphorical realizations of modality.

4.2.2 Through nominalization

Metaphor of modality can not only be realized through a complex clause, but also through the form of nominalization. In this part, I will deal with the metaphor of modality realized through a nominalization.

As discussed in 2.2.2, nominalization that could be adopted to express modality includes: possibility, probability, likelihood, certainty, unusualness, regularity, typicality, intention, desire, determination, need, obligation, regulation, compulsion, etc. Through nominalization, modality is interpreted as an unquestionable *fact* and its objectivity could be expressed explicitly.

The use of nominalization may not only disguise the source of modality, but also make it difficult to query. Its most important function in interpersonal grammatical metaphor is to objectify opinion, especially in persuasive text in order to make it more difficult for the audience to disagree.

According to this opinion, we can easily identify the metaphors of modality in Obama's weekly radio speeches through a nominalization. For example:

(22) That's why fixing what's wrong with our health care system is no longer a luxury we hope to achieve – it's a **necessity** we cannot postpone any longer. (Nominalization)

-----Obama's weekly radio speech, Jun.6, 2009

(23) **There is no longer a doubt** that the jobs and industries of tomorrow will involve harnessing renewable sources of energy. (Nominalization)

-----Obama's weekly radio speech, Mar.21, 2009

Chapter Five Results and Discussion

In this chapter, I will probe into the realizations of interpersonal grammatical metaphors in Obama's weekly radio speeches in the order of the research questions proposed in chapter three through quantitative and qualitative analysis. Section one investigates the occurrences and frequencies of interpersonal grammatical metaphors in weekly radio speeches. Section two analyzes the functions of the most frequently used metaphors of mood and metaphors of modality in weekly radio speeches.

5.1 Occurrences and frequencies of interpersonal grammatical metaphors

In this section, I will give a quantitative analysis of the data in an attempt to present the existence evidence of interpersonal grammatical metaphor, and to indicate its occurrences in weekly radio speeches. Despite the limitation of statistical analysis due to its emphasis on surface features and the lack of sufficient information about the way in which communicative purposes are achieved in weekly radio speeches, it is still of great necessity to carry out this research so as to observe interpersonal grammatical metaphors comprehensively. Although the following statistical analysis is a very simple one, it does provide necessary evidence to show the existence proof in weekly radio speeches. After a detailed study of the 30 weekly radio speeches, interpersonal metaphors in each sample are identified and listed as the following table shows:

Table 5 The occurrences of interpersonal GM in 30 weekly radio speeches

date	metaphor of mood	metaphor of modality	interpersonal metaphor
Jan.24,2009	0	2	3

Jan.31,2009	1	1	2
Feb.7,2009	1	0	1
Feb.14,2009	0	0	0
Feb.21,2009	0	1	1
Feb.28,2009	0	5	5
Mar.7,2009	0	4	4
Mar.14,2009	0	3	3
Mar.21,2009	3	4	7
Mar.28,2009	0	1	1
Apr.4,2009	0	3	3
Apr.11,2009	3	0	3
Apr.18,2009	3	1	4
Apr.25,2009	2	1	3
May.2,2009	0	3	3
May.9,2009	1	3	4
May.16,2009	0	7	7
May.23,2009	0	2	2
May.29,2009	0	4	4
Jun.6,2009	0	6	6
Jun.13,2009	2	4	6
Jun.20,2009	0	3	3
Jun.26,2009	3	3	6
Jul.4,2009	1	4	5
Jul.11,2009	3	10	13
Jul.18,2009	3	7	10
Jul.25,2009	0	3	3
Aug.8,2009	3	3	6
Aug.15,2009	3	5	8
Aug.22,2009	5	4	9

Table 5 shows us the existence proof of interpersonal grammatical metaphors in weekly radio speeches. However, it is not sufficient enough to illustrate how often it occurs in each sample. Therefore, it is necessary to carry out an investigation of its frequency to identify interpersonal grammatical metaphor as a typical generic feature of the weekly radio speeches.

Frequency (f) is used to show how often a phenomenon takes place based on counting the number of occurrences. Wen Qiufang (2001.p.210) claimed that the description of frequency distribution is the simplest way to organize the data, which can induce and summarize data effectively and efficiently. Although the frequency of interpersonal metaphors can not manage to explain how communicative purposes are achieved in weekly radio speeches, it indicates how often the interpersonal metaphor happens, and offers necessary evidence for us to prove that it ought to be regarded as lexico-grammatical features of weekly radio speeches.

To undertake the statistical analysis successfully, the first problem that we need to settle is to define and identify a sentence. *Oxford Advanced Learner's English-Chinese Dictionary* (1998) provided us a good way. According to its definition, a sentence is "the largest grammatical unit consists of phrases and (or) clauses, used to express to a statement, question, command, etc." That means that a sentence usually expresses a complete thought or opinion and ends with a full stop, a question mark or an exclamation mark.

After counting the total number of sentences in each weekly radio speech, we can easily get the frequency of each sample. Table 6 shows the occurrences as well as the frequencies of interpersonal metaphors in each weekly radio speech.

Table 6 The frequencies of interpersonal GM in 30 weekly radio speeches

date	total of sentence	metaphor of mood (f_1)	metaphor of modality (f_2)	interpersonal metaphors (f_3)
Jan.24,2009	33	0 (0)	2 (0.061)	2 (0.061)
Jan.31,2009	41	1 (0.024)	1 (0.024)	2 (0.048)

Feb.7,2009	32	1 (0.031)	0 (0)	1 (0.031)
Feb.14,2009	38	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
Feb.21,2009	32	0 (0)	1 (0.031)	1 (0.031)
Feb.28,2009	31	0 (0)	5 (0.161)	5 (0.161)
Mar.7,2009	34	0 (0)	4 (0.118)	4 (0.118)
Mar.14,2009	36	0 (0)	3 (0.083)	3 (0.083)
Mar.21,2009	37	3 (0.081)	4 (0.108)	7 (0.189)
Mar.28,2009	42	0 (0)	1 (0.024)	1 (0.024)
Apr.4,2009	32	0 (0)	3 (0.094)	3 (0.094)
Apr.11,2009	30	3 (0.100)	0 (0)	3 (0.100)
Apr.18,2009	39	3 (0.077)	1 (0.026)	4 (0.103)
Apr.25,2009	42	2 (0.048)	1 (0.024)	3 (0.072)
May.2,2009	29	0 (0)	3 (0.103)	3 (0.103)
May.9,2009	36	1 (0.028)	3 (0.083)	4 (0.111)
May.16,2009	31	0 (0)	7 (0.226)	7(0.226)
May.23,2009	31	0 (0)	2 (0.065)	2 (0.065)
May.29,2009	38	0 (0)	4 (0.105)	4(0.105)
Jun.6,2009	36	0 (0)	6 (0.167)	6(0.167)
Jun.13,2009	36	2 (0.056)	4 (0.111)	6 (0.167)
Jun.20,2009	39	0 (0)	3 (0.077)	3 (0.077)
Jun.26,2009	44	3 (0.068)	3 (0.068)	6 (0.136)
Jul.4,2009	42	1 (0.024)	4 (0.095)	5 (0.119)
Jul.11,2009	62	3 (0.048)	10 (0.161)	13 (0.209)
Jul.18,2009	45	3 (0.067)	7 (0.156)	10 (0.223)
Jul.25,2009	41	0 (0)	3 (0.073)	3 (0.073)
Aug.8,2009	51	3 (0.059)	3 (0.059)	6 (0.118)
Aug.15,2009	47	3 (0.064)	5 (0.106)	8 (0.170)
Aug.22,2009	57	5 (0.088)	4 (0.070)	9 (0.158)
total	1164	37	97	134

\bar{f}		0.032	0.083	(0.115)
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f_1 is got by calculating the total number of sentences in each speech, then divided by the number of metaphors of mood. f_2 and f_3 are obtained by the same method. The mean value \bar{f} is figured out by calculating the total number of sentences for 30 weekly radio speeches and divided by the total number of interpersonal metaphors. Therefore, \bar{f} will not be influenced by the length or duration of the speech. Comparing \bar{f}_1 with \bar{f}_2 , we may conclude that the occurrences of metaphors of modality are more frequent than that of metaphors of mood. Among all the figures, \bar{f}_3 is the most meaningful one, which presents how often it occurs on the average. Statistical analysis of frequency of interpersonal metaphors in weekly radio speeches is meaningful and useful, which provides necessary empirical evidence to prove that interpersonal metaphors widely exist in weekly radio speeches.

5.2 Functions of interpersonal metaphors

Moving from a surface-level description of language use to a deep functional exploration of interpersonal grammatical metaphor, this chapter mainly aims at two results. One is to offer linguistic insights into the functions performed by interpersonal metaphors and explain the reasons for the president's choice of interpersonal metaphors to express his opinions. The other is to show the relationship between form and function relating to communicative purposes of weekly radio speeches.

5.2.1 Functions of metaphors of mood

In political speeches including the President's weekly radio speeches, the

interplay of the two speech roles is in its prominence. The speaker may *give* comments on the present situation or his new policies, and at the same time, *demand* the listeners' understanding and action. It is obvious that the speaker's final goal in political speeches, especially in President's weekly radio speeches, is *demanding*, as for *giving* is only a preparation. To achieve this final goal, the speaker will certainly exploit various moods.

5.2.1.1 To show authoritativeness

According to Partridge (1982.p.21-22), there are three kinds of commands: the 1st personal commands, the 2nd personal commands and the 3rd personal commands. The 1st personal command begins with the structure *let me* or *let us* in the plural form. In Obama's weekly radio speeches, the *let me* structure is in the prominence. It is used 9 times. When he wants to explain something, he usually adopts the structure *let me...*, that is, an imperative mood expressing a simple statement. In other words, the declarative meaning is metaphorically realized through the imperative structure *let me....*. This kind of structure will make the speaker's explanation sound more authoritative. For example:

(24) And **let me** repeat— it would be just an option; those who prefer their private insurer would be under no obligation to shift to a public plan.

-----Obama's weekly radio speech, Aug.22, 2009

(25) So, **let me** explain what reform will mean for you. And let me start by dispelling the outlandish rumors that reform will promote euthanasia, cut Medicaid, or bring about a government takeover of health care.

-----Obama's weekly radio speech, Aug.8, 2009

(26) So **let me** be clear; I have been firm in insisting that both health care reform and clean energy legislation cannot add to our deficit.

-----Obama's weekly radio speech, Jul.11, 2009

(27) So **let me** be clear: health care reform is not part of the problem when it comes to our

fiscal future, it is a fundamental part of the solution.

-----Obama's weekly radio speech, Jun.13, 2009

The four examples are all concerned about the health care reform, which is one of Obama's main promises before his election, and one of his main plans after his inauguration, also part of his Recovery Act. As a newly-elected President, what's more, the first black President in American history, Obama is still unconfident about his status of being a President in a country with deep racial discrimination. Here Obama adopts this structure so as to attract the audience's attention and emphasize the importance of his following words: Health care reform is not only beneficial to people, but also helpful to the country and its economy, but they have rights to make their choices about their health care plan. In fact, Obama is afraid that his policies will bring about the skepticism from the public and fail to be carried out smoothly, therefore, he states his opinions with the *let me* structure instead of the common declarative mood in order to highlight his great power and high social position as a President. Through this kind of metaphor of mood, Obama succeeds in making his opinions prominent and at the same time, showing his authoritativeness as a newly-selected President.

5.2.1.2 To shorten distance

Generally speaking, imperative mood is related with strong power and high social status. High officials tend to use imperative mood to issue commands. However, as a newly-elected President, on one side, Obama wants to show his authoritativeness, on the other side, he is also scared of the audience's antipathy because of his excessive use of imperative mood. Therefore, he expresses most of his commands metaphorically by declarative mood rather than imperative mood in an attempt to shorten the distance between him and his listeners. Here are some examples:

(28) But what has always distinguished America is that when all the arguments have been heard, and all the concerns have been voiced, and the time comes to do what must be done, we rise

above our differences, grasp each others' hands, and march forward as one nation and one people, some of us Democrats, some of us Republicans, all of us Americans. **This is our chance to march forward.**

-----Obama's weekly radio speech, Aug.22, 2009

(29) Americans whose jobs and health care are secure today just don't know if they'll be next to join the 14,000 who lose their health insurance every single day. And **if we don't act**, average family premiums will keep rising to more than \$22,000 within a decade.

-----Obama's weekly radio speech, Aug.15, 2009

(30) It won't be easy, and there will continue to be those who argue that we have to put off hard decisions that we have already deferred for far too long. But earlier generations of Americans didn't build this great country by fearing the future and shrinking our dreams. **This generation – our generation - has to show that same courage and determination.**

-----Obama's weekly radio speech, Aug.15, 2009

From these given examples, we can see that Obama uses **This is our chance to march forward, if we don't act, This generation – our generation - has to show that same courage and determination** these structures, the declarative mood to express his commands upon the listeners. On the surface, Obama seems to express his own opinions as some statements, but in fact, he wants to ask his people to get united and get involved in the health care reform so they can benefit a lot from the participation of the reform in example (28). He gives people a command by a declarative mood, making his command sound very reasonable and people should agree what he said. In example (29), Obama raises his concern that more people are possible to lose their health insurance under the present situation of economic crisis. He puts forward his command as a hypothesis by a declarative mood in attempt to arouse people's real awareness of the seriousness of the problem. Thus, the public will be glad to accept his implicit command. The third example cited above shows Obama's request of people's courage and determination. He hopes that people can learn from the former generations to build their country without any fear and fluctuation. He uses declarative mood to give his command and therefore makes his command implicit.

In one word, Obama exploits declarative mood to shorten the distance between him and his audience so as to persuade the listeners to accept his commands. Through this kind of metaphor of mood, the relationship between Obama and the audience becomes more intimate and his intention will be achieved more easily.

5.2.1.3 To convey implications

Thompson (1996.p.16) gives “implication” a definition like this: “the implication is that the same experience or reality will require a different way of structuring.” As far as the nature of implication is concerned, statement realized through interrogative may be the best way to convey implications. By using this substitute, many implications, such as making people think, developing an argument, even involving speaker’s attitude and so on can be expressed. For example:

(31) So when folks with a stake in the status quo keep inventing these boogymen in an effort to scare people, it’s disappointing, but it’s not surprising. We’ve seen it before. When President Roosevelt was working to create Social Security, opponents warned it would open the door to “federal snooping” and force Americans to wear dog tags. When President Kennedy and President Johnson were working to create Medicare, opponents warned of “socialized medicine.” **Sound familiar?** Not only were those fears never realized, but more importantly, those programs have saved the lives of tens of millions of seniors, the disabled, and the disadvantaged. [Congruently: It sounds familiar.]

-----Obama’s weekly radio speech, Aug. 15, 2009

The question in this example aims to make people think about the speaker’s viewpoint, not actually expecting an overt answer. At the same time, his attitude is involved. Just like the explanation from Thompson (1996.p.68), “an interrogative in written text may clearly not be expected to give rise to a response in reality, but its response-demanding function remains and is part of the reason why the writer has chosen an interrogative rather than a declarative at that point.” Therefore, Obama

adopts interrogative mood to convey his implication while not expect an answer. As a matter of fact, the answer speaks for itself.

Except for what we have discussed above, some questions can also put more force or pressure on the listeners for them to accept the speaker's argument through conveying a sense of immediacy between the speaker and the listeners. For example:

(32) That starts with the painstaking work of examining every program, every entitlement, every dollar of government spending and asking ourselves: **Is this program really essential? Are taxpayers getting their money's worth? Can we accomplish our goals more efficiently or effectively some other way?** [Congruently: This program is really essential. Taxpayers are getting their money's worth. We can accomplish our goals more efficiently or effectively some other way.]

-----Obama's weekly radio speech, Apr. 18, 2009

In these examples, Obama places more pressure on the listeners and makes them strongly believe the truth of his argument by metaphorically realizing his statement with interrogative mood.

5.2.1.4 To express politeness

Usually, a question will be expressed by an interrogative, but a declarative clause may be intended as a question. This is also one kind of metaphors of mood. In Obama's weekly radio speeches, it is found that the speaker sometimes replaces interrogative mood with declarative mood for the sake of expressing euphemism and politeness. For example:

(33) This is the status quo. This is the system we have today. This is what the debate in Congress is all about: **Whether we'll keep talking and tinkering and letting this problem fester as more families and businesses go under, and more Americans lose their coverage. Or whether we'll seize this opportunity – one we might not have again for generations – and finally pass health insurance reform this year, in 2009.**

-----Obama's weekly radio speech, Jul. 18, 2009

(34) I am confident that the United States of America will weather this economic storm. But once we clear away the wreckage, **the real question is what we will build in its place.** Even as we rescue this economy from a full blown crisis, I have insisted that we must rebuild it better than before.

-----Obama's weekly radio speech, Jul.11, 2009

According to Halliday (1994.p.68), the most fundamental types of speech roles are just two: giving and demanding. The speaker is either giving something to the listener or demanding something of the listener. The act of speaking can be properly named an exchange. The commodity used to be exchanged can be either goods-&-services or information. These two variables determine four primary speech functions of *statement, question, offer and command*, which in turn may express different meanings such as being polite, arousing interest and so on. As we know, metaphors of mood can effectively increase the speech functional potential at semantic level. In example (33), Obama uses **Whether we'll keep talking and tinkering and letting this problem...Or whether we'll seize this opportunity...**instead of *Will we keep talking and tinkering and letting this problem ... Or will we seize this opportunity...*to express his polite request: *Stop talking and tinkering and letting this problem... Seize this opportunity...*Similarly, in example (34), Obama uses **the real question is what we will build in its place** instead of directly asking *What will we build in its place?* to express his euphemism and politeness, at the same time show his respect to his listeners.

5.2.1.5 To form atmosphere of intercommunication

We have discussed that a declarative clause might be intended or interpreted as a question, called a "queclarative", in weekly radio speeches. Although it's true that a statement is the least likely to be realized metaphorically by the interrogative mood, it is still unavoidable for some speakers to use the interrogative mood to express a statement. Through the observation on the samples, we can find a small quantity of

declaratives. Some researchers (Kertzer, 1987; Devito, 1990) treated this kind of question as rhetorical questions. Brown (1982,p.53) gave rhetorical question a definition as “questions understood as indirect assertions, which are usually expressed by grammatical form.” Generally speaking, a rhetorical question serves the incongruent function of making a declarative statement.

Fisher (1987. p.57) claimed that “rhetorical questions serve as persuasive devices that operate mentally on receivers so that the receivers adopt the predetermined view of the speaker.” In weekly radio speeches, a statement realized in declarative mood is usually used to express the speaker’s opinion and attitude, but occasionally the interrogative mood will be employed by the speaker to realize some of the statements in order to reinforce the persuasive force or achieve some special effects. For example:

(35)And there is no longer a question about whether the jobs and industries of the 21st century will be centered around clean, renewable energy. **The question is, which country will create these jobs and these industries?** I want that answer to be the United States of America.

-----Obama’s weekly radio speech, Jun.26, 2009

When the listeners hear this question, they will have a feeling that they are having a dialogue with the speaker, as if they are having a face-to-face talk with the speaker. For example, the question in example (35) **The question is, which country will create these jobs and these industries?** The listeners originally thought that Obama is asking them to answer this question. However, it’s not really this case. When they listen on, they find that Obama himself provides the answer for this question by speaking *I want that answer to be the United States of America*. It seems that Obama and his listeners are taking their own different turns, However, Obama asks a question and then he himself takes the turn of the role given to the listeners and answers the question, actually, Obama plays both of the roles of the speaker and listeners. This effect is achieved by using rhetorical questions, namely, a statement metaphorically realized in the interrogative mood instead of their congruent realization in the declarative mood. It makes the radio speeches sound more natural and vivid as if the speaker is having a dialogue with the listeners. Especially confined

to its limitation of specific media of radio, it is quite helpful for the speaker to attract the listeners' attention from their work.

5.2.2 Functions of metaphors of modality

As a linguistic strategy, metaphor of modality contributes a lot to help the President to realize his interpersonal meaning in a weekly radio speech. Subjectivity and objectivity are the two most significant features that modal expressions have. The more the speaker believes his own judgment, the more he commits himself to subjectivity. Contrarily, the more he depends on the objectivity factuality, the more he commits to objectivity. If the speaker hopes to give his own viewpoint a prominent position, he tends to state explicitly that the modal expressions are subjectivity-oriented. For example:

(36) **I also believe** that we will get through this -- that if we act swiftly and boldly and responsibly, the United States of America will emerge stronger and more prosperous than it was before.

-----Obama's weekly radio speech, Mar.7, 2009

(37) I've often said that **I don't believe** government has the answer to every problem or that it can do all things for all people.

-----Obama's weekly radio speech, Mar.14, 2009

On the other hand, the speaker may also tend to state explicitly that his assessment of possibility is objectivity-oriented by using an *adjectival predicator*. For example:

(38) As we continue to recover from an historic economic crisis, **it is clear** to everyone that one of its major causes was a breakdown in oversight that led to widespread abuses in the financial system.

-----Obama's weekly radio speech, Jun.20, 2009

According to Halliday, both explicit subjective and explicit objective are metaphorical expressions of modality. In weekly radio speeches, the aims of the

President are to clarify his policies, affirm his propositions, and make clear his intentions, so the President will sometimes be subjectivity-oriented or sometimes be objectivity-oriented. For these purposes, the President will make full use of the metaphors of modality, some of which are explicit subjective, and some of which are explicit objective. These linguistic devices contribute a lot to the realization the president's intentions. The following part will illustrate this point with some quoted examples from the samples.

5.2.2.1 To emphasize strong beliefs

In order to make his statement sound more assertive, the speaker sometimes would like to emphasize the subjectivity of his viewpoint; and the most effective way of realizing his purpose is to dress it up as though it was this that formed the assertion (Halliday, 2000.p.362). The subjective nature of a judgment can be strengthened by the modality in a separate clause. For example:

(39) **I believe**, as I always have, that we will rise to this moment, we will build something better for our children, and we will secure America's future in this new century.

-----Obama's weekly radio speech, Aug.15, 2009

(40) **And I believe** that the American people and the men and women they sent to Congress share that view.

-----Obama's weekly radio speech, Jun.26, 2009

If the modal clause is negative, it is the same truth. For example:

(41) **I don't believe** that government can or should run health care. But I also don't think insurance companies should have free reign to do as they please.

-----Obama's weekly radio speech, Jul.18, 2009

The modal clause **I don't believe** seems to act as the finite in front of the proposition, expressing the degree of validity as a separate element of this sentence. However, if we tag the sentence, it is *I don't believe that government can or should run health care, can it or should it?* Since the tag normally reverses the polarity of the

clause that it tags (positive finite---negative tag), the tag here is obviously echoing a negative finite, therefore, the proposition is in fact *the government can't or shouldn't run health care*.

In fact, there are a lot of variants for the expression of explicit subjectivity modality in the clause. However, in this thesis, we will focus on probability, because probability in explicitly subjective orientation is more frequently used to express personal idea. Such as *I'm sure, I'm confident, I'm convinced*, etc. Such modal clauses usually reflect the speaker's mental process of cognition, and their effect is to indicate that the President is willing to take responsibility for his judgment or assertion.

In weekly radio speeches, the explicit subjective metaphors of modality are intentionally adopted to emphasize the speaker's strong belief in his viewpoint. For example:

(42) And **I am absolutely convinced** that if we keep working together and living up to our mutual responsibilities; if we place the American people's interests above the special interests; we will seize this historic opportunity to finally fix what ails our broken health care system, and strengthen our economy and our country now and for decades to come.

-----Obama's weekly radio speech, Jun.6, 2009

(43) But **I am confident** that these efforts will fail; because Judge Sotomayor's seventeen-year record on the bench – hundreds of judicial decisions that every American can read for him or herself – speak far louder than any attack; her record makes clear that she is fair, unbiased, and dedicated to the rule of law.

-----Obama's weekly radio speech, May.29, 2009

(44) And **I am absolutely confident** that is what we will do. **I'm confident** that at this defining moment, we will prove ourselves worthy of the sacrifice of those who came before us, and the promise of those who will come after

-----Obama's weekly radio speech, Mar.7, 2009

From the three cited examples above, President Obama uses **I am absolutely convinced, I am confident, I am absolutely confident** the explicit subjective metaphors of modality with high value to confirm his own opinions. The subject of these sentences is **I**, which shows that the President's opinion is subjective, and

convinced, confident are words with high value showing the President's firm faith. Here, Obama successfully gives the audience a feeling that he is a confident and responsible President, with these explicit subjective expressions.

5.2.2.2 To show uncertainty

Sometimes, explicit subjective expressions of modality are also used to make the speaker's judgment or opinion more tentative, which means that the speaker is not very certain about his viewpoints, and actually he doesn't want to bring him some trouble for his comments. Especially in weekly radio speeches, the President has to be careful about his own words; otherwise, it will be very difficult for him to maintain a persistent good image and attract the fixed crowd of audience. Therefore, in weekly radio speeches, the speaker also adopts a lot of explicit subjective forms to show his uncertainty. For example:

(45) **I expect** there will be a lot of discussion about it when Congress returns.

-----Obama's weekly radio speech, Aug.22, 2009

(46) I don't believe that government can or should run health care. But **I also don't think** insurance companies should have free reign to do as they please.

-----Obama's weekly radio speech, Jul.18, 2009

(47) **I realize** that when we passed this Recovery Act, there were those who felt that doing nothing was somehow an answer.

-----Obama's weekly radio speech, Jul.11, 2009

(48) **I hope** that's exactly what all of you do. But I also want to take a moment today to reflect on what I believe is the meaning of this distinctly American holiday.

-----Obama's weekly radio speech, Jul.4, 2009

(49) **I imagine** you'll be watching their progress closely.

-----Obama's weekly radio speech, Jun.6, 2009

In example (45), Obama is in fact not sure whether there will be some discussion about the idea of government-run health care, so he just uses **I expect** to show his

hope, even there's no discussion, and he will not need to take any responsibility. In example (46), he tactically uses **I think** to express his statement that insurance companies should not have free reign to do as they please so as to avoid involving himself in the potential risk of interpersonal conflicts with the insurance company. Similarly, in example (47), Obama is not confident enough to affirm his judgment that there were some people feeling that doing nothing was somehow an answer, so he uses **I realize** to show that this is only his personal idea and cognition. In example (48), Obama adopts **I hope** to express his wish, and example (49), **I imagine** to show his hypothesis. All these examples show that Obama is not sure enough about his judgment or assertion, so he uses some explicit subjective metaphors of modality with median or low value to show his uncertainty. By highlighting his comments as a personal response, the President can make a subtle adjustment to the communicative context and establish a harmonious relationship with the listeners. This enables the speaker to use a less threatening voice, weaken the intensity of the statements and shorten the distance with the listeners. All these explicit subjective metaphors showing uncertainty help building a cooperative atmosphere and relationship with the listeners.

5.2.2.3 To create objectivity

Halliday (2000,p.362) has pointed out that there are two effective ways of creating objectivity, and one is through the use of explicit objective form of modality.. For example:

(50) As we continue to recover from an historic economic crisis, **it is clear to everyone that** one of its major causes was a breakdown in oversight that led to widespread abuses in the financial system.

-----Obama's weekly radio speech, Jul.18, 2009

(51) **It is true that** this crisis was caused in part by Americans who took on too much debt and took out loans they simply could not afford.

-----Obama's weekly radio speech, Jul.18, 2009

(52) We are called to remember **how unlikely it was that** our American experiment would succeed at all; that a small band of patriots would declare independence from a powerful empire; and that they would form, in the new world, what the old world had never known – a government of, by, and for the people.

-----Obama's weekly radio speech, Jul.4, 2009

In these three examples, the modality is dressed up as a proposition by the metaphor of modality: **it is clear to everyone that, It is true that, how unlikely it was that**. These propositions make the President's opinions appear to be a kind of "thing", which has qualities, attributed to it, or to be a 'fact', and which is difficult to query. Any modality has a source, either directly the speaker, or indirectly someone else, whose viewpoints are reported by the speaker. Therefore, if there is any modality in discourse, its source should in principle be explicitly indicated. However, in order to make his point of view appear to be neutral, or make his suggestions sound more acceptable, the speaker usually disguises the modal source by using explicit subjective form of modality. Obama pins one of the major causes of the historic economic crisis on the former government's breakdown in oversight leading to widespread abuses in the financial system by using an explicit objective form of modality. Similarly, he expresses his judgment that this crisis was caused partly by Americans who took on too much debt and took out loans they simply could not afford by a proposition **It is true that**. Thus he covers the real source of the modality but makes his assertion seem to be a truth. In these two examples, the use of **it is clear to everyone that, It is true that** strengthens the force of evaluations; meanwhile, it leaves listeners in no doubt about the speaker's comments, and emphasizes the extended opinion and encourages its acceptance, restricting the negotiating space available to the listeners. In example (52), something referred to by the pronoun 'it' is described as 'unlikely', and in the second part of the sentence, 'it' turns out to be the speaker's proposition. This proposition is thus being regarded as a definable chunk of meaning, almost as if it were a kind of 'thing'. This way of expressing disguises the fact that the quality of likelihood is actually not something belonging to the proposition, but is the speaker's

personal idea of likelihood.

The other way of creating objectivity is nominalization form of the modal verbs. In weekly radio speeches, nominalization serves as a way of both disguising the source of modality and making it more difficult to query. For example:

(53) That's why fixing what's wrong with our health care system is no longer a luxury we hope to achieve – it's a **necessity** we cannot postpone any longer.

-----Obama's weekly radio speech, Jun.6, 2009

(54) That's the kind of urgency and **determination** we need to achieve comprehensive reform by the end of this year.

-----Obama's weekly radio speech, May.16, 2009

(55) There is no longer a **doubt** that the jobs and industries of tomorrow will involve harnessing renewable sources of energy.

-----Obama's weekly radio speech, Mar.21, 2009

These nominal equivalents generally exclude the explicit intrusion of the speaker, so they sound as if the speaker depends on the obvious evidence for the possibility instead of his personal reasoning. The noun itself has some sense of objectivity. If the speaker conceals his own opinions in a noun expressing the modal meaning, his opinions appear more objective and easy to be accepted by the listeners. In these examples, Obama uses **necessity**, **determination** and **doubt** as nouns to show the objectivity of his assertion, which are helpful to realize his persuasive purposes.

Chapter Six Conclusions

This chapter reports the major findings of the present study, together with its pedagogical implications, limitations and areas for further research.

6.1 Major findings

The present study focuses on the application of interpersonal grammatical metaphors in Obama's weekly radio speeches. Quantitative and qualitative methods are adopted to analyze their various pragmatic functions. The major findings are summarized as follows:

First, through quantitative analysis, it is found that the speaker in weekly radio speeches achieves his communicative purposes by tactically adopting a lot of metaphors of mood or metaphors of modality.

Second, in weekly radio speeches, a lot of statements clarifying the policies are realized by the *let me* structure of imperative mood to show the speaker's authoritativeness as a president. A metaphor of mood issuing commands with declarative mood is also widely used to shorten the distance between the president and the audience so as to gain their understanding and support. Some statements realized by interrogative mood are adopted to convey the speaker's implications or form an atmosphere of intercommunication, depending on the situation. In addition, there are few questions realized by declarative mood to show the speaker's respect to the audience with the final goal of establishing a cooperative relationship with the audience and getting their support.

Third, in weekly radio speeches, a large number of explicit subjective metaphors of modality are adopted to emphasize the speaker's strong beliefs so as to present the President's good image of being confident and willing to take responsibility. By contrast, explicit objective metaphors of modality and nominalization are adopted to

disguise the source of the modality so that the speaker can shirk the responsibility for his personal judgment. At the same time, the speaker uses many explicit subjective metaphors of modality to express his uncertainty in an attempt to show his caution and carefulness.

6.2 Pedagogical implications

This study has the following pedagogical implications:

First, this study demonstrates that systemic functional grammar provides a multi-level and multi-functional theoretical framework for discourse analysis. It proves the effectiveness of SFG in analyzing genre and enriches the study scope of weekly radio speeches.

Second, this study provides us with the insights into the realizations of interpersonal grammatical metaphors in weekly radio speeches, which help us explore the speaker's assertions and judgments towards the propositions he expresses, and therefore enable us to have a better understanding of how interpersonal metaphors work in weekly radio speeches.

Third, the study has practical significance in relation to both English language teaching and learning. It attempts to contribute to the comprehensive understanding of weekly radio speeches and facilitates the teaching of advanced listening and improving non-native English learners' listening, speaking and writing so that they can develop their communicative competence more effectively.

6.3 Limitations and areas for further research

However, there are also some limitations in the present study. Confined to the reference materials and time limitation, it is difficult to make a comprehensive and exhaustive investigation and many aspects of the functions of interpersonal grammatical metaphors in weekly radio speeches remain untouched. Furthermore, the

thirty samples are not sufficient enough; therefore, they may be not typical enough to represent the weekly radio speeches genre. In addition, the data completely comes from the author's own calculation, which inevitably involves some margin of error.

In addition to improvement on the deficiencies mentioned above, there are still areas which further research might explore as follow-up of the study. This research focuses on Obama's weekly radio speeches, and further work could be done for studying the weekly radio speeches delivered by other Presidents, such as Bush. Apart from interpersonal grammatical metaphors, further study could expand to other fields like ideational metaphor, textual metaphor as well.

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Appendix I Data source of the thirty sample weekly radio speeches

1. 【美国总统电台演说】 2009-01-24
<http://www.putclub.com/article.php?articleid=11056>
2. 【美国总统电台演说】 2009-01-31
<http://www.putclub.com/article.php?articleid=11057>
3. 【美国总统电台演说】 2009-02-07
<http://www.putclub.com/article.php?articleid=11181>
4. 【美国总统电台演说】 2009-02-14
<http://www.putclub.com/article.php?articleid=11203>
5. 【美国总统电台演说】 2009-02-21
<http://www.putclub.com/article.php?articleid=11254>
6. 【美国总统电台演说】 2009-02-28
<http://www.putclub.com/article.php?articleid=11277>
7. 【美国总统电台演说】 2009-03-07
<http://www.putclub.com/article.php?articleid=11310>
8. 【美国总统电台演说】 2009-03-14
<http://www.putclub.com/article.php?articleid=11352>
9. 【美国总统电台演说】 2009-03-21
<http://www.putclub.com/article.php?articleid=11386>
10. 【美国总统电台演说】 2009-03-28
<http://www.putclub.com/article.php?articleid=11417>
11. 【美国总统电台演说】 2009-04-04
<http://www.putclub.com/article.php?articleid=11455>
12. 【美国总统电台演说】 2009-04-11
<http://www.putclub.com/article.php?articleid=11477>
13. 【美国总统电台演说】 2009-04-18
<http://www.putclub.com/article.php?articleid=11512>
14. 【美国总统电台演说】 2009-04-25
<http://www.putclub.com/article.php?articleid=11565>
15. 【美国总统电台演说】 2009-05-02
<http://www.putclub.com/article.php?articleid=11624>
16. 【美国总统电台演说】 2009-05-09
<http://www.putclub.com/article.php?articleid=11635>

17. 【美国总统电台演说】 2009-05-16
<http://www.putclub.com/article.php?articleid=11679>
18. 【美国总统电台演说】 2009-05-23
<http://www.putclub.com/article.php?articleid=11712>
19. 【美国总统电台演说】 2009-05-29
<http://www.putclub.com/article.php?articleid=11745>
20. 【美国总统电台演说】 2009-06-06
<http://www.putclub.com/article.php?articleid=11781>
21. 【美国总统电台演说】 2009-06-13
<http://www.putclub.com/article.php?articleid=11821>
22. 【美国总统电台演说】 2009-06-20
<http://www.putclub.com/article.php?articleid=11853>
23. 【美国总统电台演说】 2009-06-26
<http://www.putclub.com/article.php?articleid=11881>
24. 【美国总统电台演说】 2009-07-04
<http://www.putclub.com/article.php?articleid=11914>
25. 【美国总统电台演说】 2009-07-11
<http://www.putclub.com/article.php?articleid=12044>
26. 【美国总统电台演说】 2009-07-18
<http://www.putclub.com/article.php?articleid=12188>
27. 【美国总统电台演说】 2009-07-25
<http://www.putclub.com/article.php?articleid=12393>
28. 【美国总统电台演说】 2009-08-08
<http://www.putclub.com/article.php?articleid=12458>
29. 【美国总统电台演说】 2009-08-15
<http://www.putclub.com/article.php?articleid=12494>
30. 【美国总统电台演说】 2009-08-22
<http://www.putclub.com/article.php?articleid=12512>

Appendix II Sample analysis

【美国总统电台演说】2009-08-22

Each and every day in this country, Americans are grappling with health care premiums that are growing three times the rate of wages and insurance company policies that limit coverage and raise out-of-pocket costs. Thousands are losing their insurance coverage each day.

Without real reform, the burdens on America's families and businesses will continue to multiply. We've had a vigorous debate about health insurance reform, and rightly so. This is an issue of vital concern to every American, and I'm glad that so many are engaged.

But it also should be an honest debate, not one dominated by willful misrepresentations and outright distortions, spread by the very folks who would benefit the most by keeping things exactly as they are.

So today, I want to spend a few minutes debunking some of the more outrageous myths circulating on the internet, on cable TV, and repeated at some town halls across this country.

Let's start with the false claim that illegal immigrants will get health insurance under reform. (Statement realized by imperative) That's not true. Illegal immigrants would not be covered. That idea has never even been on the table. Some are also saying that coverage for abortions would be mandated under reform. Also false. When it comes to the current ban on using tax dollars for abortions, nothing will change under reform. And as every credible person who has looked into it has said, there are no so-called "death panels" – an offensive notion to me and to the American people. These are phony claims meant to divide us.

And we've all heard the charge that reform will somehow bring about a government takeover of health care. **I know that sounds scary to many folks. (Explicitly subjective)** It sounds scary to me, too. But here's the thing: it's not true. I no sooner want government to get between you and your doctor than I want insurance companies to make arbitrary decisions about what medical care is best for you, as they do today. As I've said from the beginning, under the reform we seek, if you like your doctor, you can keep your doctor. If you like your private health insurance plan, you can keep your plan. Period.

Now, the source of a lot of these fears about government-run health care is confusion over

what's called the public option. This is one idea among many to provide more competition and choice, especially in the many places around the country where just one insurer thoroughly dominates the marketplace. This alternative would have to operate as any other insurer, on the basis of the premiums it collects. **And let me repeat (statement realized by imperative) – it would be just an option: those who prefer their private insurer would be under no obligation to shift to a public plan. (Nominalization)**

The insurance companies and their allies don't like this idea, or any that would promote greater competition. I get that. **And I expect there will be a lot of discussion about it when Congress returns. (Explicitly subjective)**

But this one aspect of the health care debate shouldn't overshadow the other important steps we can and must take to reduce the increasing burdens families and businesses face.

So let me stress them again (statement realized by imperative): If you don't have insurance, you will finally have access to quality coverage you can afford. If you do have coverage, you will benefit from more security and more stability when it comes to your insurance. If you move, lose your job, or change jobs, you will not have to worry about losing health coverage. And we will set up tough consumer protections that will hold insurance companies accountable and stop them from exploiting you with unfair practices.

We'll prohibit insurance companies from denying coverage because of a person's medical history. They will not be able to drop your coverage if you get sick. They will not be able to water down your coverage when you need it most. They will no longer be able to place some arbitrary cap on the amount of coverage you can receive in a given year or a lifetime. We'll place a limit on how much you can be charged for out-of-pocket expenses, because no one in America should go broke because they get sick.

And we will require insurance companies to cover routine checkups and preventive care, like mammograms and colonoscopies. There's no reason we shouldn't be catching diseases like breast cancer and colon cancer on the front end. That makes sense, it saves lives, and it will also save money over the long-run. Taken together, the reforms we're seeking will help bring down skyrocketing costs, which will mean real savings for families, businesses, and government.

We know what a failure to act would bring: (Explicitly subjective) More of the same. More of the same exploding costs. More of the same diminished coverage. **If we fail to**

act, the crisis will grow. More families will go without coverage. More businesses will be forced to drop or water down their plans. (Command realized by declarative)

So we can push off the day of reckoning and fail to deal with the flaws in the system, just as Washington has done, year after year, decade after decade. Or we can take steps that will provide every American family and business a measure of security and stability they lack today.

It has never been easy, moving this nation forward. There are always those who oppose it, and those who use fear to block change. But what has always distinguished America is that when all the arguments have been heard, and all the concerns have been voiced, and the time comes to do what must be done, we rise above our differences, grasp each others' hands, and march forward as one nation and one people, some of us Democrats, some of us Republicans, all of us Americans.

This is our chance to march forward. (Command realized by statement) I cannot promise you that the reforms we seek will be perfect or make a difference overnight. But I can promise you this: if we pass health insurance reform, we will look back many years from now and say, this was the moment we summoned what's best in each of us to make life better for all of us. (Explicitly subjective) This was the moment when we built a health care system worthy of the nation and the people we love. This was the moment we earned our place alongside the greatest generations. And that is what our generation of Americans is called to do right now.

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