

Projection strategies in narrative and journalistic texts

UNIVERSIDAD DE SANTIAGO DE COMPOSTELA

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Projection strategies in narrative and journalistic texts

Estrategias de proyección en textos narrativos y periodísticos

Estratexias de proxección en textos narrativos e periodísticos

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TRABAJO DE FIN DE GRADO BAJO LA DIRECCIÓN Y COORDINACIÓN

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SOLICITO a aprobación do seguinte título e resumo:

<p>Título: Projection strategies in narrative and journalistic texts</p> <p>Resumo [na lingua en que se vai redacta-lo TFG; entre 1000 e 2000 caracteres]:</p> <p>Projection is a type of relationship between clauses whereby, at a primary level in which there are only two clauses forming the complex, the secondary clause is projected through the primary clause as a locution or an idea (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004: 377). It is easier to illustrate the way in which projection works by exemplifying it through a clause: "Martha said that you would be here"; in this instance, the primary clause "Martha said" is projecting a locution "that you would be here", which was produced by someone (i. e. Martha) in the past, and it is now being recreated by the speaker. Humans use this type of construction frequently, people project ideas, thoughts or even dialogue on a daily basis. Due to its high rate of usage, the study of projection has diverse manifestations in both oral and written discourse. In this thesis, we will focus on the former by comparing the use of projection in journalistic and narrative discourse. We have chosen these two genres because, according to previous studies (Caldas-Coulthard, 2008; Melbahwati Saragih, 2021; Couto-Vale, 2015), projection relations are frequently used in both, which will allow us to establish any emerging divergences and similarities.</p> <p>The descriptive framework will be founded on thoroughly tested models, namely Rhetorical Structure Theory (RST) and Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL), which have provided the foundation for the analysis of projection and other logico-semantic rhetorical relations in clause complexing. Additionally, the study will follow a corpus linguistics methodology based on the analysis of real empirical data that will enable us to determine the factors involved in projection variation across the genres scrutinized.</p>
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Projection strategies in narrative and journalistic texts

Santiago de Compostela, 7 de novembro de 2022.

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SUMMARY:

Projection is a type of relationship between clauses whereby, at a primary level in which there are only two clauses forming the complex, the secondary clause is projected through the primary clause as a locution or an idea (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004: 377). It is easier to illustrate the way in which projection works by exemplifying it through a clause: “Martha said that you would be here”; in this instance, the primary clause “Martha said” is projecting a locution “that you would be here”, which was produced by someone (i. e., Martha) in the past, and it is now being recreated by the speaker. Humans use this type of construction frequently, people project ideas, thoughts or even dialogue on a daily basis. Due to its high rate of usage, the study of projection has diverse manifestations in both written and oral discourse. In this thesis, we will focus on the former by comparing the use of projection in journalistic and narrative discourse. We have chosen these two genres because, according to previous studies (Caldas-Coulthard, 2008; Saragih, Murni & Meisuri, 2021; Couto-Vale, 2015), projection relations are frequently used in both, which will allow us to establish any emerging divergences and similarities. The descriptive framework will be founded on thoroughly tested models, namely Rhetorical Structure Theory (RST) and Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL), which have provided the foundation for the analysis of projection and other logico-semantic rhetorical relations in clause complexing. Additionally, the study will follow a corpus linguistics methodology based on the analysis of real empirical data that will enable us to determine the factors involved in projection variation across the genres scrutinised.

KEY WORDS: projection, SFL, RST, journalistic texts, narrative texts, taxis.

RESUMEN:

La proyección es un tipo de relación entre cláusulas en la que, considerando un caso en el que solo hay dos cláusulas formando el conjunto, la cláusula secundaria se proyecta a través de la cláusula primaria bien como una locución o como una idea (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004: 377). Es más fácil ilustrar el funcionamiento de la proyección con un ejemplo: "Marta dijo que estarías aquí"; en este caso, la cláusula primaria "Marta dijo" está proyectando una locución "que estarías aquí", que fue producida por alguien (en este caso, Marta) en el pasado, y ahora es proyectada por el emisor. Utilizamos este tipo de construcción con frecuencia, la gente proyecta ideas, pensamientos o incluso diálogos a diario. Debido a su elevado índice de uso, el estudio de la proyección tiene diversas manifestaciones tanto en el discurso escrito como en el oral. En este trabajo nos centraremos en el primero, comparando el uso de la proyección en el discurso periodístico y en el narrativo. Hemos elegido estos dos géneros porque, según estudios previos (Caldas-Coulthard, 2008; Saragih, Murni & Meisuri, 2021; Couto-Vale, 2015), las relaciones de proyección se utilizan con frecuencia en ambos, lo que nos permitirá establecer las diferencias y similitudes que surjan. El marco descriptivo se basará en modelos generalmente aceptados, la Rhetorical Structure Theory (RST) y la Lingüística Funcional Sistémica (SFL), que han proporcionado la base para el análisis de la proyección y otras relaciones retóricas lógico-semánticas en la complejización de cláusulas. Además, el estudio seguirá una metodología de lingüística de corpus basada en el análisis de datos empíricos reales que nos permitirán determinar los factores implicados en la variación de la proyección a través de los géneros estudiados.

PALABRAS CLAVE: proyección, SFL, RST, textos narrativos, textos periodísticos, taxis.

RESUMO:

A proxección é un tipo de relación entre cláusulas na que, considerando un caso no que só hai dúas cláusulas formando o conxunto, a cláusula secundaria proxéctase a través da cláusula primaria ben como locución ou como idea (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004: 377). É máis fácil ilustrar o funcionamento da proxección cun exemplo: “Marta dixo que estarías aquí”; neste caso, a frase primaria “Marta dixo” está proxectando unha locución “que estarías aquí”, que fora producida por alguén (neste caso, Marta) no pasado, e agora é proxectada polo emisor. Utilizamos este tipo de construción con frecuencia, a xente proxecta ideas, pensamentos ou incluso diálogos a diario. Debido ao seu elevado índice de uso, o estudo da proxección ten diversas manifestacións tanto no discurso escrito como no oral. Neste traballo, centrarémonos no primeiro, comparando o uso da proxección no discurso periodístico e no narrativo. Escollemos estes dous xéneros porque, segundo estudos previos (Caldas-Coulthard, 2008; Saragih, Murni & Meisuri, 2021; Couto-Vale, 2015), as relacións de proxección utilízanse con frecuencia en ambos, o que nos permitirá establecer as diferencias e similitudes que xurdan. O marco descritivo basearase en modelos xeralmente aceptados, a Rhetorical Structure Theory (RST) e a Lingüística Funcional Sistémica (SFL), que proporcionaron a base para a análise da proxección e outras relacións retóricas lóxico-semánticas na formación de complexos de cláusulas. Ademais, o estudo seguirá unha metodoloxía de lingüística de corpus baseada na análise de datos empíricos reais que nos permitirán determinar os factores implicados na variación da proxección a través dos xéneros estudados.

PALABRAS CHAVE: proxección, SFL, RST, textos narrativos, textos periodísticos, taxis.

DECLARACIÓN DE ORIGINALIDAD

Yo, Iria Iglesias Tato, estudiante del Grado en Lengua y Literatura Inglesas en la Universidad de Santiago de Compostela (USC) prometo que los contenidos de este trabajo son originales, haciendo referencia a aquellas ideas ajenas citando autor y obra, y no incurriendo en plagio.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Projection relations are, according to Halliday and Matthiessen, those in which “the secondary clause is projected through the primary clause, which instantiates it as (a) a locution or (b) an idea” (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004: 377), as illustrated in (1) to (4), and as will be detailed in Section 2.

(1) I think that none of you are right.

(2) Marta said that you went to that party.

(3) Marta said, ‘they went to the party’.

(4) ‘And that’s the jury-box,’ thought Alice. (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004: 462)

The case presented in (1) is one of projection of thoughts, in which the primary or projecting clause is [*I think*] and the secondary or projected clause is [*(that) none of you are right*]. The two instances of projection that appear in (2) and (3) are projections of dialogue. In the case of (3), it is direct quoting, while (2) is a case of indirect speech, the implications of this difference between quoting and reporting will be further developed in chapter 2. The primary clause would be, in both examples, [*Marta said*], while the remaining part of each of the sentences would constitute the secondary clauses. (4) Is an example taken from Halliday & Matthiessen’ study, and it corresponds to a direct projection of ideas in which the projected clause appears before the projecting one.

Projection relations occur with high frequency in the English language; therefore, it is apparent that they play a significant role in any person’s life. When one examines these examples, it appears to be obvious that these relations are the ones that allow human beings to express their ideas and thoughts, while also being fundamental in the retelling of a conversation and quoting previous statements. This aspect of projection relations is one of the main motivations behind this study. One of the most famous philosophical quotes of all time is

Descartes' "Cogito, ergo sum", meaning "I think, therefore I am"; thinking is one of the most vital aspects of human's lives, thus, being able to express those thoughts and share them with other people is undoubtedly an essential quality of language. Projection allows humans to not only reflect on their own thoughts, but also anyone else's, making it possible to easily share information, opinions, facilitating feedback, or even asking for clarification in specific parts of discourse. Clarification is usually associated with the elaboration relation (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004: 540), but when the clarification is on a specific part of discourse, it can be associated to a projection relation as illustrated in (5).

(5) Just now, when you said, 'I believe this to be an important part of our experience',
can you elaborate on the meaning of 'our experience'?

The research of logico-semantic relations in this BA dissertation pursues three main research questions:

- 1) How do projection relations work in different contexts and situations?
- 2) What type of logico-semantic relations prevail in discourse: those expressing ideas or those expressing locutions?
- 3) Are there any identifiable patterns and/or structural differences in the use of projection?

The analysis will be corpus-based. Accordingly, we shall observe the behaviour of logico-semantic relations across two different discourse types, namely journalistic and narrative. The two genres were chosen because of the differences in the way projection is used in each of them. Projection is fairly commonly used in news articles, and specifically projections of locutions are used in this type of text (Matthiessen & Teruya, 2015: 263), while projection of ideas is not used as often in news articles. Journalistic texts are assumed to have a higher frequency of quotations and reproduction of dialogue, while having a lower use of

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projection of thoughts, as the aim is to be as objective as possible; Bell (1991: 147) notes what has become a maxim in the treatment of news as narrative by maintaining that “Journalists do not write articles. They write stories. A story has a structure, direction, point, viewpoint”, thus, it can be concluded that the goal that these types of text aim for is the objective reproduction of a story. Then, the fact that projections of locutions are generally common in journalistic texts is a logical finding, as quotations give credibility to a story, making it more believable (D. M. F. Torck, 1999). Narrative texts, on the other hand, are thought to have a more balanced use between both types of projection, since there are little to no restrictions on the appropriate use of either projection of thoughts or dialogue. This is because narration is usually associated with more creative texts that can reproduce innumerable possibilities without having to be restricted to real events (Matthiessen & Teruya, 2015: 252). Moreover, as Caldas-Coulthard (1992: 69) explains in her study, even if quotations are based on real events, their presence in narrative texts is usually marked by them being summarised or reorganised in some way.

This investigation will be framed within Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL), and the Rhetorical Structure Theory (RST). SFL (Halliday, 1994; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004) is a grammatical model, which includes logico-semantic relations divided in two major groups, namely expansion and projection, of which the latter is the main focus of this study. The use of RST will aid in identifying the hierarchal structure of the texts involved, as well as the relations that bind the various parts of a text together (Mann & Thompson, 1998; Mann, Matthiessen & Thompson, 1992; Taboada, 2006). RST will most definitely prove to be useful, as it is applicable to the majority of texts, “In our culture, texts that have RST analyses predominate. It is thus typical, but not universal, for texts to be hierarchically structured and functionally organized” (Mann & Thompson, 1998). SFL will serve the purpose of explaining and analysing the logico-semantic relations present in each unit of analysis, as well as schematising the

dependency relation within sentences, or combinations of sentences or clauses (clause complexing).

Finally, the remainder of the dissertation is organised as follows. Section 2 provides the details of the theoretical framework, while Section 3 formulates the research questions (Section 3.1), explains the methodology employed to address them (Section 3.2), presents the data (Section 3.3), and discusses the findings (Section 3.4). Section 4 closes the study with the main conclusions, making suggestions for further research.

CHAPTER 2: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This chapter presents the theoretical foundation of this study. It provides the reader with relevant information about the theoretical concepts and theories that are relevant to the empirical part, namely projection relations within the framework of SFL and RST. Both theories are defined in this section, including any additions or clarifications necessary to cover the issues that are discussed in the totality of section 3.

2.1 PROJECTION IN SFL

First, it is important to expand on the previously given definition of projection, “the secondary clause is projected through the primary clause, which instates it as (a) a locution or (b) an idea” (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004: 377). The logico-semantic relation of projection established in SFL is represented by the symbols: [“] for projections of locutions, which are those related to wording and dialogue, they represent the contents of verbal clauses; and ['] for projections of ideas, which are those related to thoughts and meaning, and they represent the contents of mental clauses. Projection relations can have a paratactic nexus, in which case each part of the relation is expressed with numbers (1, 2, 3, etc.), or a hypotactic one, in which case each part is represented with letters from the Greek alphabet (α , β , γ , δ , ϵ , etc.). In projection, the primary clause is usually the projected one, but in some cases of paratactic projection, this

may not be the case: “With a paratactic projection, on the other hand, it is possible for the primary clause to be the projected one” (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004: 380).

Table 1. Examples of projection relations in SFL

EXAMPLE	TYPE OF PROJECTION	STRUCTURE
(7) Manny said, “this is my house”.	Paratactic projection of a locution in which the primary clause is the projecting clause	1"2
(8) “I can’t do it anymore”, Samantha thought.	Paratactic projection of a thought in which the primary clause is the projected clause	'1 2
(9) Samantha thought that she couldn’t do it anymore.	Hypotactic projection of a thought in which the primary clause is the projecting clause	$\alpha\beta$
(10) Many said that this was his house.	Hypotactic projection of a locution in which the primary clause is the projecting clause	$\alpha''\beta$
(11) That I was her best friend she declared.	Hypotactic projection of a locution in which the primary clause is the projecting clause	" β α

In example (8), the primary clause becomes the projected clause, and the secondary clause becomes the projecting one; that is the reason for the ['] symbol in ['1 2] appearing before the number one, which is the primary clause, since the projection symbols always emerge right before the projected clause. In hypotactic projection, however, this change cannot be made, as shown in examples (9) to (11), where the ['] symbol is always put before β (‘the subclause’), because in hypotaxis the secondary clause will always be the projected one due to dependency relations. It is relevant to note that if parataxis and hypotaxis were to occur in the same sentence, those relations cannot be at the same level. They cannot mix, which means that one of the relations is confined within a part of another relation, as Halliday & Matthiessen (2004: 382) put it: “If there is a switch in taxis, this automatically leads to nesting”, which is illustrated in (12):

(12) I believe that María said “let her be”.

Example (12) is one in which nesting occurs, as the structure of the logico-semantic relations in this sentence would be $[\alpha'\beta(1''2)]$, which could be expressed without bracketing in the following way: $[\alpha'\beta1'\beta''2]$, as the relation $[1''2]$ is confined within $[\beta]$. In this case, the nesting phenomenon occurs within the projected clause in a hypotactic projection of thoughts. i.e., the segment $[\beta]$, the projected clause $[(that) María said "let her be"]$, contains another projection relation within itself, one that has the structure of $[1''2]$, and this projection relation is equal to $[\beta]$. This phenomenon is visually represented in the table below:

Table 2. The 'nesting' phenomenon and changes in taxis

I believe that María said "let her be"	$\alpha'\beta(1''2)$ or $\alpha'\beta1'\beta''2$	
I believe	α	
(that) María said "let her be"	β	
María said	1	β
"let her be"	"2	

Continuing the discussion on taxis, it is necessary to mention the fact that there is yet another type of nexus used in projection relations that is different from the paratactic and hypotactic ones, as projections can be embedded. "both locutions and ideas can be embedded. Besides entering into paratactic and hypotactic clause nexuses, they can be 'rank-shifted' to function as Qualifiers within a nominal group" (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004: 467). These instances of projection are all metaphorical, and the sayer (i.e., the person or institution issuing the locution or thought) can be omitted, or represented as either a Deictic or a Qualifier. The main use for this type of projection is the representation of arguments. One example of this type of projection is (13):

- (13) I was very intrigued by your take on Huck Finn in that piece, and your argument
 [[that the great American novel of that century was Uncle Tom's Cabin]]. (Halliday
 & Matthiessen, 2004: 467)

According to Halliday & Matthiessen (2004: 443), there are three systems involved in the differentiation of different kinds of projection: (i) the level of projection (idea vs. locution), (ii) the mode of projection (hypotactic reporting vs. paratactic quoting), and (iii) the speech function (projected proposition vs. projected proposal). Focusing on dimension (iii), since the other two have already been addressed, projections that are cognitive processes realised in indicative mode (statements, questions) are called *propositions*, while the projection relations that are desiderative processes (commands, offers) are identified as *proposals*. Furthermore, Halliday & Matthiessen (2004: 470) distinguish yet another type of projection focusing on the speech function, which is called *fact*. In this case, neither verbal nor mental processes are involved, but rather four kinds of facts that are packaged in projected form, that is, cases, proofs, chances, and needs, which are illustrated in the following examples taken from Halliday & Matthiessen's (2004: 466-470) literature on SFL:

(14) She wondered if she was dreaming.

(15) "Wait here." she told him.

(16) Historically, the fact is that Uncle Tom's Cabin was the most popular novel of the nineteenth century and had a huge effect on American history.

(14) is a clear example of a *proposition*, since wondering is a cognitive process, related to questioning, that expressed in indicative mode. Then, (15) is a straightforward case of a *proposal*, as it expresses a desiderative process, a command that is expressed in imperative mode (*wait*). The last of the types, *fact*, is represented in (16); there are no mental or verbal processes involved, but there is a clear projection stating a fact (*that Uncle Tom's Cabin was the most popular novel of the nineteenth century and had a huge effect on American history.*). The case of (16) is a case of the subtype of *case*, as it asserts a simple fact. Examples of the other subtypes (namely *chance*, *proof*, and *need*), subtracted from Halliday & Matthiessen's

(2004: 471-478) narrative are offered below, numbered from (17) to (19), and the relevant projecting word and projected contents have been highlighted.

(17) I think really if you just keep a good eye on him and keep him quiet, and just keep him mostly to fluids and light things over the next few days, there's a good **chance** [that it will settle down enough for you to go away and come back next week].

(18) There is a huge antarctic ozone hole today with chlorine at 3 ppbv, and there is **evidence** [that the ozone hole is enlarging and spreading].

(19) if I had not been asked to terminate a life, I would not be so vehement about the **need** [to help people who are begging for death].

Matthiessen (2002: 255) claims that projection relations in news reports generally show a pattern in which hypotaxis is the favoured option (around 65%), as opposed to paratactic relations, which tend to be more frequent in casual conversations (chat — around 65%; and gossip — around 70%). Curiously enough, however, other studies by the same author claim otherwise in some respects. This is the case of Halliday & Matthiessen, (2004: 444), where it maintained that projections of ideas clearly favour hypotactic constructions, so at a first glance, it seems to coincide with the previous statement. However, in that same study it is stated that projected locutions have even distributions across (paratactic) quoting and (hypotactic) reporting within their total sample of texts (which included both written and spoken discourse), even if overall spoken texts seem to favour paratactic projection of locutions, which partially contradicts, or at least restricts to some specific contexts, the idea that hypotaxis is the preferred pattern in projection relations. Nonetheless, there seems to be a general agreement that journalistic discourse favours projections of locutions (quoted and reported speech) (Matthiessen, 2002: 257; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004: 445-446; D. M. F. Torck, 1999). This is a logical conclusion to arrive at, since journalistic texts tend to report on whatever has recently happened, and they usually provide a series of quotations from witnesses or other

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relevant people (e.g., the trainer of a famous football club talking about the last match), while trying to be as objective as possible (objectivity is the reason for the low frequency of projection of thoughts in news reports); this is the way in which news are usually conveyed in western culture. Additionally, Matthiessen (2002: 311) notes that one common pattern in reports on disasters is a move from reports by means of hypotactic projection that is attributed to officials and experts, whereas quotes (paratactic projection) seem to be related to eyewitnesses. This study developed by Matthiessen (2002: 251) highlights that projection is implemented through two main strategies: (i) quoting or reporting speech i.e., both paratactic and hypotactic projections of locutions, and (ii) reporting thoughts i.e., hypotactic projections of thoughts, as represented in Table 3. He presents these patterns by explaining that the paratactic projection of ideas is usually disfavoured, while the other options are far more common.

Table 3. Main logico-semantic patterns in projection relations

EXAMPLE	TYPE OF PROJECTION	STRUCTURE
(20) "My darling, you are not the sharpest tool in the shed", Marina said.	Paratactic projection of a locution	"1 2
(20) Marina said that her lover wasn't the sharpest tool in the shed	Hypotactic projection of a locution	$\alpha\beta$
(21) I believe that we should respect each other.	Hypotactic projection of a thought	$\alpha\beta$

Table 3 above, as well as the aforementioned, highlight the fact that the type of projecting verb or process is of paramount importance. Some verbs, like *think* or *say*, are clear instances of projection verbs. Yet some other verbs that may not be expected to be projecting verbs can function as projection processes in certain situations. This is the case of verbs associated to *metaphenomena* projections. Halliday & Matthiessen (2004) explain that *metaphenomena* are events that are then processed through language, in the case of mental projections they are processed once, while in the case of locutions the process is doubled, as they are processed by understanding (first) and reproducing (second) the meaning. The act of

giving meaning to them and processing them makes it so that there are some limitations as to how to express them in language, as Halliday & Matthiessen (2004: 451) put it,

“a metaphenomenon, something not just bigger but of a different order of reality.

So we can say *I can see that the boats have been turned* but not *I can see the boats having been turned* — because you cannot see a past event. You can see the state of affairs resulting from that past event; but the past event itself can only be treated as a projection”.

Metaphenomena projections are associated with the processes of *saying*, *feeling*, and (occasionally) *being*, as shown in the examples below.

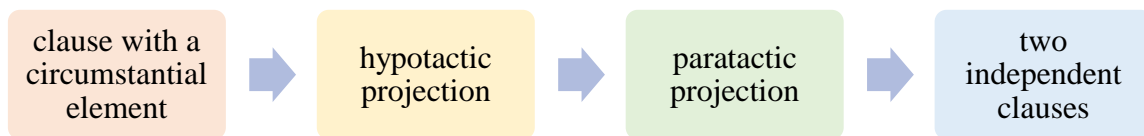
(22) I feel that you are not listening.

(23) (she said:) ‘it’s raining’ (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004: 451).

Example (22) is an instance of *metaphenomena* projection related to the process of *feeling*. The logico-semantic structure of this sentence is: [$\alpha\beta$], meaning that in this case of hypotactic projection [*I feel*] is the projecting clause, and [(*that*) *you are not listening*] is the projected clause. In this case, the *metaphenomenon* is a feeling, an emotion that is given meaning by mentally processing it, a process that is done through language. In the case of *feel*, as it is a mental process, the reporting verb could be substituted by a verb of a mental process, like *think*, and there would be no substantial differences in the propositional meaning of the sentences. (23), in turn, exemplifies *metaphenomenon* projection related to the process of *saying*, with a structure of [1"2]. This type of statement, as mentioned before, gets processed twice: one time mentally (giving it meaning), and another time verbally (reproducing it in the projection as quoting). This example, then, is the clear example that *metaphenomenon* are processed through the use of language, reformulating them in the necessary manner to make it understandable.

Finally, considering the issue concerning how projection relations can be realised, according to Halliday & Matthiessen (2004: 369) there is a cline which has at one end the simple clause with a circumstantial element, and at the other the cohesive sequence of two independent clauses. There are also in-between constructions. Figure 1 is a representation of a spectrum of the different realisations of projection. Closer to the clauses + circumstantial element end, there would be clause combinations in which one is dependent on the other (i.e., hypotactic projection), whereas closer to the two independent clauses end, there would be clause combinations of paratactically related clauses (i.e., paratactic projection). The constructional cline already described is graphically represented in Figure 1 below.

Figure 1. Projection constructional cline (Adapted from Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004)



(24) After the explosion, he explained his intentions of proposing to Sandra to the others.

(25) That's when he thought it was over.

(26) "I'll be there", he said.

(27) Good morning. Mrs. Kate". "You must mean good evening, sir.", she replied.

Examples (24) to (27) are representatives of each of the stages represented in Figure 1. As can be observed, the more one moves to the right in the cline (and up in number in the examples), the more independent the clauses become from one another, the change from hypotactic projection to paratactic one being the turning point of the continuum, where the change between hypotactic and paratactic constructions becomes apparent. For instance, in example (25) and (26) there is an important shift in how dependency relations affect the constituent's expression in the analysis. As explained before, in the case of hypotactic projection, the projected clause will always be the dependent one, so the structure of the

projection on this clause would be [α " β], in which [" β] would be dependent on [α]. However, in example (26), the structure of the projection would be ["1 2], in which none of the clauses is strictly dependent on the other, if the structure were to be flipped it would be [1"2], because since there is no dependency ties, the part of the clause that appears first is numbered with [1].

A study developed by Jomaa and Bidin (2019: 175) suggests another classification of logico-semantic relations, including projection. As displayed in Table 4.

Table 4. Logico-semantic relations in Jomaa and Bidin's model

Logico-semantic relations of clause complexes		
I. Expansion	II. Projection	III. Combination of Expansion and Projection
A. Extension	A. Quoting 'direct speech'	
B. Enhancement	B. Reporting 'indirect speech'	
C. Elaboration	C. Reporting speech, Quoting thoughts	
1. Exposition	D. Projecting	
2. Exemplification	suggestions	
3. Clarification	E. Free indirect speech	
	F. Facts	

Jomaa and Bidin's model is relevant to the present study because it not only describes different ways in which projection can be represented, but it also includes the combination of two types of logico-semantic relations, namely expansion and projection. The classification of projection strategies that the authors offer is similar to the ones explained previously, but it also includes some differences, such as the incorporation of free indirect speech as a type of projection. The case of free indirect speech, as the authors explain, is one of hypotactic projection. The authors also highlight the importance of the conjunction *as* in free indirect speech, which is followed

by either a non-finite or a finite clause. Their classification regarding projection is similar to some of the previously presented models, for instance in categories such as *fact* (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004). These different perspectives and models will be taken into account when considering the projection relation. The terms in which the analysis of data will be done appear explained in section 3.2.

2.2 RST IN OUR ANALYSIS

This section will define the theoretical principles of RST that the study will focus on, as well as its uses when adapting it to the previously explained SFL projection relation. This adaptation does not involve major changes in the theory itself, most of the modifications appear to be relation additions to the ones presented in Mann, Matthiessen and Thompson's study in the 1980s, or theories as to how those relations interact with each other. Some of the studies that add to the present theory expand on issues that were not considered when the theory was in its earliest stages.

2.2.1 THE BASIS OF RST

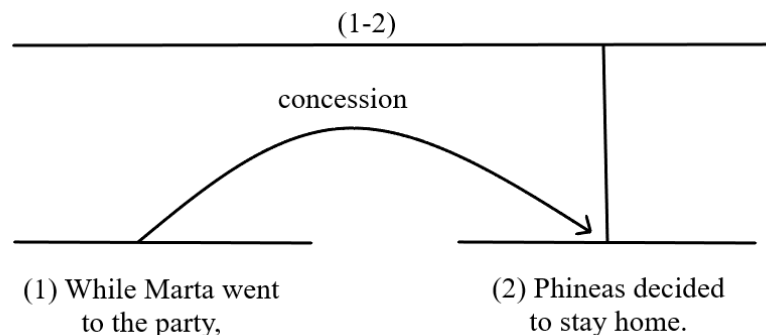
RST is an asset of great importance when analysing texts; as previously mentioned, RST analyses can be applied to most texts in our culture, so it is no surprise that it will be useful in uncovering the different relations that tie together the texts relevant to our analysis. With its role established, it is key to set the theory that will serve as the starting point of the scrutiny of data. To do unfold such information, many studies will be taken into account since the theory, as any other, has endured some changes and additions since its first proposal in the 1980s.

The original theory developed a set of rules that served the purpose of studying the way in which relations worked in texts: "RST provides a general way to describe the relations among clauses in a text, whether or not they are grammatically or lexically signalled" (Mann & Thompson, 1998: 244). It included a set of twenty-three relations and five types of schemas

that graphically represent how relations appear on a text. In order to execute a proper analysis, the text must be divided into units of analysis i.e., text spans represented through horizontal lines; after the text is divided, the annotator must decide on which types of relation are at play, following the four fields that define a relation presented in Mann and Thompson in their study in 1998. There are two key concepts that define the structural dependency relations among text spans, namely nucleus and satellite. The nucleus consists of the main part of the message or, as its name indicates, the nuclear part; they are represented as a straight line. Satellites are dependent on the nuclei, and they are represented by means of a curved line that leads to the nucleus. Relations can be multinuclear i.e., they have more than one nucleus as some of the text spans may be situated at the same level; examples of this type of schema include those known as sequence, contrast, and joint. Multi-satellite relations may occur as well, this schema type includes the relation of motivation-enablement, and both satellites coincide in the same nucleus. Some examples of different schema types are to be found below.

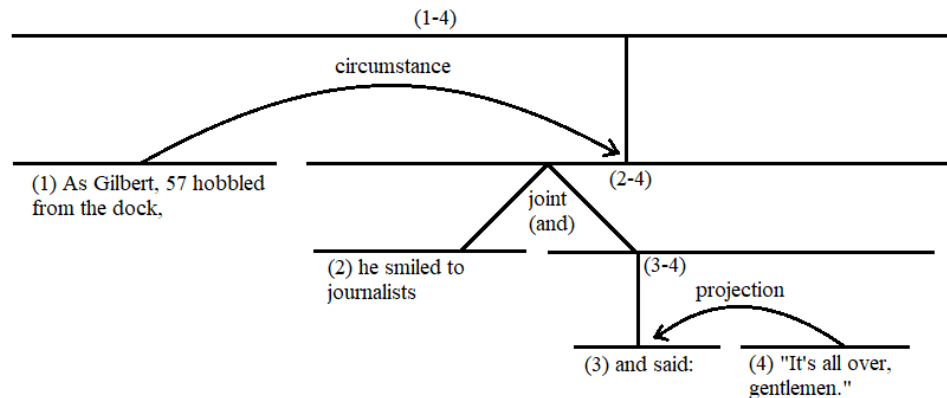
(28) While Marta went to the party, Phineas decided to stay home.

Figure 2. RST analysis of (28)



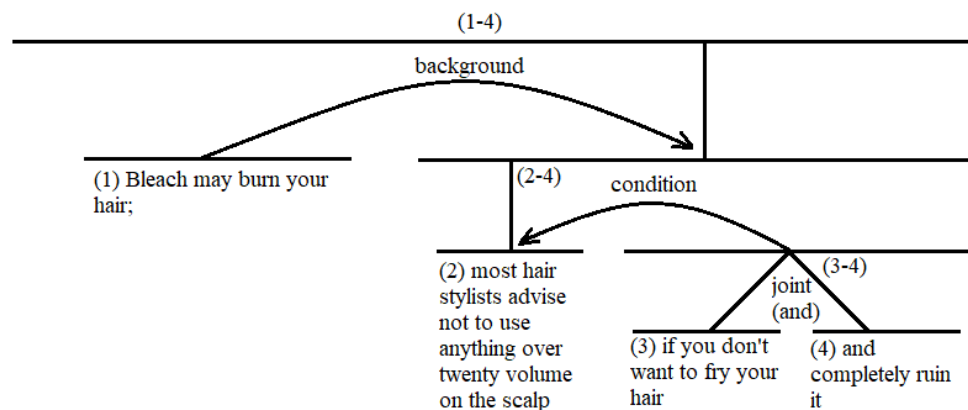
(29) As Gilbert, 57 hobbled from the dock he smiled to journalists and said: "It's all over, gentlemen." (Caldas-Coulthard, 1992: 79)

Figure 3. RST analysis of (29)



(30) Bleach may burn your hair; most hair stylists advise not to use anything over twenty volume on the scalp if you don't want to fry your hair and completely ruin it.

Figure 4. RST analysis of (30)

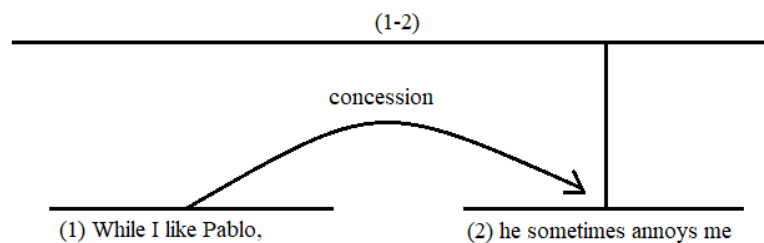


As visible on the examples, the structural organisation for each of these examples is different regarding satellite-nucleus disposition. Example (28) is a case of concession signalled by [*while*], which is a satellite-nucleus relation; in this particular case, there is only one nucleus and one satellite. Example (29) displays a multi-nuclear relation between text spans [2] and [3-4]; it is joint relation marked by the word [*and*]. Apart from joint, other relations can be found between the text spans [1] and [2-4], an [3] and [4] respectively; those relations are one of circumstance, more specifically one of time, and it is signalled by [*as*], and one of projection

of a locution that is signalled by the projecting verb [*said*]. Example (30) shows a total of three types of relations, one of background between [1] and [2-4] as an unsignalled relation, one of condition between [2] and [3-4] signalled by [*if*], and one of joint between [3] and [4] signalled by [*and*]. It is important to note that the same connector may signal different relations, for example [*while*] signals a circumstance relation, but that same connector is acknowledged as a concession marker (Taboada & Gómez-González, 2012: 23). In the following example, [*while*] acts as a concession marker.

(31) While I like Pablo, he sometimes annoys me.

Figure 5. RST analysis of (31)



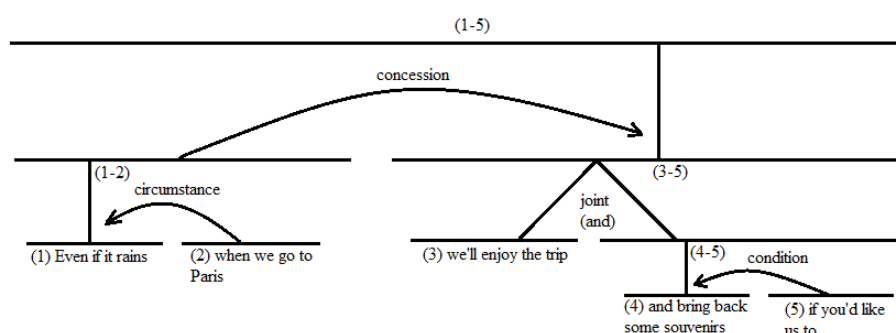
It is possible to identify different types of relation even when the same marker is involved because RST analyses use context cues and educated assumptions about intentions to decide, and they are not confined to a set of specific markers that signal determined relations “There are, however, differences between Rhetorical Structure Theory (RST) and other theories, mainly in that rhetorical relations place emphasis on the writer’s intentions and the effect of the relation on the reader” (Taboada, 2006: 568). RST being focused on assumptions about intentions has raised debate about the credibility of the theory, as well as how it can be used to carry out an objective analysis of a text. This is because interpretations may differ from one annotator to another; even questioning if choices regarding nuclearity or the relations involved in a sentence would stay consistent among them. However, there are a set of cues (for example,

marking) that indicate the types of relation that are at play in the text; and the theory, if slightly modified with some additions, has proven to be an effective asset for text analysis.

The division of a text in spans creates different levels of analysis, and the proper procedure according to RST is to begin with the general and then continue to the more specific. On the upper part of an RST schema there will be a text span that includes the combination of spans on lower levels, and I will get more specific as it continues advancing downwards.

(32) Even if it rains when we go to Paris, we'll enjoy the trip and bring back some souvenirs if you'd like us to.

Figure 6. RST analysis of (32)



On example (32) it is easy to observe how the spans get more specific. There are four relations at play, namely concession, circumstance, joint, and condition. The concession relation happens between the spans of [1-2] and [3-5], and these spans contain the other relations within them. Then, the main relation in this example is concession, as the other ones are lower-level relations enclosed within other spans. Then, within the satellite of the concession relation (i.e., [1-2]), there is a circumstance relation of time between [1] and [2]. Within the main nucleus (i.e., [3-5]), there are two different relations at play, namely joint between the spans of [3] and [4-5] and condition between the spans of [4] and [5]. Of all of the relations present circumstance, condition and concession are all of the nucleus-satellite form,

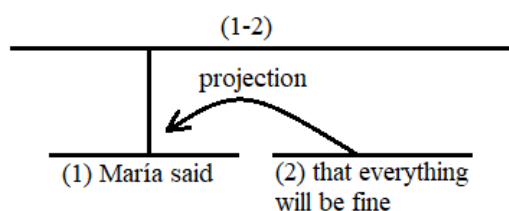
while joint is a multi-nuclear relation in which the different parts of the relation function at the same level, creating a relationship of co-dependency rather than unilateral dependency.

2.2.2 ADDITIONS THAT WERE CONSIDERED

After the original presentation of RST, some studies offered different additions or slight modifications to the theory that are essential for our analysis. One of the most important changes for this study is the possibility of seeing RST through the scope of SFL, thus facilitating the identification of logico-semantic relations, "rhetorical complexes are formed by means of rhetorical (logico-semantic) relations linking text segments to one another" (Matthiessen & Teruya, 2015: 236). Projection relations in RST belong to the nucleus-satellite type relations in which the satellite can both precede and come after the projecting verb. For projection, in a complex with only two units, the nucleus would be the primary or projecting clause, and the satellite would be the secondary or projected one.

(33) María said that everything will be fine.

Figure 7. RST analysis of (33)



Example (33) clearly shows the aforementioned nucleus-satellite (i.e., hypotactic) distribution, as it can be appreciated on the figure above, the projected clause [2] constitutes the satellite, marked with a curved line, to the nucleus [1], marked with a straight vertical line. Moreover, a display of the table containing the SFL analysis of this example can be found below, and it will aid the reader in comparing the information presented in both the SFL and

RST analyses of this example, and it will illustrate, in comparison with Figure 7, how the same relation can be expressed in different ways.

Table 5. SFL analysis of (33)

EXAMPLE	UNITS OF ANALYSIS	SFL ANALYSIS	
(24) María said that everything will be fine.	María said	α	α " β
	that everything will be fine.	" β	

As can be appreciated on both Table 5 and Figure 7, the units and dependency relations are consistent among SFL and RST. This makes it possible for both types of analysis to complement each other, as they do not contradict the previous analysis, but express information like nuclearity or the type of projection in different ways. Presenting an analysis using RST facilitates to graphically see the different layers and dependency relations, as well as appreciate in detail the types of relation at play in the sentence (e.g., circumstance, concession, sequence, etc.), and SFL completes this visual representation with a more compact way of expressing the dependency relations and the main relations at play, though not so exhaustively as RST (enhancement, elaboration, extension, projection of locutions and projection of ideas).

Regarding connectors, some studies have been considered, as they clarify some points like markedness that may result confusing (Taboada & Gómez-González, 2012; Taboada, 2006; among others). These studies focus on connectors as signals of rhetorical relations, matters that are worth paying attention to in this study. It was previously mentioned that a specific marker can signal more than one type of relations, so it is natural to question whether relations can be interpreted differently by different people. Taboada and Gómez-González (2012: 27), give an extensive explanation of markers in the concessive relation, and also explain that markers are not the only factor that influences the relation, as the order of constituents could lead to different meanings prevailing over other possibilities. On the other hand, in another study, Taboada

discusses markedness in rhetorical relations, and one of the main research questions is whether relations that were not signalled with words are still considered rhetorical relations, the conclusion resulting in a clear positive answer (Taboada, 2006: 587-588). As illustrated in (34) and (35), examples that were extracted from her study. The text spans are marked by the corresponding number in between square brackets.

(34) [1] No, the eight doesn't look good at all, [2] but the ninth, [3] that sounds perfect. [4] Before two, [5] that'd be good.

(35) [1] Alexander Brody, 56, will take on the newly created position of president of the world-wide agency and chief executive of its international operations. [2] He had been president of the international operations.

Example (34) displays a total of four relations. Only one of those relations, a concession one between the spans of [1] and [2-5], is marked by the word [*but*]. The other relations, two of evaluation and one of elaboration, do not have any signals that indicate a rhetorical relation being there (i.e., they are unmarked ones). The evaluation relation appears two times, the first one between the spans of [2] and [3-5] and the second one between [4] and [5], and the elaboration one appears between the spans of [1-3] and [4-5]. (35) is a case of the background relation in which [1] is the satellite functioning as background information for [2], the nucleus.

In summary, these previous studies emphasise the importance of signals of RST relations, but also show that they are not the only means to convey or alter the meaning of rhetorical relations, which should always be determined in their contexts taking into account structural and situational factors, as claimed in research and scientific evidence on natural language processing (Taboada, 2016; Matthiessen, 2015; Arús-Hita, Teruya, Bardi, Kashyap & Mwinlaaru, 2018: 79-83).

CHAPTER 3: EMPIRICAL ANALYSIS

This section will illustrate the results obtained after collecting data on the aforementioned corpus, the Georgetown University Multilayer Corpus (GUM). As previously mentioned, eight verbs are to be considered for the present study, four of each belonging to the category of projection of thoughts and four of them to the projection of dialogue. In this section, the data will be scrutinised, and statistics will be calculated in order to reach a conclusion on whether projection relations behave differently among the two selected genres.

3.1 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The research questions that create the base for the empirical analysis appear listed below.

RQ01: How do projection relations work in different contexts and situations?

RQ02: What type of logico-semantic relations prevail in discourse: those expressing ideas or those expressing locutions?

RQ03: Are there any identifiable patterns and/or structural differences in the use of projection?

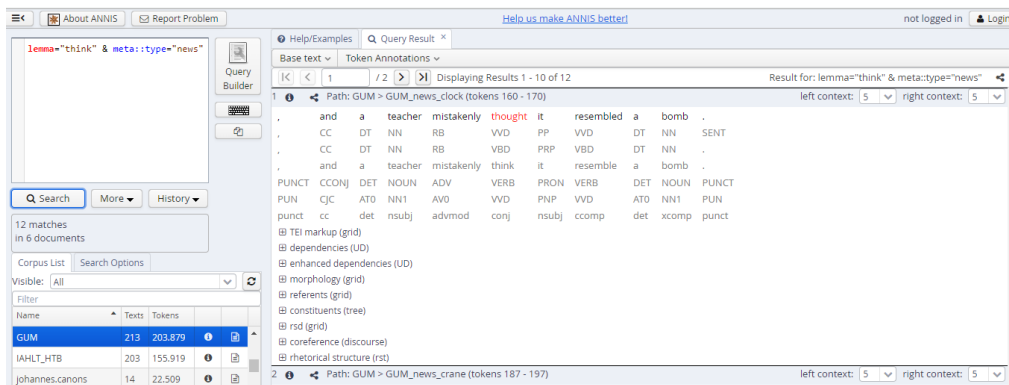
The whole of section 3 will focus on answering these questions. The main issues that will be addressed in order to do so are: (a) the frequency of each type of projection in both genres, (b) the frequency of use of each individual verb in both genres, and (c) how the relation works regarding taxis. Comparisons will be drawn through this section to determine whether there are significant differences between how the relevant relation works in narrative and journalistic texts respectively.

3.2 METHODOLOGY

Turning to methodology, this study follows a three-staged approach: collection of data (Stage 1), analysis of data (Stage 2), and drawing of conclusions (Stage 3). The use of the Georgetown University Multilayer Corpus (GUM), which is an open-source corpus that counts with multiple annotations including RST, has been crucial for the collection and the analysis of the data. Data collection will be based on the extraction of eight verbs: four of which are attributed to projections of thoughts (*think, wonder, want, believe*), and four attributed to projections of locutions (*say, reply, ask, tell*). Queries will be made using GUM formulas such as the one reproduced in (36) below, which will extract the corresponding tokens from the two discourse types under analysis:

(36) lemma="think" & meta::type="news"

Figure 8. Reproduction of example (36)



The query consists of different parts that are combined to show a specific result. In the case of (36), there are two different parts clearly divided by [&], a symbol which means that the conditions in the query must both be true. To comprehend how the GUM software works, it is essential to understand its terminology, so two terms (namely *lemma* and *meta*) are to be defined. A *lemma* is the dictionary form, or representative form, for all the inflections of a particular word; the inflections are grouped in a *lemma* via a process of *lemmatisation*. In (36), [lemma="think"] means that all the different forms of the verb *to think* will be considered for

the query (i.e., *think, thinks, thought*). *Meta* is an abbreviation of *metadata*, a term that includes the annotations made at document level. In (36), [*meta::type=“news”*] means that the type of text that will be considered for the query must be annotated as a *news article*. The whole query could be expressed in a phrase as: “the verb *to think* must appear AND the type of text must be *news articles*”.

Considering the previous explanation, the example query (36) would search among the data in the corpus to find examples of uses of the verb *to think* in journalistic texts. Then, by checking the different annotation layers on one of the examples, a layer called *rst* (*rhetorical structure theory*) can be found, which shows the RST analysis of the text, as illustrated in Figure 8. After collecting the data from the corpus, I have compared the results of each of the examples, performed an SFL logico-semantic analysis on the sentences containing the relevant verbs, and calculated the frequencies of the use of each type of projection in each type of text. The discussion of findings also includes a reflection on the frequency and structural differences across the logico-semantic relations under scrutiny.

The GUM corpus is composed of texts from various sources (e.g., news articles, wiki information, among others), the texts analysed are updated every three years. As of 2023, the corpus is made of 213 texts adding up to 203,879 tokens. The chosen texts to work with are international news articles (23 texts of around 900 words), and fictional narrative (19 texts of approximately 900 words), and they are texts with simple but rich language. Queries like the one previously discussed in example (36) have been done to localise the texts containing the eight relevant verbs. The information displayed in the corpus (number of times each verb appears and RST analysis of the texts, among others) is relevant, because the data will help in the development of statistics and showing patterns of usage among the chosen verbs. RST and SFL, with the considered additions, have been useful to show the structural differences between projection in the two genres, especially regarding taxis.

3.3 FINDINGS

This section displays the results obtained from the corpus queries, as well as the statistics that have been created to show any patterns or notable aspects in the projection relation. The data will be displayed using various tables, figures, and examples relevant to the three research questions. A discussion of the data presented in this section will be provided in the following one (3.4).

3.3.1 PROJECTION RELATIONS IN DIFFERENT CONTEXTS

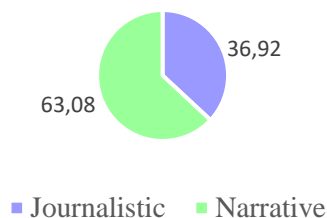
To answer the RQ01, data relevant to the usage of projection relations in narrative and journalistic texts respectively will be displayed here and analysed in Section 3.4.1. The table and figure below both display the presence of the eight verbs in both genres combined. It can be seen that projecting verbs are, generally, far more salient in narrative texts than in journalistic ones. This phenomenon can be graphically observed in Figure 9, as the percentage of projecting verbs' appearances in narrative texts is almost double than its counterpart's.

Table 6. Frequency of use of projecting verbs in both genres

	NUMBER OF TIMES THEY APPEARED	PERCENTAGE
Projecting verbs present in journalistic texts	127	36.92%
Projecting verbs present in narrative texts	217	63.08%
TOTAL:	344	100%

Figure 9. Frequency of projecting verbs across narrative and journalistic texts

Projecting verbs in narrative and journalistic texts



Analysing the frequency in which each verb appeared across both genres is useful to see which projecting verbs are more common. The least common of the verbs that were studied was *to reply* with only one occurrence out of 344 times that reporting verbs were used in total. On the other end of the scale, the most common verb is *to say* with an absolute of 183 appearances, which is over half of the total appearances of projecting verbs overall. The case of the verb *to wonder* is interesting because it only appears five times, and all five of those times it appears in narrative texts so, apart from being one of the least used verbs in the list, it never appears on journalistic texts.

Table 7. Frequency of projecting verbs

VERBS	NUMBER OF TIMES THEY APPEARED	PERCENTAGE
Say	183	53.20%
Think	48	13.95%
Want	42	12.21%
Tell	33	9.59%
Ask	24	6.98%
Believe	8	2.33%
Wonder	5	1.45%
Reply	1	0.29%
TOTAL:	344	100%

It is essential to also consider the frequency of use of each verb, regarding the total amount of verbs, in each of the genres separately, which is displayed in Table 8. Generally, the

Projection strategies in narrative and journalistic texts

relevant projecting verbs show up more frequently in narrative texts, except in the cases of *to believe* and *to ask*, since they have frequencies of 4 and 1, respectively. The difference in the use of projecting verbs between both genres is quite clear, especially in the case of verbs associated to mental processes, as most of them show a difference in use of an almost 1/3 ratio, the narrative texts having the superior amount. The most common verb (*to say*) is approximately distributed in an even way among both genres. Table 8 below shows data relevant to the issues discussed here, and to data that will be further developed in subsequent discourse.

Table 8. Relative frequency of appearance of each projecting verb

VERBS	APPEREANCES	APPEREANCES IN JOURNALISTIC TEXTS	APPEREANCES IN NARRATIVE TEXTS
Say	183	77 (42.08%)	106 (57.92%)
Think	48	12 (25%)	36 (75%)
Want	42	10 (23.81%)	32 (76.19%)
Tell	33	14 (42.42%)	19 (57.58%)
Ask	24	9 (37.5%)	15 (62.5%)
Believe	8	4 (50%)	4 (50%)
Wonder	5	0 (0%)	5 (100%)
Reply	1	1 (100%)	0 (0%)

The data previously displayed in Figure 9 shows a significant difference in the frequency of appearance of projecting verbs between the two types of texts. Projection verbs appear almost twice as frequently in narrative texts than they do in journalistic ones. These results align with the initial hypothesis supported by Matthiessen & Teruya (2015: 252), and Caldas-Coulthard (1992: 69), since there are less restrictions on projecting in narrative texts. Another fact that supports this claim is that almost all of the relevant verbs, individually, also appear more frequently in narrative texts, as displayed in Table 8 above.

3.3.2 DIFFERENCES AND SIMILARITIES BETWEEN PROJECTION OF LOCUTIONS AND IDEAS

To answer RQ02, a comparison between the use of projection verbs of locutions and ideas must be drawn. Studying the use of projecting verbs in both genres separately is necessary to understand which kinds of verbs are more proliferous in each of them. This information can be found on the tables below. In both narrative and journalistic texts, projections of locutions are favoured; however, the difference in the percentages is quite notable. Tables 9 and 10 suggest that projection of ideas is around 15% less common in journalistic texts than it is in narrative ones, as illustrated in Tables 9 and 10; this was to be expected as explained in section 1, since objectivity in the retelling of a story does not allow for personal thoughts to appear in the text, as they may be subjective. The high frequency of locution projections in journalistic texts is to be expected, as Matthiessen and Teruya (2015: 239) concluded in their study, and as the research by D. M. F. Torck (1999) also explains.

Table 9. Projecting verbs in news articles

VERBS	NUMBER OF TIMES THEY APPEARED	PERCENTAGE	PERCENTAGE OF COMBINED SETS
Think	12	9.44%	Projections of ideas: 20.46%
Want	10	7.87%	
Believe	4	3.15%	
Wonder	0	0%	
Say	77	60.64%	Projections of locutions: 79.54%
Tell	14	11.02%	
Ask	9	7.09%	
Reply	1	0.79%	
TOTAL:	127	100%	

Table 10. Projecting verbs in narrative texts

VERBS	NUMBER OF TIMES THEY APPEARED	PERCENTAGE	PERCENTAGE OF COMBINED SETS
Think	36	16.59%	Projections of ideas: 35.48%
Want	32	14.75%	
Wonder	5	2.30%	
Believe	4	1.84%	
Say	106	48.85%	Projections of locutions: 64.52%
Tell	19	8.76%	
Ask	15	6.91%	
Reply	0	0%	
TOTAL:	217	100%	

3.3.3 PATTERNS

In order to find whether patterns exist (RQ03), differences regarding taxis have also been considered and analysed. The results of said scrutiny are represented in Tables 11 and 12 respectively. The analysis has considered the frequency of both paratactic and hypotactic projection for each verb, as well as the differences between the two groups of verbs (namely projections of locutions and projections of ideas), in order to find any patterns or considerable differences between them.

Table 11. Taxis of projection verbs in journalistic texts

VERBS	TOTAL NUMBER OF OCCURRENCES	INSTANCES OF PARATACTIC PROJECTION	INSTANCES OF HYPOTACTIC PROJECTION	
Think	12	0 (0%)	12 (100%)	Projection of ideas: 26 - paratactic: 0 - hypotactic: 26
Want	10	0 (0%)	10 (100%)	
Believe	4	0 (0%)	4 (100%)	
Wonder	0	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	
Say	77	34 (44.16%)	43 (55.84%)	Projection of locutions: 101 - paratactic: 37 - hypotactic: 64
Tell	14	2 (16.67%)	12 (83.33%)	
Ask	9	0 (0%)	9 (100%)	
Reply	1	1 (100%)	0 (0%)	
TOTAL:	127	37 (29.13%)	90 (70.87%)	

Table 12. Taxis of projection verbs in narrative texts

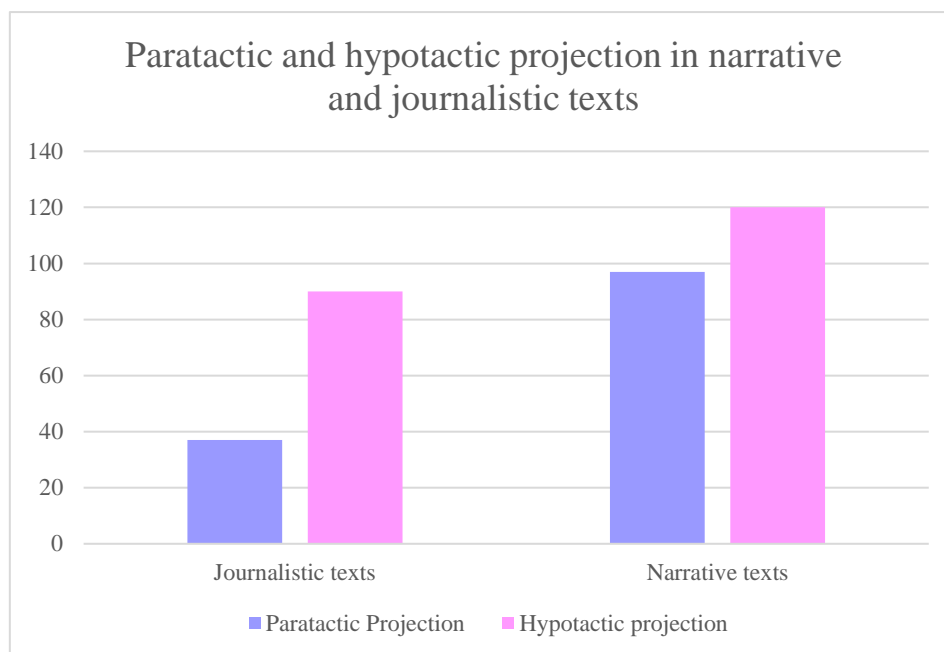
VERBS	TOTAL NUMBER OF OCCURRENCES	INSTANCES OF PARATACTIC PROJECTION	INSTANCES OF HYPOTACTIC PROJECTION	
Think	36	1 (2.78%)	35 (97.22%)	Projection of ideas: 77 - paratactic: 1 - hypotactic: 76
Want	32	0 (0%)	32 (100%)	
Wonder	5	0 (0%)	5 (100%)	
Believe	4	0 (0%)	4 (100%)	
Say	106	86 (81.13%)	20 (18.87%)	Projection of locutions: 140 - paratactic: 96 - hypotactic: 44
Tell	19	1 (5.26%)	18 (94.74%)	
Ask	15	9 (60%)	6 (40%)	
Reply	0	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	
TOTAL:	217	97 (44.70%)	120 (55.30%)	

The data displayed in the tables above shows predominance of hypotactic projection in both genres. However, there is a significant difference between them, as shown in Figure 10 below.

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The difference between the use of paratactic and hypotactic projection is much greater in journalistic texts with a difference of around 40% between them, while in narrative texts, this difference is around 10%. Thus, even if both genres favour hypotactic projection, in the context of this project, it is more favoured in journalistic texts.

Figure 10. Comparison between paratactic and hypotactic projection in both genres



Another factor to be considered is the difference between verbs of locutions and verbs of ideas regarding taxis. The data above shows a trend favouring paratactic structures in projections of locutions, especially in the case of narrative texts. In fact, the case of projections of locutions in narrative texts is the only one in which paratactic projection is more common than its hypotactic counterpart. This means that most (around 68.57%) of the dialogue in narrative texts is presented in a direct way.

3.4 DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

A discussion of the results is presented in this section. The following subsections are guided by the data drawn in the former sections and studies by other authors, and they tackle points that are relevant to the research questions presented in 3.1.

3.4.1 PROJECTION RELATIONS IN DIFFERENT CONTEXTS

The data presented in the previous section in Tables 6 to 8, as well as Figure 9, shows a clear difference in the use of projecting verbs in the different genres, especially in the case of verbs associated with projection of ideas. The fact that mental verbs appear less in journalistic texts can be explained by associating it with the argument presented by D. M. F. Torck (1999) in their study that was mentioned before: the argument of objectivity and authority. If one uses projection of ideas in the first person (i.e., giving one's own opinion), any story will appear as more subjective, while using quotations gives credibility or authority to the story; this factor that is quite important in journalistic texts, as they narrate events in order to inform of whatever happened. Therefore, the journalist making comments in first person, interjections to the reader, or explicitly giving their opinion is quite uncommon, because veracity could then be questioned because of the subjective contents that would be present.

The case of the most proliferous verb (i.e., *to say*) must be discussed. The verb *to say* has a wide range of uses, being one of the most common verbs in the English language ("say, v.1 and int." *OED Online*), its use is expected in both journalistic texts, as quotes are essential to them, and narrative ones, as there is a tendency to reproduce dialogue within them. The importance of locutions in journalistic texts has been discussed before in the study, and it can be easily understood, as news reports usually involve other people (e.g., the Prime Minister of a country) giving conferences or interviews, of which quotes would be extracted to inform the public of the contents of said interview. In the case of narrative texts, dialogue is usually a way

for writers to have their characters interact in a story; a point that is central to character development is seeing how they react to their environment and how their relationships with other characters shift (or not) throughout the story.

3.4.2 DIFFERENCES AND SIMILARITIES BETWEEN PROJECTION OF LOCUTIONS AND IDEAS

In this section, there are two verbs that must be highlighted, namely, *to say* and *to believe*. The case of *to say*, the most common verb, is an interesting one. As previously mentioned, it was expected that this verb would have a high rate of appearance. What is interesting about it in this study is that in each of the genres, the verb *to say* accounts for around half of the appearances of all projecting verbs. This means that, in both cases, the verb *to say* predominates in the two genres under scrutiny as projector of locutions. In contrast, *to think* and *to want* are the most common projecting verbs of ideas, and there is a great difference in their frequency of appearance between both types of text. In journalistic texts, these verbs combined appear a total of 22 times (17.31%), while in narrative texts they appear a total of 68 times (31.34%). Even when combining the two most common verbs of ideas, they do not come close to the results obtained on the analysis of the frequency of the verb *to say*.

The case of the verb *to believe* is a curious one as, contrary to expectations, it appears 4 times in each type of text, emerging with a higher frequency in journalistic texts (a 3.15% compared to the 1.83% in narrative texts). These results seem to contradict the idea that personal thoughts are less common in journalistic texts in order to maintain an objective narration. It seems contradictory to think that being a verb linked to thoughts, it would appear with a higher frequency in the text type in which they are less common. However, analysing the four instances in which *to believe* appears in journalistic texts revealed that three out of the four times it was linked to a previous projection of dialogue (reproducing someone else's

thoughts), and the remaining occurrence was a projection of a general belief, as illustrated in examples (37) and (38) below.

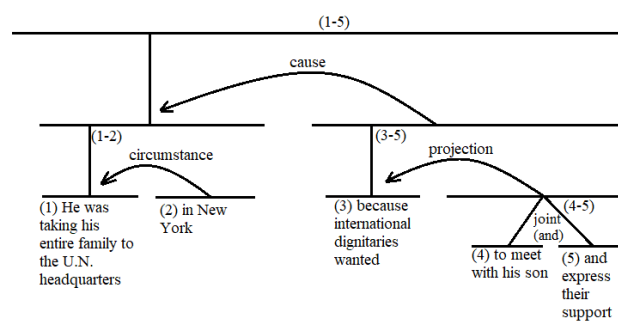
(37) New Zealand's Prime Minister John Key said he believes redesigning the flag now has a "strong rationale".

(38) Its round shape symbolizes wealth and good fortune and is believed to bring good luck.

Some other examples extracted from the GUM corpus may help to better appreciate differences in the use of these verbs depending on the genre. Both the RST and SFL analyses regarding projection will be annotated by myself, keeping the units of analysis provided by the GUM software, since the corpus does not recognise projection relations as such, as it does not take SFL relations into account when performing the RST analysis.

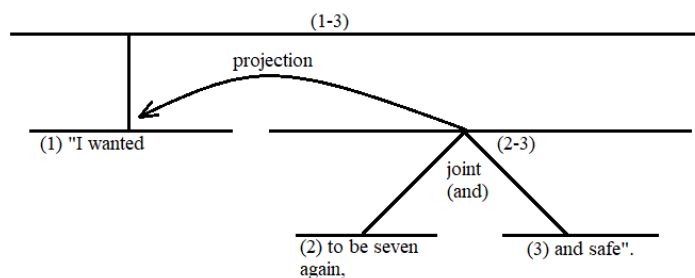
(39) “[...] He was taking his entire family to the U.N. headquarters in New York because international dignitaries wanted to meet with his son and express their support.”

Figure 11. RST analysis of (39)



(40) “I wanted to be seven again, and safe.”

Figure 12. RST analysis of (40)



Example (39) was extracted from a news article, while example (40) is a fragment of a narrative work. The first important difference between them is that (39) is written in the third person plural [*they*], and (40) is written in the first person singular [*I*]. This is an important aspect because while narrative texts can be easily found narrated in third person, journalistic texts that display first person reports are extremely rare. Regarding the relations that may accompany projection, they are varied and there does not seem to be any constraints affecting the combination of relations. In (39) there are three RST relations at work, namely *cause* between the text spans [1] and [2-4], projection between [2] and [3-4], and joint between [3] and [4]. In (40) there are two relations, namely projection between [1] and [2-3], and joint between [2] and [3]. In the table below, the SFL analyses of these two examples can be observed. If one compares both types of analyses for this example, it is clear that the different units of analysis or spans behave the same way (i.e., they are distributed in the same pattern, creating the same divisions or spans) in both types of analysis, as well as the dependency relations. This proves once again that these analyses complement each other well, and do not contradict themselves in any way. Using both allows the reader to graphically see the dependency relations in RST, and easily identify the type of projection relation (either locution or idea) due to the clarity and simplicity of its symbols.

Table 13. SFL analysis of (39) and (40)

EXAMPLE	UNITS OF ANALYSIS	SFL ANALYSIS	
(39) “[...] He was taking his entire family to the U.N. headquarters in New York because international dignitaries wanted to meet with his son and express their support.”	He was taking his entire family to the U.N. headquarters in New York	α	$\alpha \ x\beta \ (\gamma \ ' \delta \ (1 + 2))$ or $\alpha \ x\beta \ \gamma \ x\beta \ ' \delta \ 1 \ x\beta \ ' \delta + 2$
	because international dignitaries wanted	$x\beta \ \gamma$	
	to meet with his son	$x\beta \ ' \delta \ 1$	
	and express their support.	$x\beta \ ' \delta + 2$	
(40) “I wanted to be seven again, and safe.”	I wanted	α	$\alpha \ ' \beta \ (1 + 2)$ or $\alpha \ ' \beta \ 1 \ ' \beta + 2$
	to be seven again,	$' \beta \ 1$	
	and safe.	$' \beta + 2$	

3.4.3 PATTERNS

As previously illustrated in Tables 11 and 12, as well as Figure 10, hypotactic constructions are curiously favoured in the case of journalistic texts. This means that paraphrasing is the preferred option in contrast to direct quoting, which was an unexpected finding for news articles, but not necessarily inexplicable. Previously, it was mentioned that quoting gives authority and veracity to the (re)telling of a story, an argument drawn from D. M. F. Torck (1999), so it would be logical to use them as much as possible. However, overusing direct projections of locutions may handicap the experience of reading the text, as they may seem excessive to the point in which no new information is provided. That is why paraphrasing is a beneficial resource to create a text that is more cohesive, as the information is packaged and redistributed in a way that is better understood by the reader. This approach, however, has some disadvantages as well. A reader may find that the excessive use of paraphrasing, or the

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presence of quotations that are not well contextualised may appear as an attempt of manipulation. Thorne explains that sometimes, interview data does not express reality, but what the researcher wants to hear (Thorne, 2020: 4); something similar could happen in the case of hypotactic projection in news reports, (re)organising and summarising the contents of locutions could change the perception that the reader receives, as it erases or changes part of the context that may affect the meaning of a statement. Thus, modifying the original contents of a given text, or even modifying its context, may severely alter the original intended meaning.

The other pattern that was established is the use of paratactic projection of locutions in narrative texts, opposite to this kind of projections in journalistic texts that was just discussed. Examples below extracted from GUM are crucial to clearly show how the differences in taxis can be appreciated in the text, as well as how the relations present tie the text together.

(37) Basya also believes the asylum seekers found in the water may have left the boat on purpose to be rescued to avoid being sent away from Indonesia waters.

(38) I wondered if anyone ever went back under the bleachers, if there were crickets or mice there.

(39) Discussing his concern in a public statement, Malaysia's Prime Minister, Najib Razak said, "We are in contact with all relevant parties, with whom we share the desire to find a solution to this crisis".

(40) "It's just that there are more children in the world now," he said.

Examples (41) and (42) are hypotactic projections, and (43) and (44) are cases of paratactic ones. (41) and (43) belong to news articles, while (42) and (44) were taken from narrative texts. It is also important to note that the use of the first person is not usual in journalistic texts, but it is more common in narrative ones, as exemplified in (42). In these examples, the texts belonging to the journalistic genre appear to be longer, but not necessarily

more complex (i.e., holding more types of relation within them). In the case of (41), the relations at play are projection, cause, and circumstance; and in the case of (43) the relations present are circumstance, projection, and motivation. As for the texts belonging to the narrative genre, (42) presents relations of projection, circumstance, and condition; and in (44), the relations present are projection and circumstance. In these examples the cases of hypotactic projection are ones of projection of ideas, while the instances of paratactic projection are projections of locutions; however, this is not a general pattern that can be applied to projection, at least not in this study, as illustrated by the data presented in Section 3.3.3. Note that exhaustively analysing the complexity in the relations of a bigger sample of texts may lead to different results than the ones described here.

CHAPTER 4: CONCLUSIONS AND FURTHER RESEARCH

This study has explored the use of projection in narrative and journalistic texts, using a framework that combines SFL and RST and contrasting the use of such a strategy across the two text types under scrutiny. More specifically, our focus has been on their frequency of appearance and their structural differences regarding taxis in order to answer the three research questions (Section 3.1).

- 1) How do projection relations work in different contexts and situations?
- 2) What type of logico-semantic relations prevail in discourse: those expressing ideas or those expressing locutions?
- 3) Are there any identifiable patterns and/or structural differences in the use of projection?

The first question cannot be fully answered as it is too broad. The fact is that this study covers only part of an immense quantity of contexts and situations that this particular relation could be in. Nevertheless, the theoretical affirmations that set the basis for the analysis, and

the conclusions regarding RQ01 can be modulated into more specific statements to fit our object of study as follows:

- Projection relations can be paratactic (direct) or hypotactic (indirect), or both may occur in the same sentence, provoking the “nesting” phenomenon.
- They involve mental and verbal processes, as well as another type of projection involving fact, which has four subtypes (namely fact, proof, chance, and need).
- They are less restricted in the context of narrative texts than they are in the context of journalistic ones.
- Within the context of the eight chosen verbs, the trend is to favour projections of locutions over those of thoughts, and especially those containing the verb *to say*.
- Regarding the eight relevant verbs, there is a trend to favour hypotactic projection over paratactic constructions, except the case of projection of locutions in narrative texts.

The second question has a clear answer going by the data reported on in this dissertation. It has been shown that projections of locutions are more prolific in both genres. The main contributor to their higher frequency was determined the verb *to say*, which was responsible for around half of the total of projection occurrences. Other relevant verbs have been discussed for each genre. Worthy of mention is the case of *to believe* among others, as it surprisingly had a higher frequency of appearance in journalistic texts, a phenomenon that has been explained on the basis that these happenings were not ever referring to the personal beliefs of the writer.

The third and last question has also been answered throughout the dissertation (Sections 3.3.3 and 3.4.3). The first patterns discussed relate to taxis. They are well-established patterns in other studies (Matthiessen, 2002: 251), and they are as follows:

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- Locutions generally favour both paratactic and hypotactic projection, but there are differences across the genres under analysis. Narrative texts have a higher incidence of paratactic projection, whereas in journalistic texts, hypotaxis prevails.
- Projection of ideas generally favour hypotaxis across the two text types, especially projections of thoughts.

All in all, the main conclusion of this investigation is that projection behaves differently in narratives and journalistic discourse. Further research, however, is necessary to expand the analysis. Larger corpora sampling different discourse types should be investigated to uncover additional features of the manifold dimensions of projection. Likewise, a larger sample of projection verbs could be investigated to compare and contrast their behaviour and features in relation to projection. Another interesting area of research could be to compare projection with other logico-semantic relations, investigating the different implementations of each of them, which would help to better define the way in which projection works in comparison to other RST relations. Other interesting issues that could be studied are how projection relations differ across languages or how their interpretation may be affected by word order or by the relative position of Nucleus and Satellite, among other factors, in a similar fashion as in the studies by Gómez-González & Taboada (2021) and Taboada & Gómez-González (2012).

Ultimately, research should continue to unravel the richness of projection as a rhetorical device.

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