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Speakers Mood: perspective on students Communicative Genre

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ABSTRACT

The paper unveils that conversations among the students were characterized by complex exchange of statement of facts, or ideas which often conveyed via the device of declarative. Also, the participants engaged in requests, commands, exclamations and questions. These clause types convey the speakers' mood using the modal verbs. Modal verbs were used to assess speakers' attitude towards their propositions. The data for the paper was gotten from live debates produced by Sri Lankan secondary school students. The speeches were taped and transcribed into written variants so as to analyze it. English modals are so complex as they posed difficulty in their comprehension especially to English as a second/foreign language speakers. The polyfunctionality of modal markers seemed to be motivated by the Sri Lankan secondary school students' discourse community norms, conventions, goals and the grammar of English which were strategized by the speakers' communicative styles. The participants demonstrated their linguistic proficiencies through the mechanisms of unassertiveness, and persuasion so as to avoid total commitments to a particular point of view which they expressed. Overwhelmingly, the paper revealed that declarative clause was utilized.

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Introduction

This paper focuses on discourse – functional and cognitive functions of modal. It takes into account specifically the extent to which specific evaluative expressions and question types are applied by sequential contexts of interactional discourse by turn – taking in school debates. This task is therefore achieved through understanding functional definitions of modal markers in communicative genre typical of south Asian speakers. Halliday (1994) formulates the semantics of interpersonal metafunction along two axes, that is the axes of 'role in exchange', either giving or demanding, and the axis of 'commodity exchange', either goods and services or information. These dimensions give speech functions of 'offer' (i.e. giving goods and services), 'statements' (i.e. giving information), 'command' (i.e. demanding goods and services), and 'question' (i.e. demanding information), Halliday 1994:69). There is the third dimension to the interpersonal metafunction, i.e. whether a speaker is responding or initiating. These semantic categories are realized by grammatical mood options Martins et al (1997: 58). The interpersonal meaning of the clause is defined by the type of mood: indicative, imperative, and the modality which are realized via interpersonal interactions. Generally, people communicate for the sake of exchanging and understanding the mechanism of information. Some information have to be sought for through interrogation or question before they are released and in most conversations, questions or interrogations are primarily used to express a lack of information on a specific point and questions can determine how a conversation proceeds; they can sometimes determine who speaks next; attacks, shows attention, exhibits confidence or insecurity. Furthermore, certain questions are authority – based in that certain members of a society have the right to ask questions

and have them answered and this category of people include: doctors, police, teachers, etc.

In English, there are many classes of interrogative clauses. For instance, the Yes/No class; the Do – periphrasis; the use of non – assertive form; possessive and negative orientation and tag – questions and the wh – questions. In all these alternative question forms that are available in English, the wh – type seems to be more frequently used to elicit questions. The following are characteristics of Wh – class of questions which include: who/whom/whose/what/which/when/where/how/ or why; the positive orientation of this type of question include: who/what as the subject; the use of 'what' as a complement; the use of 'whose'; concerning ownership; the use of 'when' *time*, where *place*, 'how' *methodology*, and 'why' *reasoning*; the falling intonation, characteristics of wh – types of questions.

The alternative question type expects a decision to be reached in the answer from a choice of a selection that the speaker makes. This kind of question often resembles a Yes/No type, but the intonation is different (a rise on each list item in the sentence, except on the last). A Yes/No type can be converted into an alternative type with the addition of 'not' at the end. Whilst written questions nearly always follow the usual rules for interrogative sentences, in informal spoken English communication, the basic rules that apply to questions do not always follow. For instance, an auxiliary verb must come before the subject or *Do* should be used with, but questions may be asked with the same word order as a statement (declarative) and by using a rising intonation thereby converting it into a question. Ellipsis occurs where the auxiliary verb and even a pronoun may be absent but still functions as a question as in (1). (Are) you coming tonight?

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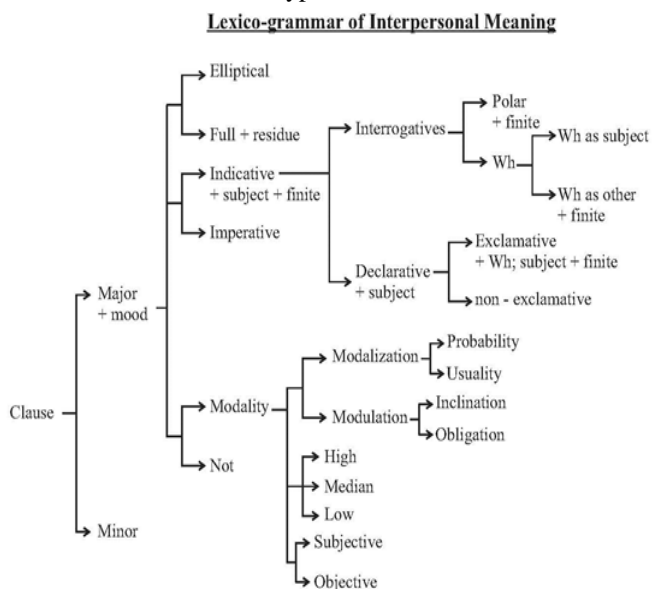
E-mail address: buluswayar@yahoo.com

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(2). (Are you) coming tonight? When a question of the *wh* – type is asked (asking what, where, how, whom, which, whose, when, why, or who), the answer cannot be Yes/No, because information is required in the reply. The use of *who* (as a subject or an object of a verb) and *whom* (as an object and as a preposition); the use of *whose* (as a determiner/pronoun), when asking about ownership; the use of *which* (when used as a pronoun or determiner) asking about specificity; the use of *when* (time and place); the use of *why* (concerning reason/necessity); the use of *how* (for methodology) and the use of suffixes to sound more emphatic such as whatever, whenever, etc. Sinclair (1997). The questions are those which the participants in the debates mutually agreed or supposed to answer. That is, they represent issues which the speeches deal with or resolve.

Two types of *wh* –interrogatives need to be explained: open question which seeks to elicit completion of a proposition from the listeners and closed question which presents a complete proposition for either support or rejection of the speakers' claims. In this paper, open questions are congruently realized by *wh* – questions while closed questions are achieved through polar interrogatives. Predominantly, both *wh* – questions and polar questions do not fulfill their semantic and pragmatic functions of seeking for information. Rather, they are conventionally utilized to serve communicative purpose of mild way of disputing opponents' claims concerning particular propositions.

Mood may be understood as the grammaticalization or lexicalization. First, of the speaker's attitude concerning the possibility or necessity of whether a given proposition is true or false, and second a modal source's attitude concerning the bringing about of a given event or situation. The main function of the modals is to enable speakers express their opinions of, or their attitudes to a proposition which consists of a wide range of possibilities such as obligation, asking for, giving permission, disapproval, advising, logical deduction, ability, possibility, and necessity, which could be expressed in four kinds of clauses namely: statements or declaratives, interrogatives or questions, commands or imperatives, interjections or exclamations. See the figure below indicating sub - classification of mood types.



Methodology

Sri Lankan secondary school students' communicative genre was used for this study. Specifically, it comprised live debates of both male and female debaters who engaged in

competitive and persuasive discourse. The speeches have been audio – taped using palm size Sony recorder. Each speech was first transcribed to a level of detail that captured all clauses, phrases and word fragments. Oral speech was transcribed because the language used became research data only if it was transposed from its original form of production to an activity in which it could be analyzed. Each turn was analyzed according to sentences and each sentence according to declarative, interrogative, imperative and exclamatory. Beyond this level of analysis, there were more complex levels as relationships between pieces of words were analyzed to build up definite units. For example, words to phrase and to clause. Labels were given to various levels according to their functions. As far as grammatical labeling is concerned, the researchers analyzed only level – verbs with particular reference to modals. In terms of processing modality to extract their meanings, the analysis was decomposed into: syntactic analysis, socio - cultural and semantic interpretations. For better results, both qualitative and quantitative research methods were adopted in the presentation and discussions of the results.

Results/discussions

Declaratives/statement

Declaratives are basically used to perform assertion. However, they occur unassertive and without change of meaning especially in jokes, loose talks, and free indirect speeches. Similarly, statements are sentence types where the subjects generally appear before the verbs. See illustrations below.

Excerpt (1). There are professional examinations in Sri Lanka. 'There' (preparatory subject), 'are' (verb), 'professional examinations' (complements), in Sri Lanka (prepositional adjunct).

Excerpt (2). They will lose those opportunities. 'They' (pronominal subject), 'will lose' (verb), 'those opportunities', (object complement).

Excerpt (3). Play lets are dignified. 'Plat lets' (subject), *are* (verb), *dignified*, (adjective complement).

Excerpt (4). 'We', (pronominal subject), 'have', (verb), 'three strong arguments', object being pre - modified by adjectives of number, 'three', and 'adjective of quality, *strong*, *for you* prepositional adjunct.

Excerpt (5). They came up here to insult our argument. *They*, (subject), 'came', (verb), 'up here' (prepositional adjunct).

Interrogation/question

In all societies across the globe, people communicate for the sake of exchanging and understanding information. Some information have to be sought for through interrogation or question before they are released and in most communicative contexts, questions or interrogatives are primarily used to express a lack of information on a specific point and questions can determine how a conversation proceeds; they can sometimes determine who speaks next; attacks, shows attention, exhibits confidence or insecurity. In a restricted sense, certain individuals such as doctors, police, teachers, lawyers, etc. possess the right to ask questions which may take a variety of ways. Interrogative is a term used in grammar to refer to features that form questions. Thus, an interrogative sentence is a sentence whose grammatical form indicates that it is a question. Such sentences are sometimes said to exhibit an interrogative mood thus treating interrogative as one of the grammatical moods, especially a type of epistemic mood.

Interrogative sentences are generally divided between yes-

no question, which ask whether or not something is the case (and invite an answer of the yes/no type), and wh- questions which specify the information being asked about using a word like: when, where, why, how which, etc.

Immediate forms are the choice question, disjunctive question or alternative question, which present a number of alternative answers; the Do – periphrasis; the use of non – assertive form; possessive and negative orientation and tag – questions and the wh – questions. In all these alternative question forms that are available in English, the wh – type seems to more frequently used to elicit questions, because wh – questions are most direct form of questions which explicitly indicate the speaker mood. The following are characteristics of Wh – class of questions of ho/whom/whose/what/which/when/where/how/ or why; the positive orientation of this type of question; who/what as the subject; the use of what as a complement; the use of whose; concerning ownership; the use of when *time*, where *place*, how *methodology*, and why *reasoning*; the falling intonation, characteristics of wh – types of questions.

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Responses to questions are often reduced to elliptical sentences rather than full sentences since in many cases only the information specially requested needs to be provided. Responses can be problematic. In English, for example, the answer, ‘no’ to the question, ‘Don’t you like sports?’, confirms that the respondent does not like sport.

Imperative/command

Imperative is a grammatical mood that forms commands or request, including the giving of prohibition or permission or any other kind of device or exhortation. An example of a verb in the imperative mood is ‘be’ in the English sentence as in please be quiet. Imperative of this type implies a second – person subject (you); some languages also have first and third – person imperatives with the meaning of ‘let’s’ or ‘let’ and these forms may alternatively be called cohortative and jussive. Imperative mood is often expressed using special conjugated verb form. Like other finite forms, imperatives often inflect for person and number. Second- person imperatives (used for ordering or requesting performance directly from the person being addressed) are most common, but some languages also have imperative form for the first and third- person. In English, the imperative is formed using the bare infinitive form of the verb. This is usually also the same as the second – person present indicative form except in the case of the verb ‘to be’ where the imperative is ‘be’ while the indicative is ‘are’. The present subjunctive always has the same form as the imperative, although it is negative differently – the imperative is negated using ‘do not’. The imperative form is understood as being in the second –person (the subject pronoun ‘you’ is usually omitted, although it can be included for emphasis), with no explicit indication of singular or plural. First and third – person imperatives are expressed periphrastically, using a construction with the imperative of the verb, ‘let’.

Imperative sentences sometime use different syntax than declarative or other types of clauses. There may also be differences of syntax between affirmative and negative imperative sentences. In some cases, the imperative form of the verb is itself different when negated. A distinct negative imperative form is sometimes said to be in prohibitive or vetative mood. Imperative are used principally for ordering, requesting or advising the listener to do something. This is also often used for giving instructions as to how to perform a task. They can sometimes be seen as signs, giving orders or warning. The use of the imperative mood may be seen as impolite, inappropriate or even offensive in certain circumstances. In polite speech, orders or requests are often phrased instead as questions or statements or rather than imperative as in, ‘Could you come here?’, ‘It would good if you come!’

Imperatives are used for speech acts whose function is essentially not to make an order or request, but to give an invitation, give permission, express a wish, make an apology, etc.

There is another imperative form that is used for general prohibition, consisting of the word, ‘no’ followed by the gerund form, as in, ‘No smoking’, ‘No parking’. This form does not have a positive form; that is, ‘parking’ by itself has no meaning unless use as a noun when it tells that parking is permitted. In other words, a common idea about imperatives is that they denote propositions and they contain a force marker which is used to place a requirement on the addressee. The following presents command or imperative in a clause type

which possesses an imperative base verb and it does not end in either a number or tense as seen in the following:

Excerpt (1). Let me give three strong arguments about the objectification.

Excerpt (2). Let's take for example the er - the er - examples that er - er - side proposition has been carrying on today.

Whether 'let me' (listener exclusive) or 'let us' (listener inclusive) as demonstrated above, is a polite imperative used to explain that points raised in the arguments are genuine. Additionally, 'advice' is expressed using the modal verb, 'should' and it belongs to the broad category of imperative in that the semantic and indeterminacy are resolved in favour of the hearer because the speakers communicate that the state of affairs described is desirable not from the perspective of the speakers but the hearers points of view. For instance,

Excerpt (3). So, the feminist movement should not support the playboy.

Excerpt (4). The government should be responsible enough to ensure that the music industry does not incur these losses.

The difference between items in clauses (1) & (2) and (3) & (4) is the position of the speakers. While in (1), the listener is exempted, in (2), a kind of partnership is employed which of course makes it a very polite command. Again, in (3) & (4), weak obligation is rather employed which could mean that, 'although you did not do, it is right you (listeners) do so'. In the communicative genre under investigation, all the imperatives expressed are stated in positive jussive clauses and used to encode advice or opinions; they are not employed in the authoritative manner of the speakers over the audience which indicates that all members of discourse community have equal social status despite the variations in the levels of education and social roles they occupied.

Exclamation/interjection

Exclamation is a clause type in which a speaker's feeling or attitude is expressed as in the following excerpts:

Excerpt (1). How can we demean the role of a teacher? *No!*

Excerpt (2). Ladies and gentlemen, would you demolish the universities just because more people are getting out of them? *No!* (Fourth speaker proposition)

Although the speaker is not quoting a particular assertion, s/he is reacting to what might look like a response to close range insinuation from the previous speakers.

Excerpt (1) is a remark made by the second speaker Proposition which is a response to an earlier assertion made by an opposing team. The second speaker quotes the first speaker opposition verbatim in order to demonstrate his/her exact attitude in which he/she has a vehement objection, hence the remarks, *no!*

Excerpt (3). Now they also came up here and told us that if feminist movement is going to endorse play boy er - then they need to become ok, and that interest is going to coincide ladies and gentlemen. But we say, *no!*

Excerpt (4). So, at the end of the day, the biggest function the side proposition made and that undermine the entire case is that women objectifying themselves for their pleasure. We say, *no!* It's a fallacy ladies and gentlemen.

Excerpt (5). So, they asserted that Beyoncé acting that way is for the pleasure of men... *No!* It is for the pleasure of the women.

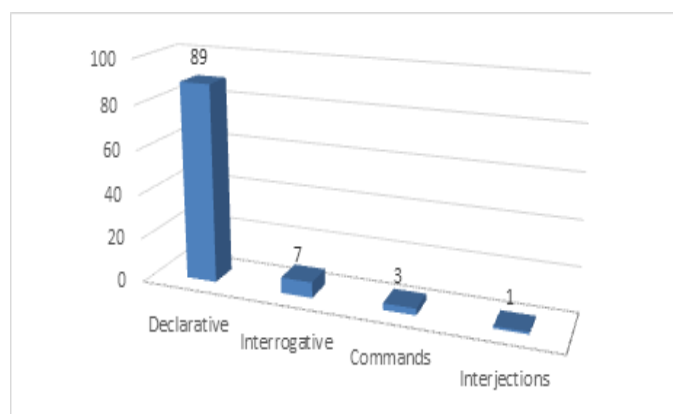
Excerpt (6). Now, two things happened here that there has been a crime that has occurred, but the person using other instances that the government pays compensation when crime occurred. *No!* Government didn't give compensation to you because

your husband was murdered. The government gave you because it was a legal system.

Excerpt (7). Then, er - I will like to say, er - sir compensation should not be interpreted in a limited concept where you go to music person and say, 'here is the money that government downloaded'. *No!* Sir, let's look at this matter compensation in a broader way.

In the entire excerpts above, the counteractions have always been 'no!' Where the speakers have played dual roles: speakers and audience. It is a typical argumentative discourse strategy in which the speakers have indicated a clear demonstration of outright rejection of opponents' opinions concerning certain acclaims. As indicated in the statistics below, the number of exclamatory clauses used in the debate is the least, and they are used to encode judgment or evaluation of events. This indicates that the participants' interpersonal relationship do not deter them from expressing personal judgment concerning propositions.

Figure 1. Frequency of Mood Types



The overwhelming choice of declarative as against other alternatives in the students' communication genre is premised on giving information and conveyance strategy which is used in demonstrating certainty in argumentation. As a discourse type, the debates are characterized by a variety of speech functions where speakers invariably play the roles of transference in the process presentation. For instance, commands are realized through declarative mood. Consequently, the debates are characterized by soft tones, and the social distance between the speakers and the audience is made close so that the audience is carried along in the interactions. Furthermore, the possible cause of the speakers' choice of declarative mood as against other alternatives is anchored on the fact that the debaters play dual functions: speakers and audience. For instance, they ask questions and answer them at the same time. This discourse production strategy makes the whole exercise dialogic thereby involving the audience and making the debates look real. Additionally, the reason for high occurrence of declaratives is an indication that information is meant to initiating, continuing, or responding to information in the grammatical realization which is encoded both in full declaratives and elliptical ones. Full declaratives are mainly used to initiating, or continuing the exchange, while elliptical declaratives are used in responding to opponents' assertions. Furthermore, the strategy of using of tagged declaratives serves the function of confirming that pieces of information are not just accepted by the opposing team, rather, they are viewed as oppositions' mere opinions which have to pass through verbal scrutiny.

Modality

Expressing modality in English, i.e. the speaker's attitude towards what s/he says (Palmer 1979) or the manner in which the meaning of a clause is qualified so as to reflect the speaker's judgment of the likelihood of the proposition of the sentence being true, Quirk et al (1985), or in Halliday's (1970) words, 'the speaker's assessment of the probability of what he is saying' (p, 189). Semantically, modality may cover an open-ended list of modal utterances, including non-modal verbs, adjectives; possible/probably; certainly/possibly, etc. Grammatically, however, there is a closed set of verbs which are formally, semantically and syntactically identifiable. Even this closed set is so intricate that, 'there is perhaps, no area of English grammar that is both more important and more difficult than the system of modals' (Palmer 1979). The major difficulty lies with their anomalous and polysemous character as they can be described in terms of their formal and semantic functions, such as permission, inclination, possibility, necessity, etc. but they also convey psychological association, such as condescension, politeness, tact and irony Leech (1971). It follows that the analysis and classification of the English modal system is an arduous endeavor for most linguists and indeed the current researchers. However, modality that is dealt with in this portion of the paper is in connection with the formal modal verbs and tense-related forms.

Classification of Modals

Linguists approach the English modals in various ways, formally and logically. For instance, Halliday (1970) views modality as part of the interpersonal constituent of language and subsequently classifies the English modal auxiliaries in terms of modality and modulation (i.e. the ideational constituent of language. On the other hand, Lyons (1977) classifies them into epistemic modals, while Aziz (1991) characterizes epistemic modals as concerned with matters of knowledge, belief, or opinion rather than facts while deontic modality with the necessity or possibility of acts performed by morally responsible agents. Moreover, Palmer (1974) describes the English modals along two axes: (i) their inherent property to express a certain event in the present degree of knowledge, a guess, or a conjecture about a certain event in the present or past, and (ii) the source of their modality, being the subject of the sentence or one of the interlocutors in the discourse. Accordingly, Palmer (ibid) observes a distinction along two parameters: (a) epistemic/ non-epistemic (i.e., passing judgment on the proposition of the utterance, or not, and (b) orientation (i.e., subject or discourse-oriented). These parameters can be exemplified by:

A. Mary couldn't go to school yesterday (non-epistemic-subject-oriented).

B. Mary can't have gone to school yesterday (epistemic-discourse-oriented).

Deontic modals denote desires, wants, commands, obligations, necessity, undertaking and permission. They also exhibit a performative function and refer to the present time only El-Hassan (1990).

Value Modality

The second category of modality comprises values and is classified into medium, high, low and obligation mood markers.

The issue of futurity as modality is not settled amongst linguists. Although

The medium probability which consists of the following elements, 'will', and 'would' operate like other aspects of

language, so they can be analyzed from different semantic and contextual viewpoints. In English, they are regarded as small class of auxiliary verbs which can be distinguished from other verbs in that they have no participle or infinitive forms and they can undergo the subject-verb inversion.

'Will' can be used in a variety of ways as demonstrated in the following ways. It is mostly used to refer to the future, and to make request, promise, etc. Also, it emerges with the interrogative and declarative clauses, but when it is tied with declarative, it emerges future, Thornburg (2004).

See the following illustrations.

Excerpt (1). What will happen to those who have access to online academic journals?

Excerpt (2). So therefore, if you - if we allow the restriction of online academic journals, we will restrict this movement.

Excerpt (3). A child who grows watching television programmes such as *Punchi panchi* will never grow to be a criminal and TV programme such as several religious channels will help to enlighten a child.

Syntactically, the speaker of excerpt (1), makes a sort of polite and direct request in which the interrogative emerges as a tool to create illocutionary force, but semantically, the speaker does not perform the act of inquiry rather, s/he demonstrates a deliberate strategy meant to dismiss the claim made by the opposition. In case of (2), it is attested in the apodosis of a real conditional situation as the speaker expresses a necessity while in (3), an epistemic use of 'will' is used to indicate a strong certainty about the present event.

'Will' is naturally future since asking, imposing, granting, etc. are effective only at the time of speaking and not later than the time of speaking. Unlike volitional 'will', the future 'will' has no tentative implication. Moreover, it is only in the future sense that 'shall' and 'will' contrast at least in British English, for person, i.e. 'shall' occurs with the first person, and 'will' with the other persons. Even this contrast cannot hold strictly for, apparently, it is customary to use 'will', not 'shall' with combine persons that include the speaker as in; *Mary and I will attend an interview*. Dynamic 'will/shall' express volition, 'willingness,' and 'request'.

On the other hand, 'should' is not always the past tense of future or deontic 'shall'. It is possible to express past 'permission' or 'undertaking' by a lexical, e.g. permit/promise. Deontic 'should' and 'ought to' have similar denotations and thus, are interchangeable in their use for 'obligation', 'duty' or 'advice' (Swan 1980, p.550). Their meanings range slightly in strength from a suggestion to a statement about responsibility or duty Azar (1989). Evidence of this interchangeability is attested by the fact that 'should' answers statements and questions with *ought to* as in,

(a). You ought to take the right dose.

- I know, I should.

(b). Ought you to stay in the office all day?

- Yes, I should. (Thomson and Martinet, 1979, p.135).

Linguists have argued that 'would' and 'should' do not appear to be formally their past counterparts. According to this view, the appearance of 'would' in reported speech represents a formal back-shift. 'Would' may also be used in different ways as shown in the following excerpts:

Excerpt (1) while in the nineteenth century, would the woman objectify sexually?

Excerpt (2) you are making sure extra stock which you wouldn't have had anyway...

In (1), the use of the future in the past is achieved through the modal verb *would* which looks syntactically interrogative, but it is a conventional speech technique that the speaker actually meant to debunk an earlier claim by the opposing team.

The next category of modal analyzed is that of low probability value namely: 'can' and 'could'. The modal verb, 'can' is used with declarative and interrogative clauses; this modal can express ability, possibility and permission. See the following excerpts.

Excerpt (1). Can we go er – er – er - can we really call upon the government to compensate all these?

Excerpt (2). Marriage counseling gives knowledge about birth controlling method and sexually infections transmitted, but my point is that we can get same knowledge from the sexual education.

Excerpt (3).Where can we empower these women?

Excerpt (4).The man is in self – imposed position but somehow, we don't look to demand and say, 'look, he is, he is weak' because he can't get out of the situation.

In (1 and 2), syntactically, 'can' may be inflected for the past tense 'could' and in this context, it is used as an illocutionary force of request which could mean, 'let us find a common ground'. In (3), the interrogative clause indicates that the speaker is making an indirect speech act of request which can mean that the speaker is ready to cooperate with the listener. In (4), an aggravating force is imposed by the use of *can't*, expressing impossibility which threatens opponents' positive position about the proposition. Dynamically, *can* expresses various modalities, such as ability at the present or future time or general/theoretical possibility in addition to 'request, offers suggestions, invitations implied command', and others.

In all the examples above, the pragmatic use of 'can' and 'can't' by the speakers are aimed at stimulating the addressees' mindset. Epistemic 'can't' expresses highly negative likelihood as indicated in (4). In this context, the speaker presumably takes a positive step to prevent the action for which permission may not normally be granted.

'Should' is the next low probability value modal analyzed in this paper and it is used to express opinions, suggestions, preferences, logical deductions, ideas or moral obligations (advices) as demonstrated in the following illustrations.

Excerpt (1). So, Members of the House, we see that it has several detrimental effects because of the fact that it will actually lead views astray which is why we believe that this should be removed from there.

Excerpt (2).We say they are not justified as to why the state should accept.

Excerpt (3).So, understanding from counseling comes from other things that we should respect each person and we should listen to this person and we should talk with this person.

Excerpt (4). First of all, we are debating, we are debating the motion on the ground and therefore we believe at the end of the day, we should compensate illegal download in the internet.

From the illustrations above, illocutionary speech act of moral obligation is made in (1, 3& 4); opinion in (2). Predominately, the use of 'should' by the speakers has a close synergy with the communication culture of the discourse community of Sri Lankan secondary school debaters in which the speakers treat their listeners as members of an in – group, friends, or persons whose wants or desires are to preserve personality traits.

The next category of items analyzed (although not classified as modals) but can be considered as fora - participation by speakers in speech events are verbs that express feelings (*know, believe, and see*). See the excerpts below.

Excerpt (1). Mr. Speaker, we know that we are about making rational decision and the government should consider.

Excerpt (2).we actually know that this signing up to do work involves excessive mood.

Excerpt (3).We also know that Prime Minister Margaret Thatcher for example showed business to all women.

Excerpt (4).My dear brothers and sisters, TV has been a huge advantage to our life.

Excerpt (5).We think a feminist movement expresses an idea of a woman who is recognized in her own right as a character, as a person.

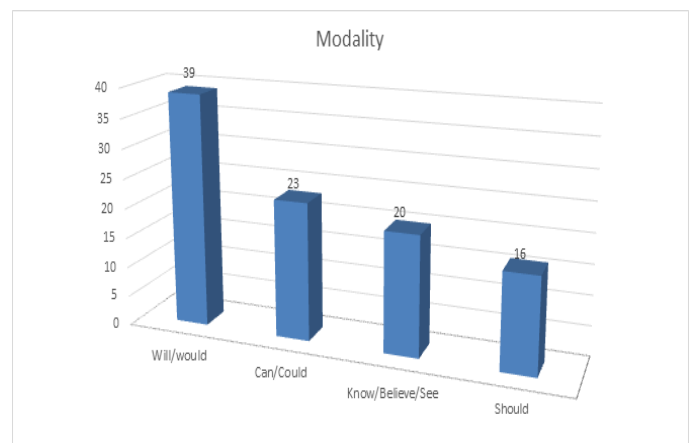
Excerpt (6).So, we think that it's very important and that in itself will lead to development of that religion.

Excerpt (7).We believe that the music industry is important within the economy of the country.

Excerpt (8).We believe feminism should target everything that affects every single woman.

See the frequency as indicated below.

Figure 2. Frequency of Modality Type



Based on the statistics, it could be seen that median probability value is employed in order to deliver the arguments so as to convince the audience as well as the debaters. In excerpts (1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, & 8) mental verbs such as (*know, believe, and see*) are used, which demonstrate that the speakers' communication strategy is meant to express a very high level of certainty which the debaters present themselves as sources of assessment. Additionally, the subjective use of discourse via the device of modality is a deliberate attempt to give prominence to the speakers' viewpoint which could be regarded as the best debate style. Meanwhile, the use of low probability modality value 'can/could' suggest that the debaters give premium to their points of view so as to highlight their beliefs. In line with this finding, Toulmin (2003), the probability is not only used as a means of qualifying conclusion and assertions, but also as indications of the strength of the backing. Also, in relation to Toulmin (ibid), it is the quality of the evidence or arguments at the speakers disposal which determines what sort of qualifier he/she is entitled to include in his/her statement. By the conclusion and assertions in the way the speakers do, they authorize their audience to put more or less faith in the assertions or conclusions.

Conclusion

In conclusion, the analytical attempt to present English modals reveals their intricate and ambivalent linguistic behavior both grammatically and notionally as they express a network of multifarious modalities, even with the same modal auxiliary, contingent on the different discourse contexts. Thus, they are not easily understood.

The common qualifications of modality involve – evidentiality and deontic modality. Epistemic modality stands for evaluation of certain hypothetical state of affairs. Qualification is traditionally considered to be proposition – oriented as well as attitudinal.

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