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Expressing Opinion in Newspaper Discourse

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Z á s a d y p r o v y p r a c o v á n í :

Cílem bakalářské práce je zmapovat výskyt hodnotících jazykových prostředků vyjadřujících stanovisko autora v diskursu novinových zpráv a porovnat jejich užití v anglickém seriózním a bulvárním tisku. Studentka nejprve na základě relevantní odborné literatury z oblasti lingvistiky představí jazyk médií, uvede jeho funkce a charakterizuje základní rysy diskursu novinových zpráv s ohledem na způsob prezentace informace. Dále vymezí evaluativní jazykové prostředky na rovině lexikální a popíše jejich distinktivní rysy z hlediska sémantického. Následně provede analýzu novinových článků seriózního a bulvárního tisku s cílem porovnat kontexty, ve kterých se hodnotící jazykové prostředky vyskytují. Na závěr autorka zdůvodní převažující tendence, objasní užití a funkce analyzovaných prostředků s ohledem na typ zkoumaných textů a jejich vliv na čtenáře.

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Annotation

This thesis focuses on the use of evaluative language in newspaper discourse. The theoretical part describes the language of media and its main characteristics. Furthermore, it focuses on the differences between the quality and the popular press. It also describes the functions and characteristics of newspaper discourse, news values and the evaluative language. Additionally, evaluative parameters are classified. In the practical part, findings from the theoretical part are applied to the particular newspaper reports, and the evaluative language is analysed.

Keywords

newspaper discourse; evaluation; press; media; language; opinion; meaning; parameter

Anotace

Tato práce se soustředí na použití hodnotících jazykových prostředků v diskursu novinových zpráv. V teoretické části je popsán jazyk médií a jeho charakteristickými rysy. Dále je definován rozdíl mezi seriózním a bulvárním tiskem. Teoretická část se také zabývá funkcemi a znaky novinového diskursu, zpravodajskými hodnotami a hodnotícími výrazovými prostředky. Na závěr jsou klasifikována hodnotící kritéria. V praktické části jsou poznatky z teorie aplikovány na konkrétní novinové články za účelem zmapování výskytu hodnotících jazykových prostředků v diskursu novinových zpráv.

Klíčová slova

novinový diskurs; hodnocení; tisk; média; jazyk; stanovisko; význam, parametr

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List of Abbreviations

Parameters

PoC	The Parameter of Comprehensibility
PoEm	The Parameter of Emotivity
PoEv	The Parameter of Evidentiality
PoEx	The Parameter of Expectedness
PoIm	The Parameter of Importance
PoMS	The Parameter of Mental State
PoPN	The Parameter of Possibility/Necessity
PoR	The Parameter of Reliability
PoS	The Parameter of Style

News Sources

DM	The Daily Mail
Mi	The Daily Mirror
TG	The Guardian
TI	The Independent
TS	The Sun
TT	The Telegraph

Introduction

This bachelor thesis focuses on expressing an opinion in the newspaper discourse by means of evaluative language. The aim of this paper is to monitor the occurrences of the evaluative expressions in the newspaper discourse and consequently deduce prevailing tendencies in the language of the press. In this paper, the terms *speaker* and *writer* are used interchangeably. The same applies to the terms *hearer* and *reader*.

This thesis is divided into two main parts, a theoretical and a practical part. The aim of the first part is to provide the theoretical background that is necessary for analysing the evaluative language in the practical part. First of all, the language of media is briefly described. Secondly, the language of broadsheets and the language of tabloids are contrasted in order to summarize the characteristics and functions of the newspaper discourse. Subsequently, the evaluative language is characterized. The stress is placed on news values and their classification. Several theories concerning the news values are compared and contrasted. Although those theories differ in the terminology, they fundamentally classify evaluative expressions on the basis of similar ideas. The most detailed part of the paper studies the evaluation in the media discourse based on the classification presented by Bednarek (2006). Core and peripheral evaluative parameters are introduced and described in order to provide sufficient evaluative criteria for the analytical part. The evaluative expressions representing individual parameters are illustrated by means of various examples. Finally, the influential functions of newspaper reporting are briefly characterized, with regard to the evaluative language used in newspapers.

The practical part focuses on analyzing the occurrences of the evaluative expressions in the sample of randomly chosen newspaper reports. For the purposes of the analysis, the classification introduced by Bednarek (2006) has been chosen. Firstly, a general introduction is included. Primary sources and evaluative criteria are briefly characterized. The frequency of the evaluators with respect to particular parameters in various news sources is described quantitatively. Afterwards, the analysis is carried out. The analytical part is focused only on the core evaluative parameters. Overall occurrences of evaluators in the selected articles are illustrated. Subsequently, the evaluative language is discussed and analysed with respect to individual evaluative parameters. The corpus data is classified on the basis of the theoretical background provided in the first part of this paper. Interpretations of selected examples and potential influential effects on a reader are discussed. The corpus data is analysed both quantitatively and qualitatively. In the process of analyzing, various aspects

of evaluative language are considered. Primarily, the agent of particular evaluative expressions is studied. To be more precise, it is specified whether the particular evaluation is provided by a journalist or an external source. Additionally, the evaluative expressions are classified in terms of the evaluative parameters. Consequently, a possible interpretation is suggested and a resulting impression is discussed.

Finally, prevailing tendencies concerning evaluative language in newspaper reporting are summarized. The tendencies are described with regard to the evaluative parameters which appear in the newspaper discourse most frequently. Moreover, various implications are based on the characteristic features and functions of newspaper discourse which are discussed at the beginning of this paper. The final results of the analysis and prevailing tendencies correspond with the theories and assumptions suggested in the theoretical part.

1 The Language of Media

The media play an important role in producing and spreading words in the society. According to Bell (1991, 1), the media are “dominating presenters of language”. Specifically, he claims news to be the primary language genre within the media. To fully understand the concept of the information presented in newspapers, the media discourse needs to be described.

Defined by Gee and Handford (2012, 449), the media discourse refers to interactions that take place through a broadcast platform, and it is oriented to a non-present reader, listener or viewer. Such interactions can be spoken or written, where the main difference is the communicative environment within which media happens (Goffman, 1981). This is related to the producers as well as the consumers of the message presented in the media. Gee and Handford (2012) comment on the written form to be produced by an author or a group of authors and distributed through a written medium to a reader or readers. On the contrary, spoken media discourse is based on a media person in a studio often interacting with a guest, and their interaction is broadcast through an audio or an audio-visual channel (Gee and Handford 2012, 449). On the basis of this classification, it is assumed that the written media discourse includes magazines and newspapers, whereas radio and television news broadcasting belong to the category of the spoken media discourse.

Characterizing the discourse of all media would provide a very complex classification of the language, and it would be very difficult to understand such general descriptions. Since the purpose of this paper is to study and analyse discourse in newspapers, only this type of media is discussed in the following chapters.

1.1 The Popular versus the Quality Press

Since there are different types of newspapers, it is difficult to describe the language used in the press in general. Danuta Reah (2002), who adopted the classification from Tunstall (1996), stating that newspapers can be divided into three groups: the broadsheet newspapers (such as *The Guardian* or *The Independent*), the tabloids (*The Mirror* and *The Sun*), and the middle-range tabloids (*The Daily Mail*). These three categories differ in various aspects, including the content and the form of articles. Whereas broadsheets tend to use a formal language and comment on serious events (such as political debates), tabloids usually contain information about celebrities and cultural life.

Broadsheets also aim at a specific type of audience. According to Tunstall (1996), “the broadsheets draw 80-90 per cent of readers from the middle classes, compared to around 60 per cent with the middle-range tabloids and 30 percent with the tabloids” (as cited in Reah 2002, 36). Bednarek (2006) adds that “...the readers of the quality press are, on the whole, better educated than those of the popular press.” (Bednarek 2006, 13). Therefore, the language of the news reports needs to be adjusted accordingly. Formal expressions and a wide range of vocabulary can be found in the quality press. Contrary to broadsheets, tabloid newspapers contain informal and simple language, in order to attract a reader’s attention. Based on the various types of audiences, broadsheets and tabloids differ also in the use of photographs and design. By presenting news in a distinctive way, newspapers maintain a certain image. The need for image is a decisive factor in persuading readers to purchase the issues. (Crystal 2002, 380) Presumably, if a certain standard of writing and content is maintained, readers subscribe to the specific kind of newspaper and purchase it regularly.

1.2 The Characteristics of Newspaper Discourse

This chapter is devoted to the features of the language in the news, and the fundamental characteristics of the newspaper discourse. According to Biber et al. (1999), the language of newspapers can be identified as one of the four major registers in the English language, along with spoken conversation, academic writing and fiction. Biber and Finegan (1997) suggest that modern-day newspaper style is significantly similar to academic prose in certain characteristics. However, there has been a shift and the newspaper prose acquired some oral features. For instance, colloquial expressions might be found in some newspaper reports. Additionally, Hundt and Mair (1999) researched on the new features that changed the newspaper prose in the past decades. They studied particularly the occurrences of first and second person pronouns, contractions, progressive aspect and phrasal verbs. A greater usage of these devices resulted in popularization of newspapers and a wider reading audience (Aitchison and Lewis 2003, 170).

Biber et al. (1999) suggest that the innovative changes in modern-day newspaper prose are mainly due to complex noun-phrase structures used in the texts. Similarly, Reah (2002, 73) discusses the importance of noun phrases in newspaper headlines. In order to attract a reader and briefly summarize the message of a whole report, the amount of information in the newspaper headlines needs to be reduced. The noun phrases are very efficient in this process. Reah (2002, 21) explains that the term for the main noun in a noun phrase is *headword*. Additionally, a modifier may be incorporated in the noun phrase.

Adding a modifier slightly extends the noun phrase but it also provides the headline with extra information that is necessary to carry the main message of the report. For instance, the headline “Facebook turning into giant digital graveyard” contains a noun phrase *giant digital graveyard*. The headword here is “graveyard”, and the modifiers “giant” and “digital” make the message more dramatic. Therefore, they are necessary for attracting the reader’s attention, which means they fulfil one of the functions of the newspaper discourse. As a result, it can be assumed that noun phrase structures are a distinctive feature of the newspaper style.

Moreover, Reah (2002) focuses on the newspaper discourse on the level of sentence elements, and considers a word order to be one of the most important aspects influencing the interpretation of a particular text. For instance, “relationship between the actor and the verb could be manipulated to create a particular emphasis or focus” (Reah 2002, 73). The information already known is usually placed at the beginning of a sentence, whereas the new information is placed at the end. In Example (A) *the problem* represents known information. This fact is indicated also by the definite article.

Example A:

The problem requires a complex solution.

To change the importance of the individual sentence elements, passive structures might be used. Changes in the word order and usage of passive voice consequently modify the final interpretation of the text, based on the position of emphasis in a sentence. Similarly, Dillon (1981) remarks that writers must master and choose the syntactic structures that allow them to vary *thematic prominence* and *information focus* in their texts (as cited in *Indeterminacy in Sentence Structure*, 2012). The term “thematic prominence” refers to the fact that some thematic roles are more central (or more accessible) than others to the action described by the sentence (Wanner and Kibbee, 1991). For example subjects are more accessible than direct objects; direct objects are more accessible than indirect objects, etc. The term “information focus” is defined by Halliday (1967) as “that whereby the speaker marks out a part (which may be a whole) of a message block as that which he wishes to be interpreted as informative.” (Halliday 1967). It conveys some kind of non-presupposed information. In Examples (B) and (C), below the information focus is placed on *Frank*.

Example B:

Do you know who did the homework?
(It was) **Frank** (who) did the homework.

Example C:

Every time we are given a task in my class I am the one who is conscientious, but this time (it was) only **Frank** (who) did the homework.

In both examples, *Frank* functions as a subject. Therefore, according to Wanner and Kibbee (1991) it is more accessible than *homework*. Similarly, information may be emphasised within a whole paragraph, not only within a sentence. Therefore, writers and journalists structure the text gradually, based on the informative value of individual pieces of information.

According to Fowler (1991), another distinctive feature of the newspaper discourse is its biased nature. He believes that newspaper reporting is not impartial, although journalists usually claim that they present facts in the language which is unambiguous and objective. Fowler (1991) disproves this theory of impartiality, stating that “events and ideas cannot be communicated neutrally, because they have to be transmitted through some medium with its own structural features that are already impregnated with social values.” (Fowler 1991, 25). This statement leads to the conclusion that the language used in the newspaper discourse is shaped by the certain economic, political and social circumstances under which journalists are working.

Additionally, Fowler (1991) comments on the ideological message which is conveyed by the newspaper discourse. Considering a form of the newspaper reports, not a content, he claims that the newspapers are full of promises, statements and judgements voiced by prominent people, such as reports of parliamentary debates, political manifestos, statements by the chairmen of large companies, et cetera (Fowler 1991, 23). He further develops his idea by mentioning that “powerful institutions provide the newspapers with modes of discourse which already encode the attitudes of powerful elite” (Fowler 1991, 23). Therefore, newspaper reports adopt and reproduce the attitudes of influential institutions. Due to this fact, reports without ideological features and bias are difficult, if not impossible, to be found. As an example, Fowler (1991) states that “the British Press is almost without exception strongly Tory in its political views, and there is no successful socialist newspaper” (Fowler 1991, 20-21). Since bias is a characteristic feature of newspaper reporting, it cannot be overlooked when the structure of the language in newspapers is to be discussed. The lack of impartiality in the newspaper discourse is closely related to the functions of the newspaper reporting, which are discussed in the following chapter.

1.3 Functions of Newspaper Discourse

This chapter focuses on the functions of a language as such, and additionally some functions of newspapers are described. According to Halliday (1973), there are three functions of a language: ideational, interpersonal and textual. The ideational function can be further divided into experiential and logical sub-functions, and is described as a language functioning as the means of conveying and interpreting experience of the world (Crystal and Davy 1969, 56-57). The interpersonal function deals with expressing one's attitudes and an influence upon the attitudes and behaviour of the hearer. The textual function is related to structuring a text. These three functions differ from those defined by Popper (1972, 267), who distinguishes the following functions: argumentative, descriptive, signalling and expressive (as cited in Halliday 1973). Although these two points of view differ, both are relevant for the main function of the language of newspapers, i.e. providing information.

As Minářová (2011, 161) suggests in her study of journalistic style on the stylistic level, there are four main functions of the newspaper language: to inform, to influence, to persuade, and to attract. An increased emphasis is placed on the informative function. The main purpose of newspapers is to effectively and accurately communicate a message to addressees of various social groups. The language used in newspapers endeavours to mediate information in the most intelligible and persuasive way in order to attract readers and hearers. Reah (2002) expresses a similar opinion. She claims that "newspaper articles are ostensibly news stories - they report information." She mentions that editorials comment, speculate and give opinion. Newspaper articles give some information about the original case, but the main part of the content is usually an opinion or a speculation.

Reah (2002) further describes newspapers as opinion formers. Equally, Halliday (1973) indicates that language only "lends structure to the speaker's or writer's experience and helps to determine his way of looking at things." It might be therefore assumed that the way in which newspaper reports describe some information can influence the public opinion. This fact is confirmed by the *Resolution 1003 on the Ethics of Journalism*, which states that "information and communication play a very important role in the formation of citizens' personal attitudes and the development of society and democratic life" (Parliamentary Assembly, Council of Europe 1993). However, the individual experience and associations must be taken into account. Newspapers have the responsibility to inform and enable people to make judgments about topical issues. That is why it is very important to have a press free of vested interests in order to allow readers to form their own opinions (Gerbner 1977, 79).

However, as has been suggested by Fowler (1991) in chapter 1.2, information in the press cannot be presented objectively without bias. Therefore, it is important for readers to search for particular information in different kinds of sources.

Additionally, the Ethics of Journalism document states that “journalism should not alter truthful, impartial information or honest opinions, or exploit them for media purposes, in an attempt to create or shape public opinion” (Parliamentary Assembly, Council of Europe 1993). Fowler (1991) alleges that this idea is widely held among journalists, as they usually claim that “...the newspapers present facts fairly and without bias, in language which is designed to be unambiguous, undistorting and agreeable to readers.” (Fowler 1991, 1). As has been stated above, Fowler challenges the claim about unbiased language, arguing that it is impossible to transmit ideas neutrally and unambiguously.

Reah (2002) studies the idea of the language functioning as a tool for persuasion even further. She takes into consideration the influence on readers in terms of its explicitness. Specifically, she explains that “...it is easy to resist a particular viewpoint or ideology when you know it is being presented to you, but not so easy to resist when the viewpoint or ideology is concealed” (Reah 2002, 54). Therefore, readers might be exposed to an ideological pressure without realizing it. This may be an essential aspect for forming their opinion, especially in case of articles dealing with political issues. For instance, the presidential elections in the USA serve as a popular topic for newspapers nowadays. In Example (D), it is obvious that the choice of vocabulary plays a substantial role in the resulting impression on a reader.

Example D:

Who can stop Trump? Republicans may have little choice but to vote Clinton

The party **could** change convention rules or bring in an independent candidate, but the **more realistic** (yet **unwelcome**) option **may be** to support a Democrat. (Appendix 2, Example 15)

The expressions *could*, *may*, *more realistic* and *unwelcome* convey the attitudes of the author of the article. *More realistic* comments on the probability, and *unwelcome* represents the emotions related to the situation. *Could* and *may* express the possibility. Although the resulting impression of the article might be unintended, it is obvious that readers are exposed to the negative message that is implied in the text from the very beginning. Therefore, it may be assumed that the reader’s opinion will be similar to that message conveyed by the text. This is true especially for readers who are not interested in politics and do not search for information presented by different sources. On the other hand, newspaper reports usually

reflect the emotions and attitudes that prevail in the society. For instance, a considerable part of population perceives Donald Trump as a potential threat. His talent for manipulation and persuasion makes the threat even more prominent. Therefore, it is understandable that journalists preserve the implied negativity, which accompanies the controversial speeches and behaviour of this politician.

The character of the message conveyed by a particular text is closely related to the sources from which authors gain the information. Bell (1991) remarks that journalists prefer “written sources which are already prefabricated in an appropriate news style and therefore require the minimum of reworking” (Bell 1991, 58) to the primary information that needs to be modified. Such written sources may include previous stories on the same topic. Therefore, the language is frequently recycled. Although the main function of newspaper language is to inform about new events, there are apparently some other less obvious effects of reporting stories. The influence of the language on readers is discussed later in this paper.

2 Evaluative Language

Evaluative language is used in order to express an author’s opinion or a point of view. While using particular devices, an author shows his or her emotions, judgements and personal attitudes. Evaluative language is an indispensable part of newspaper reporting. As has been discussed before, language of newspapers cannot be completely neutral and unbiased, since there are always some personal preferences reflected – either during the selection of the information which is to be presented, or in the process of writing an article and choosing particular expressions to make the article simultaneously informative and entertaining.

According to Thompson and Hunston (2000), the evaluation in language fulfils the following functions: “expressing speaker/writer opinions that reflect their value systems and those of their community, constructing relationships between speakers and readers, and organising text” (Thompson and Hunston 2000, 6). When these three functions are applied to news discourse, the evaluation may reflect “news values” (Galtung and Ruge 1965; Bell 1991). Therefore, the news values are described in the following chapter.

2.1 News Values

According to Hall (1982), events that are reported in the media are not naturally newsworthy in themselves (as cited in Bell 1991). They have to be selected on the basis of a set of criteria. These criteria are generally referred to as *news values*. “The more

newsworthiness criteria an event satisfies, the more likely it is to be reported” (Fowler 1991, 13). In order to study and describe evaluation in the news properly, the set of news values needs to be considered. As Bell (1991) indicates, the content and the form of news stories cannot be separated and discussed independently. News values are closely related to the function of the news stories. Bell (1991) distinguishes three groups of factors which affect the news values. The table below (Table 1) illustrates Bell’s classification of the three factors, and also the specific values within these groups.

Table 1 – News Values

Values in News actors and events	Values in the News Process	Values in the News Text
Negativity	Continuity	Clarity
Recency	Competition	Brevity
Proximity	Co-option	Colour
Consonance	Composition	
Unambiguity	Predictability	
Unexpectedness	Prefabrication	
Superlativeness		
Relevance		
Personalisation		
Eliteness		
Attribution		
Facticity		

Bell’s classification is patterned on the study of news values done by Galtung and Ruge (1965). Based on their observations, it can be assumed that the first category presented in the table above (news actors and events) is a fundamental aspect for judging a story to be biased or inaccurate (Bell 1991, 156).

2.1.1 Values in News Actors and Events

According to the Bell’s (1991) conception, the news values concerning news actors and events can be described as follows:

- NEGATIVITY includes deviances and conflicts, but also accidents and disasters, such as death, damage, or injury. According to Labov (1972, 370), these concepts make the stories newsworthy (as cited in Bell 1991).
- RECENCY is based on the idea that the best and newsworthy stories and events are the most recent ones because they have just happened. For the press and television/radio programmes, the day is the basic news cycle. Therefore, "...events whose duration or occurrence fits into a 24-hour span are more likely to be reported." (Bell 1991, 157).
- PROXIMITY relates to the geographical closeness of events. For instance, the information about upcoming mayoral elections is relevant only for the area around the town where those elections take place. Citizens living in towns and cities that are hundred miles away would find such report unimportant.
- CONSONANCE of a story is "its compatibility with preconceptions about the social group or nation from which the news actor come" (Bell 1991, 157). This news value is related to the patterns by which people perceive news events. For example, when there is a demonstration or a summit, it is expected they will develop in a certain way that is typical for that kind of event. Schank and Abelson (1977) mention as an example the inability of Western media to escape from a cold-war framework in reporting the changes in Eastern Europe during the years 1989-90 (as cited in Bell 1991).
- UNAMBIGUITY refers to the clarity of the story. Reports containing as many facts as possible are highly desirable. The more clear and factual information is included, the more favoured the story is.
- UNEXPECTEDNESS indicates the extent to which an event is unpredictable. One of the crucial attributes in news selection is being new and original.
- SUPERLATIVENESS guarantees that "the biggest building, the most violent crime, the most destructive fire gets covered" (Bell 1991, 157) because it is attractive for news reporting.
- RELEVANCE, as van Dijk (1988, 122) indicates, "is the effect on the audience's own lives or closeness to their experience" (as cited in Bell 1991). Journalist endeavour to modify a story in order to make it relevant for as many readers as possible. Any political debate or economic reform must be interpreted by means of commenting on the impacts on the life of ordinary people. Journalists should specify what the changes supposedly mean for the readers, for example that there will be wage restraints, wild

fluctuations in interest rates, or a gradual rise in the price of petrol. Relevance, however, shall not be confused with the value of proximity. Relevance is not bound to the geographical closeness, as e.g. many decisions relevant to military bases in Afghanistan are made thousands of kilometres away in Washington, DC.

- PERSONALISATION is connected to the newsworthiness of events and stories that are not generalized. Concepts presented from the viewpoint of the mass are not so attractive and touching for readers. Bell (1991) mentions the Janet Cooke affair as an example. Cooke wrote an article for The Washington Post about an eight-year-old heroin addict, but later it turned into a scandal of a fabricated story, as it was found out that the boy did not exist. Cooke even won a Pulitzer Prize in 1981 for that article but subsequently, she returned the prize after her secret was revealed. Therefore, it is obvious that there is a great power in personal stories rather than in general warnings and messages.
- ELITENESS is highly dependent on news actors. The newsworthiness can be enhanced when there is a reference to elite persons such as politicians or celebrities in the news. Another example could be “the elite nations of the First World that are judged more newsworthy than the non-elite nations of the South” (Bell 1991, 158).
- ATTRIBUTION proves that the news sources are more valuable when they are affiliated with some institution or organisation.
- FACTICITY is defined by Tuchman (1978) as “the degree to which a story contains the kinds of facts and figures on which hard news thrives: locations, names, sums of money, numbers of all kinds” (as cited in Bell 1991).

2.1.2 Values in the News Process

After defining the terms above, it is clear that the character of a story can be evaluated in a complex way, using many factors considering the content. The second category specified by Bell (1991) concerns primarily news gathering and processing, and is based on the study done by Galtung and Ruge (1965). There are 6 terms that need to be described:

- CONTINUITY relates to the tendency that “once something is in the news, it will stay there” (Bell 1991, 159). A story that is in newspapers could be presented from a different angle few days later.
- COMPETITION illustrates stories and the desire for coverage in the news market. “If the morning paper runs a story, the evening won’t unless it is very newsworthy.” (Bell 1991, 159). Competition may be incorporated in the same story with continuity,

for instance in case of an exclusive interview on a long-running story which can be interpreted or described from different angles.

- CO-OPTION means that a seemingly less important story can be presented with association to the more relevant and long-running story. For example, an increased coastal flooding could be interpreted in terms of global warming and subsequently gain the news value.
- COMPOSITION is related to the editors' effort to combine different kinds of news, such as overseas and domestic stories. This process of making up a bulletin guarantees that more readers will be interested in buying it.
- PREDICTABILITY is related to events which can be prescheduled for journalists and therefore are more likely to be covered than events that turn up unheralded (Bell 1991, 159). On the other hand, there is a contrast to unexpectedness, which has a higher news value.
- PREFABRICATION includes texts which enable authors to prepare reports in advance and require minimum of reworking. This aspect has already been mentioned in the last paragraph of subchapter 1.2.

According to this classification, it is obvious that a great attention is paid to news values from the very beginning when news is selected and processed. The frequency of occurrences of these factors defined above has direct impact on the structure of news discourse.

2.1.3 Values in the News Text

The third category of news values is related to the quality of the news text, with respect to the formal requirements found in the text. This category includes:

- CLARITY is one of the most important characteristics of the news text. It is connected to enriching the text with relevant details and background information in order to make the story understandable. Under the pressure of deadlines, journalists may produce confused, vague and ambiguous writing. As a result, it must be clarified by a copy editor (Bell 1991, 78).
- BREVITY involves the length of a story. Only relevant information in the text should be preserved. The text should be also modified lexically and syntactically. Specifically, complex structures are usually substituted by one-word expressions which convey the same message. Bell (1991) illustrates this on the following examples:

- A) The present survey *is being carried out* on at least six pig farms in Canterbury and *in the southern half of the North Island*.
- B) The survey *covers* at least six pig farms in Canterbury and *the southern North Island*. (Bell 1991, 77)

As can be seen above, both examples convey the same message. Fewer words are used in B) but all the important information is preserved or implied. The technique of making lexical and syntactic changes is very effective in the process of news cutting.

- COLOUR involves the aspects of mental state, emotions and volition. These aspects are referred to by Bednarek (2006, 179) as peripheral evaluative parameters. The parameters will be described later in this paper.

The aspect of clarity, brevity or colour might be combined with other news factors in the newspaper reporting. For example, brevity involves emphasising only important and clear information, which subsequently includes the value of relevance and unambiguity.

2.1.4 The Comparison of Bell’s and Galtung and Ruge’s Viewpoints

According to Galtung and Ruge (1965), all the factors described above are crucial for determining the news structure. A story is more newsworthy if it possesses more than one of those factors. For instance, the value of eliteness could be combined with negativity. A report about a superpower conflict could be an example of this combination.

Bell’s (1991) classification is based on the combination of ideas presented by Tuchman (1978), van Dijk (1988) and Galtung and Ruge (1965). However, the distinction of the news values defined by Galtung and Ruge (1965) is slightly different. The following table (Table 2) illustrates 12 factors which are “cultural” rather than “natural”:

Table 2 – News Values according to Galtung and Ruge (1965)

(F ₁) frequency	
(F ₂) threshold	(F _{2.1}) absolute intensity
	(F _{2.2}) intensity increase
(F ₃) unambiguity	
(F ₄) meaningfulness	(F _{4.1}) cultural proximity
	(F _{4.2}) relevance
(F ₅) consonance	(F _{5.1}) predictability
	(F _{5.2}) demand

(F ₆) unexpectedness	(F _{6.1}) unpredictability
	(F _{6.2}) scarcity
(F ₇) continuity	
(F ₈) composition	
(F ₉) reference to elite nations	
(F ₁₀) reference to elite people	
(F ₁₁) reference to persons	
(F ₁₂) reference to something negative	

To contrast this classification with the one presented by Bell (1991), it must be indicated that (F₁) corresponds with the value of recency, (F₂) relates to superlativeness, (F₄) corresponds with proximity, and (F₁₂) with negativity. The remaining factors are the same as in the previous distinction. However, the factors (F₂), (F₄), (F₅) and (F₆) provide more specific distinction. Bell's (1991) classification of news values is sufficient is similar to the parameter-based theory presented by Bednarek (2006) which is applied in the analysis in the practical part.

2.2 Evaluation in Media Discourse

The concept of the evaluative language in the press has been thoroughly studied by Monika Bednarek. She introduces a parameter-based theory of evaluation, which assumes that "there are different parameters along which speakers can evaluate aspects of the world" (Bednarek 2006, 41). The classification of *evaluative parameters* in media discourse presented by Bednarek (2006) is very precise and detailed. More importantly, it takes the context of news reports into consideration and therefore, it provides more reliable results in the newspaper analysis. Bednarek's conception corresponds with the theory provided by White, who claims that evaluation shows "context-dependent polysemous functionality" (White 2001, 18).

Bednarek (2006) specifies the meaning of the term "evaluation" in the following points:

- there is no implication that the evaluation which is expressed by speakers relates to their "real" feelings about what they are talking about
- emotive evaluation excludes expressions of the general emotional state of speakers, or their personality
- evaluation is not concerned with the question of how far speakers are "emotionally engaged" in discourse

- with EMOTIVITY, speakers do not express their emotions, but rather evaluate things in terms of how good and bad they are in their view
- evaluation is not concerned with establishing which kinds of expressions may be used to arouse or provoke the hearer's emotions. (Bednarek 2006, 19)

In her study, Bednarek (2006) adopts the definition of evaluation provided by Thompson and Hunston:

Evaluation is the broad cover term for the expression of the speaker's or writer's attitude or stance towards, viewpoint on, or feelings about the entities or propositions that he or she is talking about. That attitude may relate to certainty or obligation of desirability or any of a number of other sets of values.

(Thompson and Hunston 2000, 5)

In Bednarek's (2006) classification, the term "evaluative parameters" is used to identify the "set of values" presented by Thompson and Hunston. A device used by a writer to express the evaluation in the language is called an *evaluator*. Bednarek (2006) assumes that speakers can evaluate aspects of the world as:

- good or bad (the parameter of EMOTIVITY)
- important or unimportant (the parameter of IMPORTANCE)
- expected or unexpected (the parameter of EXPECTEDNESS)
- comprehensible or incomprehensible (the parameter of COMPREHENSIBILITY)
- (not) possible or (not) necessary (the parameter of POSSIBILITY/NECESSITY)
- genuine or fake (the parameter of RELIABILITY). (Bednarek 2006, 4)

Bednarek (2006) further specifies that reliability may be low, median or high. There are also three additional parameters, considering making evaluative comments on the language that is used (the parameter of STYLE), on other social actors' mental states (the parameter of MENTAL STATE) and on the source of the knowledge of the speakers (the parameter of EVIDENTIALITY).

According to Bednarek (2006) the parameters of emotivity, importance, expectedness, comprehensibility, possibility/necessity and reliability belong to the group called *core evaluative parameters*. This group refer to the different poles on the respective evaluative scale. There are also *peripheral evaluative parameters*, which is a group referring to different types of the parameter, and it includes the parameter of evidentiality, mental state and style. For more transparent summary with examples, see Appendix 1, Table 3.

2.2.1 Core Evaluative Parameters

Core evaluative parameters relate to evaluative qualities ascribed to the entities, situations or propositions that are evaluated, and involve evaluative scales with two poles, but also potential intermediate stages between them (Lemke 1998, as cited in Bednarek 2006). For instance, the parameter of emotivity includes evaluations ranging from more or less positive to more or less negative. Consequently, evaluative meanings can be placed on a cline of low to high intensity. As Bednarek (2006) remarks, expressions of different intensity can be found in language, such as *good/great/brilliant*, *possible/probable/certain*. On the other hand, there are also intensifying and focusing adverbs, such as *slightly*, *really*, *completely*, *very* (Bednarek 2006, 44). In order to provide a sufficient theoretical background for the discourse analysis, core evaluative parameters are described separately in the following subchapters.

2.2.1.1 The Parameter of Comprehensibility

The aspect of comprehensibility is related to the extent to which writers evaluate entities, situations and propositions as being within or beyond the grasp of human understanding (Bednarek 2006, 45). Comprehensibility is related to the concepts of explicitness and vagueness. According to Bednarek (2006), “what is vague is less easily comprehensible, what is explicit is more easily comprehensible” (Bednarek 2006, 45). The classification based on the comprehensibility is shown by the following examples:

Example E:

A local news channel in the US recently covered a murder investigation that featured a rather **rudimentary** [EMOTIVITY: NEGATIVE + COMPREHENSIBILITY: COMPREHENSIBLE] drawing of the suspect, done by an eyewitness at the scene. **Clearly** [COMPREHENSIBILITY: COMPREHENSIBLE] this witness was no Van Gogh but even for a sketch, the picture is a somewhat crude interpretation of a human face. (Appendix 2, Example 16)

Example F:

George Bush **ambiguously** [COMPREHENSIBILITY: INCOMPREHENSIBLE] described the death of Mr Arafat as "a significant moment in Palestinian history", while the secretary of state, Colin Powell, appealed for calm in the region. (Appendix 2, Example 56)

Examples (E) and (F) illustrate the evaluators *clearly* and *ambiguously* which are related to explicitness and vagueness. There is also the expression *rudimentary*, which can be interpreted by means of the combination of two parameters. However, the parameter of comprehensibility could be also classified in terms of clarity and inexplicability. As Bednarek (2006) points out, the parameter of comprehensibility includes “concepts of unsolved problems as well as states that are not known to us, and which hence remain mysterious”

(Bednarek 2006, 45). Evaluators characterizing such states are for instance *mysterious* and *uncanny*. This is illustrated in the following Example (G):

Example G:

...the similarities with derivatives-based products sold by London bankers to naive councils in Southern Europe are **uncanny** [COMPREHENSIBILITY: INCOMPREHENSIBLE]. (Appendix 2, Example 17)

2.2.1.2 The Parameter of Emotivity

Based on Bednarek's (2006) classification, the parameter of emotivity "is concerned with the writer's evaluation of aspects of events as good or bad, i.e. with the expression of approval or disapproval" (Bednarek 2006, 45). Since it is difficult to avoid using expressive words in newspaper discourse, emotivity is one of the most frequent parameters which could be found in the language of newspaper reports. The evaluations of emotivity can be put on the scale ranging from positive to negative.

Positive emotivity is used to express approval or praise, whereas negative emotivity indicates disapproval or criticism. The category that might be emotively evaluated includes people (*fool*), events (*fiasco*), and actions (*clanger*) as in Examples (H) and (I).

Example H:

George Lucas, who is no **fool** [EMOTIVITY: NEGATIVE], recognised without delay he had commissioned a **clanger** [EMOTIVITY: NEGATIVE]. (Appendix 2, Example 18)

Example I:

A huge disability benefits shake-up has been branded a "**fiasco**" [EMOTIVITY: NEGATIVE] amid a backlog of claims and long delays. (Appendix 2, Example 7)

Emotivity is probably the most problematic parameter, as it involves a high degree of subjectivity. Moreover, there are also marked expressions which cannot be classified as evaluators expressing emotivity, since lexical meanings of some words are emotive but do not necessarily express emotions of a speaker. For instance, the lexical meaning of the word *bomb* is negative. However, an article informing about the Paris attacks in 2015 does not express an author's disapproval with the attacks only by using the word *bomb*. This is discussed later in the paper, in the chapter dealing with an indirect (experiential) evaluation. Therefore, the interpretation of evaluators expressing emotivity is frequently based on the subjective viewpoint of the author of the analysis.

If an author of a newspaper article uses an evaluator expressing emotivity intentionally, the potential influence on a reader's opinion should not be underestimated. Readers usually

form their opinions after reading an article, completely unaware that they may be influenced by the language which is used in the article. A negative/positive reaction might be evoked or already existing attitude reinforced. This effect of media language is connected to one of the main functions of evaluation which is “to construct and maintain relations between the speaker or writer and hearer or reader” (Thompson and Hunston, 2000, as cited in Bednarek 2006). This has been discussed in the chapter 1.3 in combination with Halliday (1973) and Reah (2002). The intentional usage of negative evaluators corresponds with the news value of negativity in events, which increases the newsworthiness of a news report (chapter 2.1.1)

2.2.1.3 The Parameter of Expectedness

Based on the parameter of expectedness, a writer evaluates aspects of the world as expected or unexpected. Bednarek (2006) suggests that this is connected also with expressing contrast and comparison, since much research has proven that the notion of contrast is dependent on expectations. Specifically, the parameter of expectedness includes notions of expectation (e.g. *astonishing*), usuality (*routine*), familiarity (*familiar*), strangeness (*bizarrely*), contrastive/unexpected emphasis (*no fewer than*) and “actuality” (*as it is, in the event*). Unexpected events are frequently included in news reports in order to increase newsworthiness of the articles. Therefore, evaluators of expectedness are likely to be found in a majority of newspaper reports.

Expressing contrast is frequently related to the concept of *negation*. It is an important device for expressing evaluation and concerning the parameter of expectedness. Therefore, contrast and negation are included as a part of expectedness. This is also supported by appraisal theory, which classifies contrast as part of counter-expectation (Bednarek 2006, 49).

To illustrate the evaluators of expectedness, the following examples could be mentioned:

Example J:

This multi-Bafta Award-winning drama was one of most **shocking** [EXPECTEDNESS: UNEXPECTED] shows of 2014. (Appendix 2, Example 92)

Example K:

London’s **traditionally** [EXPECTEDNESS: EXPECTED] low-rise skyline is being swiftly replaced by luxury residential skyscrapers. (Appendix 2, Example 10)

Obviously, the Example J is based on the notion of expectation, while the Example K represents the concept of a routine. The degree of unexpectedness in Example J is intensified

by the usage of the superlative. The evaluator in Example K refers to the usuality, which is in contrast with the predicate in the sentence (is being replaced).

The parameter of expectedness incorporates the news value of unexpectedness, as being original is also related to a higher newsworthiness of the news reports (chapter 2.1.1). This parameter is often combined with the parameter of *emotivity* or *comprehensibility*. What is unexpected may not be comprehensible. In order to keep the reports newsworthy, the criterion concerning the news value of *clarity* and *brevity* needs to be fulfilled. (chapter 2.1.3)

2.2.1.4 The Parameter of Importance

The parameter of importance relates to a writer's judgement of what is relevant, important or in some way significant. Apart from the information seen as relevant, evaluators signalling the parameter of importance include notions of stardom/famousness (such as *celebrity*, *superstar*), influence/authority (*leading*), and significance (*significant*).

Example L:

As we all now know, a referendum will be held on 23 June to determine whether the United Kingdom remains part of the European Union. Many commentators and politicians believe this to be **the single most significant** [IMPORTANCE: IMPORTANT] decision the British public will have made since we backed continued membership of the European Economic Community in 1975. (Appendix 2, Example 57)

The scale for evaluating the parameter of importance ranges from the most IMPORTANT to completely UNIMPORTANT. As can be seen in Example L, evaluators of importance may not represent only a writer's attitude towards the event described in the article. The value of importance may be implied by other people (such as *commentators* and *politicians* in this case). Despite the fact that the sentence reports ideas of people who are not the same person as the author of the article, the expression *significant* can still be classified as an evaluator, since it expresses an attitude. However, this example is debatable, as there is no clear borderline between what is considered an evaluator of importance and what is not.

As has been discussed before (chapter 2.1.1), *relevance* is one of the most important news values increasing newsworthiness. It might be combined with the value of *superlativness* and *eliteness*. The reports including these news values may only comment on important events and news actors, and the expressions describing them do not necessarily need to be evaluative.

2.2.1.5 The Parameter of Possibility/Necessity

The Parameter of possibility/necessity is based on the concepts of *deontic* and *dynamic modality*. These two types of modality are classified by Palmer (2001) as two subtypes of *event modality*. Palmer (2001) defines deontic modality as a situation when “speakers express conditioning factors that are external to the relevant individual”. Thus, deontic modality has to do with the social functions of permission and obligation. Additionally, there is also dynamic modality, which refers to a news actor’s ability and volition.

Evaluators of possibility and necessity are regarded as one parameter, since there is a close reciprocal relationship between what is possible and what is necessary. For instance, ‘It is not possible for you to leave.’ is equivalent to ‘It is necessary for you to stay.’ Therefore, evaluators of this parameter are located on the scale from POSSIBILITY/NON-NECESSITY to NON-POSSIBILITY/NECESSITY (Bednarek 2006, 50). Evaluation by means of the parameter of possibility/necessity is frequently expressed by modal verbs, such as *should* or *could*.

Example M:

If the amount of glucose in the blood is too high, it **can** [POSSIBILITY] seriously damage the body's organs over time. (Appendix 2, Example 64)

The evaluator of possibility/necessity in Example M could be interpreted as a combination of deontic and dynamic modality, i.e. there is a possibility and ability that something **can** happen. Modal verbs are frequently used for expressing this parameter. This parameter is also related to the news value of *predictability* (chapter 2.1.2). It may be also combined with other parameters, such as *expectedness*.

2.2.1.6 The Parameter of Reliability

Whereas the parameter of possibility/necessity is based mainly on deontic modality, the parameter of reliability is based on what is traditionally referred to as *epistemic modality*. *Epistemic modality* together with *evidential modality* is a subcategory of a *propositional modality* (Palmer 2001). While through epistemic modality speakers express their judgment about the factual status of the proposition, evidential modality deals with giving evidence for the factual status of the proposition.

The evaluators which are characteristic for the parameter of reliability involve matters of reliability, certainty, confidence and likelihood (Bednarek 2006, 52). However, the parameter of reliability expresses both “the writer’s evaluation of the reliability

of a proposition and his/her evaluation of the genuineness of an entity or entities” (Bednarek 2006, 52). Therefore, there are five sub-values concerning this parameter: *fake*, *genuine*, *low*, *median*, *high*. By means of the values fake and genuine, writers evaluate events in news reporting as real or artificial, whereas the values low, median and high describe the events in terms likelihood of propositions being true (Bednarek 2006, 52). The classification based on the three values (low, median and high) has been adopted from Halliday (1994).

Example N:

The asteroid is **more likely to** [RELIABILITY: MEDIAN] hit some space junk but most of this is only about a centimetre across and the impact won't even be noticed. (Appendix 2, Example 49)

Example (N) illustrates the evaluator of reliability which could be placed on in the middle of the scale ranging from low to high. This example could be also interpreted in terms of probability. The author of the report probably used this expression on the basis of a scientific research or observation. Therefore, there is a certain degree of reliability, since it is not purely a writer’s opinion and some evidence for such prediction exists.

2.2.2 Peripheral Evaluative Parameters

Unlike the core parameters, peripheral evaluative parameters do not involve evaluative scales, and do not indicate the same kind of qualitative evaluation of entities, situations or propositions (Bednarek 2006). Peripheral evaluative parameters include evidentiality, mental state and style.

2.2.2.1 The Parameter of Evidentiality

According to Rooryck (2001), evaluators expressing evidentiality “evaluate the truth value of a sentence with respect to the source of the information contained in the sentence” (as cited in Bednarek 2006). Similarly, Bednarek (2006) remarks that the parameter of evidentiality deals with “writers’ evaluations of the ‘evidence’ for their knowledge” (Bednarek 2006, 53). Additionally, there are also various sub-values that can be classified as types of the parameter of evidentiality. Such sub-values include:

EVIDENTIALITY: HEARSAY	He <i>said</i> they were right.
EVIDENTIALITY: MINDSAY	He <i>thought</i> they were right.
EVIDENTIALITY: GENERAL KNOWLEDGE	It’s <i>well known</i> they were right.
EVIDENTIALITY: UNSPECIFIED	It <i>emerged that</i> they were right.
EVIDENTIALITY: PERCEPTION	There are <i>signs</i> they were right.

According to Halliday (1994), for HEARSAY “the utterance is evaluated as having been uttered by a ‘Sayer’ who is not the writer” (Halliday 1994, 140). MINDSAY refers to the utterance that is “evaluated as having been thought/felt/experienced by a ‘Senser’ who is someone other than the writer” (Halliday 1994, 117). The value of PERCEPTION includes *mental perception* (seem, appear, look), *sensory perception* (see, visibly, audibly) and *showing* (reveal, show, betray) (Bednarek 2006, 53). GENERAL KNOWLEDGE refers to the background that is shared by the audience and the writer. On the other hand, PROOF relates to the sourced proposition based on some ‘hard proof’. UNSPECIFIED refers to the evaluators that cannot be clearly labelled by the other five sub-values, such as *it emerged that, meaning that* (Bednarek 2006, 53).

2.2.2.2 The Parameter of Mental State

The parameter of mental state concerns the writer’s evaluation of other social actors’ mental states. Therefore, this parameter is considered peripheral, since it is of descriptive and interpretative rather than of evaluative nature. According to Bednarek (2006), actors can experience: beliefs, emotions, expectations, knowledge, wishes/intentions, etc. As an example, Bednarek (2006) presents: “University researcher Dr Dominic Malcolm was involved in a recent study showing that nearly half of all players knew other pros who took recreational drugs.” Here, the word *knew* represents the evaluator related to the sub-value of knowledge.

2.2.2.3 The Parameter of Style

The evaluations of style are related to “the writer’s evaluation of the language that is used, for instance, comments on the manner in which the information is presented, or evaluations of the kind of language that is used” (Biber et al. 1999, 975). According to Kraus (2008), by means of style, authors express themselves both as individuals and as persons carrying their social identities (such as a journalist, a politician, a scientist, a manager, etc.). As Biber et al. (1999) specify, the evaluation may be connected to the speaker’s own discourse (STYLE: SELF) or the discourse of third parties (STYLE: OTHER) (as cited in Bednarek 2006, 57). In the corpus data in this paper, there are no instances of STYLE: SELF. Therefore, only the value STYLE: OTHER is specified.

As Bednarek (2006) indicates, evaluations of STYLE: OTHER occur in connection with reporting expressions (such as verbs, nouns, adjectives and adverbs). These expressions can be characterized by the following classification adopted from Caldas-Coulthard (1994)

- NEUTRAL attributing expressions (e.g. *say, tell*) signal the illocutionary act – the saying. Only the “literal meaning” is provided by the author. (Caldas-Coulthard 1994, 305). The speaker’s purpose is unknown.
- ILLOCUTIONARY attributing expressions (e.g. *demand, promise*) make the speaker’s purpose explicit. They “convey the presence of the author in the text, name a supposed speech situation, clarify and make explicit the illocutionary form of the quote they refer to” (Caldas-Coulthard 1994, 305).
- DECLARATIVE attributive expressions (e.g. *acquit, plead guilty*) describe “linguistic acts that can only be ‘felicitous’ within a cultural-institutional setting, when specific circumstances are fulfilled” (Bednarek 2006, 57).
- DISCOURSE SIGNALLING sub-value (e.g. *add, conclude*) includes expressions marking “the relationship of the quote to other parts of the discourse...or mark the development of the discourse” (Caldas-Coulthard 1994, 306).
- PARALINGUISTIC attributing expressions give “an indication of prosodic and other accompanying paralinguistic aspects of the act of utterance” (Bednarek 2006, 57)

2.2.3 Combination of Parameters

In the process of analyzing the evaluative parameters, their combinations must be taken into account. It is not infrequent that the evaluative expression cannot be fully classified by means of only one parameter. As has been described in the chapter 2.2, Bednarek (2006) distinguishes between core and evaluative parameters. The parameters are usually combined within one of those two groups, for instance negative emotivity and importance, comprehensibility and expectedness, etc. However, the combination of a core and a peripheral parameter often occurs. This combination may include for example *promise* (style + reliability).

The classification that is based on the combination of the parameters is often very subjective. This is the case especially in the parameter of emotivity, as the connotations of the words and associations that readers make may differ. The classification of evaluators in the analytical part is based on the definitions found in the Oxford Dictionary. There may be various interpretations for some evaluators; and this will be discussed in the analysis.

2.2.4 The Appraisal Theory

As has been described in the previous chapter, a study presented by Bednarek (2006) is a parameter-based framework. Another study on evaluation was conducted by Martin and White (2005), and it is known as The Appraisal Theory or The Appraisal Framework. Their study uses the framework of systemic functional linguistics (SFL), which was developed by Halliday. The model of SFL introduces three modes of meaning: *textual*, *interpersonal* and *ideational*. These three modes operate simultaneously in all utterances (Martin and White 2005) and are referred to as *metafunctions*. *Textual metafunction* is related to information flow, i.e. it concerns the internal structure of the text and its communicative nature. Interpersonal metafunction deals with negotiating social relation, sharing emotions and interaction between people. Ideational metafunction is the function for construing human experience. According to Halliday (1994), it can be further divided into *logical* and *experiential* metafunction.

Halliday (1994) states that the experiential function refers to the grammatical choices that enable speakers to make meanings about the world around us and inside us. He remarks that people are using language to construe a theoretical model of their experience. The patterns of meaning are installed in the brain (Halliday 1994). In comparison, logical metafunction is closely related to the experiential metafunction. It refers to the semantic relationship between two clauses. Halliday (1994) remarks that a speaker chooses whether to give both clauses equal status, or to make one dependent on the other. In this process, a speaker chooses some meaning relation. (Halliday 1994).

Martin and White (2005) see the appraisal as the part of the interpersonal metafunction. For detailed classification, see (Appendix 1, Table 4). Based on the Table 4, it is obvious that the appraisal framework presented by Martin and White (2005) includes engagement, affect, judgement, appreciation and graduation. According to Martin and White (2005), appraisal itself is regionalised as three interacting domains – ‘*engagement*’, ‘*graduation*’, and ‘*attitude*’. *Engagement* deals with sourcing attitudes and the play of voices around opinions in discourse. *Graduation* attends to grading phenomena whereby feelings are amplified and categories blurred. *Attitude* is concerned with our feelings, including emotional reactions, judgements of behaviour and evaluation of things (Martin and White 2005, 35). Declarations of attitude “not only serve the purpose of stance taking by communicating the author’s own attitude, but are also oriented towards aligning the listener/reader into an axiological community by offering to share the author’s attitude” (Pankovskiy 2013, as cited in Martin

and White 2005). To put it differently, the appraisal theory analyzes how the writer's or speaker's attitude is expressed and how it is directed towards aligning the reader or listener into a community of shared values and belief.

The concept of *attitude* and *engagement* corresponds with the classification by Bednarek (2006). However, she does not provide a detailed explanation of *graduation*. The concept of graduation is concerned with gradability. For attitude, since the resources are inherently gradable, graduation has to do with adjusting the degree of an evaluation – how strong or weak the feeling is (Martin and White 2005). For the analysis of the evaluative expressions in the practical part, the classification presented by Bednarek (2006) has been chosen. However, it is partly combined with the framework introduced by Martin and White (2005), as they provide more detailed explanation of *graduation*.

2.3 Discourse and the Reader

Based on the classification of the newspaper discourse discussed in the previous chapters, possible consequences on a reader of newspaper reports should be taken into consideration. Certain values are already included in the language itself, some values are added by a writer. Therefore, the values incorporated in news reports are not always intentional, they are not provided only by a writer.

As Fowler (1991) suggests, “the practices of news selection and presentation are habitual and conventional as much as they are deliberate and controlled” (Fowler 1991, 41). However, some readers may absorb ideology from the text passively, as they do not think critically about what they read. Therefore, newspaper reports may function as opinion formers, even if the ideological message is not included intentionally. Evaluation in the text is an important aspect of newspaper discourse which contributes to forming a public opinion. This has been confirmed also in the previous chapter, concerning the appraisal theory and shared values and beliefs.

Evaluative devices with their interpretation are studied in the analytical part of this paper. Additionally, a possible impact on the reader's opinion is discussed.

3 Analysis

This part of the thesis focuses on the analysis of evaluative language in the discourse of newspaper reporting. The findings from the theoretical part are applied, and particular evaluative expressions are classified.

The aim of this thesis is to study the evaluative language in the British popular and quality press, and consequently compare the contexts in which the evaluative expressions occur. Therefore, both broadsheets and tabloids are included. In this analysis, the popular press is represented by the following newspapers: The Sun (hereinafter abbreviated as TS), The Daily Mail (DM) and The Daily Mirror (Mi). Broadsheets include The Guardian (TG), The Telegraph (TT), and The Independent (TI).

For the purposes of the following analysis, 31 newspaper articles have been randomly chosen. Eighteen articles represent the quality press, and thirteen articles illustrate the language of the popular press. News reports taken from broadsheets outnumber the articles representing tabloids. This is a result of the fact that, apart from the number of reports, the length of particular articles was taken into account.

The selected newspaper reports are analysed quantitatively and qualitatively. For the purposes of this paper, the parameter-based classification presented by Bednarek (2006) has been chosen, as it provides thorough information about individual evaluative criteria. Additionally, this classification takes the context of news reports into account. Therefore, it corresponds with the aim of this thesis. Apart from the classification presented by Bednarek (2006), the classification of graduation and experiential meaning (Martin and White 2005) is included, as there are some occurrences of the indirect (experiential) evaluation. The numbers of the examples used in the analysis are identical with the structure of the examples in the corpus.

First of all, the frequency of evaluative expressions in broadsheets and tabloids is illustrated. Additionally, the expressions are classified in terms of specific parameters which have been described in the theoretical part. Due to the limited length of this paper, only core evaluative parameters are analysed in the examples in order to provide a thorough study of evaluative expressions. Finally, the possible interpretation is included.

During the analysis, the following aspects were considered:

- 1) Is the evaluative character of the expression inherent?
- 2) What parameters of evaluation are applied?

- 3) What sub-value within the specific parameter is applied?
- 4) Is the evaluator taken from the popular or the quality press?
- 5) What is the possible motivation of the journalist/the source for using the evaluation?
- 6) What might be the possible influence on a reader?

The data corpus consists of 114 extracts from the news reports. These extracts contain 244 evaluative expressions (Appendix 2 – The Corpus Data). The corpus includes whole sentences in order to provide the necessary context for classifying the evaluators. Each extract from the news reports is mentioned only once and has its own number. All evaluative expressions are labelled within the extract. There are also subcategories in terms of which evaluators are classified. For the classification based on the parameters, the abbreviations were used (PoEm for emotivity etc.). The abbreviations are followed by the classification concerning the sub-values. Each extract contains an abbreviation in brackets in order to identify its source (broadsheets or tabloids). There are also possible combinations of parameters. This classification includes only core evaluative parameters. Thus, when there is a possible combination of a core parameter with a peripheral parameter, only the core parameter is discussed. The main aim of the analysis is to observe the prevailing tendencies of evaluative language in both the popular and the quality press.

To make the corpus more comprehensible, different types of evaluation have been graphically distinguished. The evaluators with inherent evaluation are **in bold**. Based on the classification by Martin and White (2005) in chapter 2.2.4, the indirect (experiential) evaluation has been included and it is *in italics*. However, the indirect evaluation is only marked to indicate what expressions have the evaluative character. Due to the limited extent of this paper, only the inherent evaluation (based on the parameters and their sub-values) is discussed. There are also some underlined expressions, which are concerned with the concept of graduation (Martin and White 2005).

3.1 Evaluators in Newspaper Discourse

First of all, the number of occurrences of evaluators in the press should be described. According to the corpus data, 155 evaluators (out of 244, i.e. 63.5%) have been found in broadsheets. In contrast, the remaining 89 evaluators have been detected in the tabloid newspapers. Considering the number of the articles, the average number of occurrences of evaluators per article can be calculated (for detailed classification, see Table 5 and 6).

Table 5 – Evaluators in Broadsheets (/article)

SOURCE	ARTICLES	EVALUATORS	EVALUATORS/ARTICLE (average)
TG	10	92	9.2
TT	6	54	9
TI	2	11	5.5
Average			7.7

Table 6 – Evaluators in Tabloids (/article)

SOURCE	ARTICLES	EVALUATORS	EVALUATORS/ARTICLE (average)
Mi	5	38	7.6
TS	4	33	8.25
DM	4	16	4
Average			6.7

Obviously, there is a slightly higher occurrence of evaluators in broadsheets than in tabloids. This might be caused by the different numbers of articles in the two categories. However, the difference in numbers is subtle. Therefore, the data collected from broadsheets and tabloids are of equal relevance and can be further analysed in the following chapters.

Although the difference in number of occurrences is not prominent, there can be seen a certain tendency to use evaluators in broadsheets more frequently. This observation is related to the theory presented by Bednarek's (2006) stating that broadsheets use wide range of vocabulary (see chapter 1.1). Consequently, the more various language devices are used, the more evaluators are likely to be found. This corresponds with the idea discussed in chapter 1.3, claiming that wider range of vocabulary increases newsworthiness of a particular story. To observe the tendency of using evaluators even better, the average occurrence of evaluators per extract could be included. It provides more reliable information, as it is not influenced by the number of articles. (see Tables 7 and 8)

Table 7 – Evaluators in Broadsheets (/extract)

SOURCE	EXTRACTS	EVALUATORS	EVALUATORS/ARTICLE (average)
TG	42	92	2.19
TT	26	54	2.08
TI	4	11	2.75
Average			2.34

Table 8 – Evaluators in Tabloids (/extract)

SOURCE	EXTRACT	EVALUATORS	EVALUATORS/ARTICLE (average)
Mi	19	38	2
TS	14	33	2.36
DM	9	16	1,78
Average			2.05

From the Table 7 and 8, it is obvious that the frequency of evaluative parameters is very similar in broadsheets and tabloids. However, there is a subtle difference in the average occurrences of evaluators in the news reports. Apparently, broadsheets tend to use the evaluative expressions a little more often than tabloids. It might be due to the character of the reported events (e.g. the news reports in broadsheets contain more articles concerning eliteness, attribution, superlativeness, etc. – see chapter 2.1.1)

That was the general classification, taking the type of the source into account. In order to observe the proportion of individual evaluative parameters within the corpus data, the summary of the analysed evaluators is provided. The table (Table 9) below illustrates the number of occurrences of particular parameters in the corpus:

Table 9 – The Frequency of Evaluative Parameters

PoEm	79	32.4%
PoR	40	16.4%
PoEx	30	12.3%
PoPN	29	11.9%
PoIm	24	9.8%
PoC	11	4.5%
TOTAL	213	87.3%

The classification in the table above (Table 9) contains the statistic data only about the evaluators that can be classified by means of only one parameter. However, some evaluators can be interpreted by means of combination of more parameters. In the corpus data, 31 such evaluators (out of 230, i.e. 17.4%) were found (see Table 10). For specific illustration, the combinations are classified by using sub-values. The possible combinations of individual parameters are included in the corpus, but they require further explanation. They are discussed in the chapter 3.2.7.

Table 10 – The Frequency of Combinations of Evaluative Parameters

POSITIVE + IMPORTANT	6	2.5%
POSITIVE + UNEXPECTED + IMPORTANT	1	0.4%
POSITIVE + UNEXPECTED	6	2.5%
NEGATIVE + IMPORTANT	1	0.4%
NEGATIVE + COMPREHENSIBLE	1	0.4%
NEGATIVE + UNIMPORTANT	4	1.6%
COMPREHENSIBLE + UNEXPECTED	1	0.4%
COMPREHENSIBLE + EXPECTED	4	1.6%
PoR: MEDIAN + EXPECTED	1	0.4%
PoR: HIGH + EXPECTED	2	0.8%
PoPN: NECESSITY + IMPORTANT	1	0.4%
IMPORTANT + UNEXPECTED	3	1.2%
TOTAL	31	12.6%

Based on the data in the table above (Table 9), it is obvious that *emotivity* is the most frequent evaluative parameter in the press. It is followed by *reliability*. Then there are the parameters of *importance*, *possibility/necessity* and *expectedness*, all of them are represented by a very similar number of occurrences. The smallest sample represents the parameter of *comprehensibility*, which might indicate that the language of newspaper discourse does not use devices for expressing vagueness and explicitness as frequently as for example devices for describing emotions or unexpected events.

In order to provide more specific information about the usage of evaluative language, individual parameters (and their combinations) are discussed in detail in the following chapters.

3.2 Core Evaluative Parameters

3.2.1 The Parameter of Emotivity

In the corpus data, expressions describing both NEGATIVE and POSITIVE emotivity have been detected. Surprisingly, only 15 instances (out of 79, i.e. 19%) were classified as evaluators of positive emotivity. Mostly negative expressions were found, specifically 64 instances (81%). The representation in broadsheets and tabloids was relatively balanced (i.e. 46 instances found in broadsheets and 33 in tabloids). Therefore, it can be assumed that both the quality and the popular press employ emotively marked expressions similarly in terms of frequency. However, tabloids usually use adverbs in combination with evaluators of emotivity in order to intensify their meaning. This can be seen in Examples 7 (devilishly

handsome). The following table (Table 11) shows detailed analysis of evaluators concerning emotivity found in the corpus data:

Table 11 – The Evaluators of Emotivity

The Parameter of Emotivity		Broadsheets	Tabloids
Positive	15	12	3
Negative	64	34	30
Total	79	46	33

Based on the data in the table above, it is obvious that negative emotivity is preferred in the newspaper discourse. Negative expressions occur mostly in the news reports informing about tragedies and disastrous events. Such expressions are often negative in meaning but do not express a speaker's attitude. In the corpus, only evaluative expressions have been included. Here are some examples of evaluators expressing emotivity which have been found in the corpus data:

Example 2:

Star Wars isn't just a box-office **hit** [PoEm: POSITIVE]: it's a pop culture sensation (TG).

Example 3:

...what happens when a director returns to a **beloved** [PoEm: POSITIVE] franchise and royally **screws it up** [PoEm: NEGATIVE], what does that make the Holiday Special? (TG)

Example 52:

There are many ways some schools can **manipulate** [PoEm: NEGATIVE] their intakes and still comply with the code of practice. (TG)

All of the examples above (2, 3 and 52) are related to the speaker's evaluation. Some common features can be observed in the Examples (2) and (3). Both expressions (*hit* and *beloved*) have primarily positive connotation. The author of the article uses them to express the positive character of the reported events. Moreover, in Example (3) the author uses the contrast between positive and negative emotivity in order to stress the final impression on the reader. By asking a rhetorical question, the author intensifies the appealing effect.

To comment on the instances of negative emotivity, the example (52) mentioned above could be analysed. In the example (52), the speaker describes the possibility that a negative situation may happen. Similarly, the example (38) in the corpus data contains the author's comment on an unpleasant event. Based on the other examples in the corpus, it can be assumed that the press deliberately comments on negative events more frequently. This is

obvious also from the ratio of the positive and negative evaluators in the Table 11. As has been explained before (see chapter 2.1.1) based on the Bell's and Labov's classification, negative events enhance the newsworthiness on newspaper reports. Additionally, a negative word used in example (52) may have a persuasive function, since it is an evaluative expression invented by the speaker. Consequently, readers may form their opinions on the schools on the basis of this negatively marked expression.

The frequent occurrence of negative evaluators implies that the news reports endeavour to evoke negative emotions in the readers. Specifically, the reason for such a frequent occurrence of negative expressions could be the nature of the events about which the articles inform. In order to attract more readers, newspapers may prefer reporting unfavourable situations that elicit sympathy or anxiety. Another reason could be warning the readers of possible danger. Nowadays, there are so many events that may imperil the public safety, that not informing about them could have fatal consequences. Therefore, the press may prefer unpleasant situations to the positive ones. That does not imply that positive events are rare, but not informing about them does not poses a threat.

In conclusion, the tendency of reporting emotivity in the quality and popular press is obvious from the Table 11. Whereas there is a huge difference in the number of evaluators of the positive emotivity (12 in broadsheets vs. 3 in tabloids), the proportion of the negative expressions is relatively balanced (34 evaluators in broadsheets vs. 30 in tabloids). This leads to the conclusion that the quality press employs the negative emotivity about three times more frequently than the positive emotivity. In contrast, the number of negative evaluators in tabloids is 10 times higher than with the positive emotivity. This enormous difference could be caused by the fact that tabloids usually strive for popularity and try to attract readers by commenting on unpleasant events. If there are not enough negative events, journalist usually transform neutral reports into more negative ones by using negative evaluation in order to increase the volume of copies sold to readers. This may have also a negative influence on the readers, as they are not provided with the unbiased information. This corresponds with the concept of attitude and engagement in chapter 2.2.4 according to Martin and White (2005).

3.2.2 The Parameter of Expectedness

According to the corpus data, the expressions related to the sub-value UNEXPECTED exceed the number of the expressions classified as EXPECTED. The majority of adjectives, adverbs and other evaluators illustrating the parameter of expectedness belong to the category of unexpected expressions (i.e. 20 instances out of 30 = 66.7%).

Table 12 – The Evaluators of Expectedness

The Parameter of Expectedness		Broadsheets	Tabloids
Expected	10	7	3
Unexpected	20	12	8
Total	30	19	11

As can be assumed from the Table 12 above, the tendency to use the evaluators of expectedness is higher in broadsheets. The corpus data have proven that these evaluators are used mainly in the quality press in order to draw readers' attention to new (unexpected) or old (known) information. Using this strategy also help the readers remind of what has been said or what is a new piece of information, and consequently contributes to better understanding of the structure of the newspaper report. It can be therefore assumed that some evaluators of expectedness improve the coherence of a particular text.

In order to illustrate the usage of evaluators of expectedness, the following examples are included:

Example 10:

London's **traditionally** [PoEx: EXPECTED] low-rise skyline is being swiftly replaced by luxury residential skyscrapers. (TG)

Example 36

Shocked [PoEx: UNEXPECTED] shoppers watched in horror as a cannibal seagull *ATE a pigeon alive* in a city centre. (TS)

Example 56:

As we all now know [PoEx: EXPECTED], a referendum will be held on 23 June to determine whether the United Kingdom remains part of the European Union. (TG)

It has been already mentioned that evaluators expressing unexpectedness outnumber those indicating expectedness. It can be therefore assumed that there is a prevailing tendency in the press to inform readers about new events that are in a way unexpected. Such news reports are more attractive for readers and they have a higher informational value.

In order to interpret the results from the corpus, the types of sources should be distinguished. In the corpus data, the tendency of broadsheets and tabloids to report on unexpected events is very similar. While broadsheets comment also on expected events, tabloids seem to do so quite rarely. This might be due to the fact that in broadsheets, already known information is usually repeated in order to make the report coherent and cohesive. The quality press tends to focus on coherence more, as it frequently reports on political debates and events concerning the economy of a particular state. These types of reports are very complex, and thus, they are full of coherent and cohesive devices in order not to confuse the readers. In contrast, tabloids usually distort the presented information and they rarely comment on already known information. The unexpected events have higher informational value and therefore increase the newsworthiness. Therefore, the popular press focuses mainly on shocking and surprising facts and events.

Furthermore, a stylistic variety of expressions related to the parameter of expectedness should be considered. According to the corpus data, the number of occurrences in tabloids was lower (12 instances out of 30) than in broadsheets. However, the stylistic variety of evaluators is higher in tabloids (curious, shocking, astonishingly, stunning) than in broadsheets (unexpectedly, normal, normally). Specifically, this is a case of the expressions related to the sub-value UNEXPECTED. It seems that the quality of unexpectedness is more important in tabloid newspapers because it plays a crucial role in attracting readers. Apparently, broadsheets focus on the informational value of the news rather than on the mass appeal. As was indicated by Bell (1991) in the chapter 2.1.1, being new and original is a crucial value for newspaper reporting. Apparently, broadsheets focus on the informational value of the news rather than on the mass appeal.

In the corpus data, the parameter of expectedness occurred frequently in combination with other parameters. More specific analysis is provided in chapter 3.2.7, where possible combinations of parameters are discussed separately.

3.2.3 The Parameter of Importance

According to the corpus data, the parameter of importance is represented by 24 evaluators (out of 244 = 9.8%). A similar number of evaluators have been found during the analysis of the parameter of expectedness. It can be therefore assumed that these two parameters are used with almost the same frequency. Moreover, they very often appear in combination. This is due to the fact that unexpected events usually have higher importance. For a summary of the parameter of importance and its representation by the evaluators in the corpus, see the table (Table 13) below:

Table 13 – The Evaluators of Importance

The Parameter of Importance		Broadsheets	Tabloids
Important	23	12	11
Unimportant	1	0	1
Total	24	12	12

Surprisingly, a considerable number of evaluators have been classified in terms of the sub-value *important*. There was only 1 occurrence of the sub-value *unimportant* in the corpus data that did not appear in combination with other parameters. This leads to the conclusion that the press tends to evaluate only events that are considered important. Naturally, unimportant events can be also found in the news reports. The main difference is that events that are considered irrelevant are not marked as unimportant in particular. In contrast, the importance of the relevant events is stressed by evaluative expression almost every time. Moreover, evaluators classified as *unimportant* are not related only to irrelevant events but they may also indicate decreasing importance of a particular event. These evaluators are often represented by words that carry the quality of unimportance in its meaning. That is the case of the example 73:

Example 73:

Local authorities have **diminishing** [PoIm: UNIMPORTANT + NEGATIVE] powers to intervene. (TG)

This evaluative expression indicates that the author of the news report evaluates the power of local authorities weaker than it was before. This means that the author remarks the decreasing importance. This example could be also interpreted in terms of negative emotivity. However, the example 73 is included in the chapter 3.2.7 dealing with the combination

of parameters. Another instance of the evaluator concerning the sub-value *important* is Example 25:

Example 25:

But the report found that ministers' failure to test the new system led to “**significant** [PoIm: IMPORTANT] delays, a backlog of claims and unnecessary distress for claimants”. (TS)

Here the evaluator *significant* gains the emphasis in combination with the negative expressions *failure*, *unnecessary* and *distress*. This is a proof that the parameter of importance is often combined not only with other parameters in the same evaluator but also with other parameters within whole sentence.

The results of the analysis may be also interpreted by means of the source of the newspaper reports. Out of 24 evaluators, 12 expressions (50%) have been found in broadsheets. The same number (12 = 50%) of instances concerning importance have been represented by tabloids. Surprisingly, only 1 evaluator has been classified as a sub-value UNIMPORTANT. All the remaining expressions (95.8%) indicated the sub-value IMPORTANT. Some examples represent the aspect of superlativeness, such as example 56. Others are related to the aspect of significance (example 25) or stardom (example 7 – included in chapter dealing with the combinations of the parameters).

Example 25:

But the report found that ministers' failure to test the new system led to “**significant** [PoIm: IMPORTANT] delays, a backlog of claims and unnecessary distress for claimants”. (TS)

Example 56

As we all now know, a referendum will be held on 23 June to determine whether the United Kingdom remains part of the European Union. Many commentators and politicians believe this to be **the** single **most significant** [PoIm: IMPORTANT] decision the British public will have made since we backed continued membership of the European Economic Community in 1975. (TG)

Here the examples indicate the value of relevance. The speaker evaluates actors and events but not with the intention to influence a reader's opinion. Examples (25) and (56) do not stress what is important for a particular audience but they rather focus on general importance. By using these evaluators, the speaker adds dramatization to the reported events.

In order to considerably influence a reader’s opinion, articles commenting on political issues could be used for illustration. However, in the corpus data, there were no findings of ideological implication in the language of newspaper reports. If the articles for the corpus were chosen only from reports commenting on political or economic issues, there would be probably a higher occurrence of ideological implications in such kinds of texts. Consequently, a potential influence on a reader would be more prominent.

3.2.4 The Parameter of Possibility/Necessity

The parameter of possibility/necessity is directly connected with the writer’s evaluation of what is or is not possible. There are several degrees of possibility/necessity, ranging from possible to not possible, and from necessary to not necessary. As has been suggested before (see chapter 2.2.1.5), the possibility/necessity is very often expressed by modal verbs. More than a half of the examples in the corpus data that are related to the parameter possibility/necessity express the possibility/necessity by using modal verbs. See the table below:

Table 14 – The Evaluators of Possibility/Necessity

The Parameter of Possibility/Necessity		Broadsheets	Tabloids
Possibility/non-necessity	16	12	4
Non-possibility/necessity	13	11	2
Total	29	23	6

Example 26:

It said one disabled person even *suffered* so much *stress* they **had to** [PoPN: NECESSITY] go to hospital. (TS)

Example 80:

Election commissions and those of us who support them **should** [PoPN: NECESSITY] use the tools and frameworks of open data to build the publication of real-time election results into standard practice for elections, giving citizens faith in their democracies. (TG)

Example 91

The **discovery** [PoEx: UNEXPECTED] of dormant cells **could** [PoPN: POSSIBLE] lead to the end of daily injections for people. (TT)

In the examples above, the quality of possibility/necessity is not dependent on the writer's opinion about what should be done or what could happen. The modality here indicates what is possible or necessary in general, based either on a scientific research or a common sense. The scientific research is more likely to be used in quality papers because broadsheets tend to report on events in science, technology and medicine more often than tabloids. On the other hand, tabloids very frequently use modal verbs "must" or "have to" in order to indicate the writer's opinion what should/must be done. This was illustrated in Example (26). Various types of the parameter of possibility/necessity can be seen in example 12:

Example 12:

"Now, there's this dimension where FGF21 **can** [PoPN: POSSIBLE] help people who **might not** [PoPN: NON-POSSIBILITY] **be able to** [PoPN: ABILITY] sense when they've had enough sugar, which **may** [PoPN: POSSIBILITY] contribute to diabetes." (TT)

Obviously, the parameter of possibility/necessity also includes so called *dynamic modality* (which expresses ability to do something). In this example, several evaluators are used together in order to express the probability or ability. Such combination intensifies the effect of the utterance and the reader is provided with the information which may be true but there is the possibility that the predicted events will not happen.

The corpus data included also evaluators expressing possibility/necessity not using modal verbs. See Example 25 below:

Example 25:

But the report found that ministers' failure to test the new system led to "significant delays, a backlog of claims and **unnecessary** [PoPN: NON-NECESSITY] distress for claimants". (TS)

The evaluator in example (25) may evoke positive/negative emotions, or express criticism or a sympathy of a writer. However, in the Example (12) the evaluator of possibility (**can**) is not directly connected to the attitude of the writer. In this case, the expression is used to comment on something scientifically proven or predicted. In the Example (12), the expression of possibility is dependent on scientific evidence. It could be therefore assumed that evaluators of possibility/necessity need not to be directly connected with the writer's opinion in order to have higher informational value. Moreover, reports containing scientific data and interviews with experts are more credible and convincing. This is true mainly

for broadsheets, which tend to rely on accurate and verified data. In the corpus, 23 occurrences (out of 29) have been found in broadsheets. Apparently, there is the tendency that the quality press uses the evaluators of possibility/necessity more frequently, as journalist in broadsheets are usually speculating about something they are not sure about, whereas tabloids usually do not hesitate to present speculations as facts. Tabloids tend to use very little degree of uncertainty. Thus, the readers of the popular press usually believe the information presented by tabloids because they do not realize that the popular press may intentionally distort the presented information. When readers do not question the truth of presented “facts”, there might be a serious impact on forming their opinion.

3.2.5 The Parameter of Reliability

In the corpus data, 40 instances of the evaluators of reliability have been found. Specifically, 25 instances (out of 40 = 62.5%) have been included in broadsheets and 15 (37.5%) were found in tabloids. No evaluators concerning the sub-values genuine or fake were found. On the other hand, all three sub-values related to the degree of reliability were represented by the evaluators. For detailed classification, see Table 15 below.

Table 15 – The Evaluators of Reliability

The Parameter of Reliability		Broadsheets	Tabloids
Low	3	1	2
Median	23	15	8
High	14	9	5
Total	40	25	15

The following examples indicate the evaluation of the speaker. However, there is no prominent intention to influence a reader’s opinion. Rather there is a reference to the general truth and a degree of certainty related to it. See Examples (45) and (114) below:

Example 45:

This is **surely** [PoR: HIGH] The Great Unreason – more unreasonable even, than the student Marxism of Mr Tsipras. (TT)

Example (114):

But by midday on Monday 30 November – the day after Burkina Faso’s presidential election – citizens had a **reliable** [PoR: HIGH] early indication of who would be their first elected head of state since the overthrow of strongman Blaise Compaoré last year. (TG)

Evidently, evaluators concerning reliability are used in broadsheets more frequently. As it was previously stated (chapter 1.1), tabloids tend to use simpler language than broadsheets. As a consequence, there is a tendency to avoid complex sentences in the popular press. Additionally, expressions indicating reliability are frequently omitted. It is not surprising that journalists in the popular press usually present information as facts, without indicating a lower/higher degree of reliability. Consequently, less observant readers may understand the text differently (than readers who gain information from more sources) if there is no indication of a low reliability.

Example 108:

Scientists **are sure** [PoR: HIGH] there is **no chance** [PoR: LOW] of the 150ft-wide space rock hitting the planet. (Mi)

Example 109:

Precise calculations **show** [PoR: HIGH] there is absolutely **no possibility** [PoR: LOW] of DA14 hitting the Earth. (Mi)

Example 110:

The chances [PoR: LOW] of seeing it in the days before the internet were very **slim**. (TG)

In the examples above, there is an interesting contrast of more evaluators on the opposite sides of the scale of reliability. In Example 108, the evaluator *are sure* has high reliability, as the actors are scientists. It is in contrast with low reliability expressed by *no chance*. Thus, the reliability of the first evaluator increases the reliability of the second evaluator (= that there really is no chance). Similarly, Example 109 describes *no possibility*, which is intensified by the expression *absolutely* (based on the concept of *graduation* presented in the chapter 2.2.4). Moreover, the reliability of the expression *no possibility* is increased because of *the precise calculations* that *shown* the result of *no possibility*.

3.2.6 The Parameter of Comprehensibility

According to the corpus data, 11 instances (out of 244, i.e. 4.5%) representing the parameter of comprehensibility have been found. These 11 examples could be further analysed based on the source criterion. There were 7 occurrences in broadsheets and 4 in tabloids. Moreover, 7 instances (out of 11, i.e. 63.6%) have been classified as INCOMPREHENSIBLE. The remaining 4 examples (36.4%) are related to the sub-value COMPREHENSIBLE. For more comprehensible summary, see the Table 16:

Table 16 – The Evaluators of Comprehensibility

The Parameter of Comprehensibility		Broadsheets	Tabloids
Comprehensible	4	1	3
Incomprehensible	7	6	1
Total	11	7	4

Example 59:

The sports council **has not revealed** [PoC: INCOMPREHENSIBLE] the names of the architects who have joined a design competition, but local media named them as the renowned Kengo Kuma and Toyo Ito. (DM)

Example 60:

Jack Straw, the foreign secretary, said Mr Arafat had played such a dominant role for so long that it was **hard to imagine** [PoC: INCOMPREHENSIBLE] the Middle East without him. (TG)

Example 61:

The scale of London’s property bubble is laid bare in a report that **reveals** [PoC: INCOMPREHENSIBLE + PoEx: UNEXPECTED] how the capital has dramatically outstripped New York and every other major city in the world on prices and sales over the past five years. (TG)

Example 98:

This outrageous award is the **clearest** [PoC: COMPREHENSIBLE] evidence yet that the Tories think they can get away with whatever they like. (TT)

As was suggested in chapter 2.2.1.1, the parameter of comprehensibility could be related to the states that are not known to us. This can be seen in the Example 59. The evaluator *has not revealed* is considered INCOMPREHENSIBLE could be contrasted with the Example 61. The expression *reveals* is also considered INCOMPREHENSIBLE, as it describes something which has been previously unknown. Although the verb *reveals* suggests that something was clarified, Bednarek (2006) remarks that such expressions are related to the states and situations that are or were unknown. Therefore, they are classified as incomprehensible.

In all three examples above, there is no reported speech. It could be therefore assumed that the highlighted expressions are invented by the journalist, and can be classified as evaluative. In the Examples (59) and (61), the speaker uses the evaluators for

communicating the message that something has/has not been clarified. On the contrary, the possible motivation in the Example (98) is evaluating the degree of clarity. The superlative is used here, indicating the highest clarity possible. The three examples could be also characterized in terms of the influence on the reader. All three examples help the reader understand the message which is communicated. In the Examples (59) and (61), a change of a situation is indicated, whereas Example (98) informs readers about *evidence* and stresses its importance.

To summarize the tendency of the quality and popular press concerning comprehensibility, it is obvious that especially *incomprehensible* evaluators are used mostly by broadsheets, as tabloids tend to present information in an unambiguous way with a higher degree of certainty. Only 1 evaluator of incomprehensibility has been detected in tabloids, which proves this assumption.

3.2.7 The Combinations of the Parameters

As has been already suggested, the evaluative parameters can frequently be combined when classifying evaluators. In the corpus data, 31 such combinations have been detected. The parameters in combination are on the same level. Mentioning one of the parameters first does not imply that the parameter is more important or prominent than the other. First of all, an overall summary with respect to the type of the source should be illustrated.

Table 17 – The Frequency of Combinations of Evaluative Parameters

Combination	Number	Broadsheets	Tabloids
PoEm: POSITIVE + PoIm: IMPORTANT	6	4	2
PoEm: POSITIVE + PoEx: UNEXPECTED + PoIm: IMPORTANT	1	1	0
PoEm: POSITIVE + PoEx: UNEXPECTED	6	5	1
PoEm: NEGATIVE + PoIm: IMPORTANT	1	1	0
PoEm: NEGATIVE + PoC: COMPREHENSIBLE	1	0	1
PoEm: NEGATIVE + PoIm: UNIMPORTANT	4	2	2
PoC: COMPREHENSIBLE + PoEx: UNEXPECTED	1	1	0
PoC: COMPREHENSIBLE + PoEx: EXPECTED	4	4	0
PoR: MEDIAN + PoEx: EXPECTED	1	1	0
PoR: HIGH + PoEx: EXPECTED	2	0	2
PoPN: NECESSITY + PoIm: IMPORTANT	1	1	0
PoIm: IMPORTANT + PoEx: UNEXPECTED	3	3	0
TOTAL	31	23	8

Obviously, there is a tendency to combine the evaluative parameters mainly in broadsheets. In the corpus data, most of the combinations of the evaluative parameters have

been detected with the parameter of emotivity. It could be illustrated on the following examples:

Example 2:

Star Wars isn't just a box-office **hit** [PoEm: POSITIVE]: it's a pop culture **sensation** [PoEm: POSITIVE + PoEx: UNEXPECTED + PoIm: IMPORTANT]. (TG)

Example 6:

Nelson Mandela called Mr Arafat "one of the **outstanding** [PoEm: POSITIVE + PoIm: IMPORTANT] *freedom fighters* of this generation," while a papal spokesman **praised** [PoEm: POSITIVE] his "**great charisma**" [PoEm: POSITIVE]. (TG)

Example 7:

It made a **huge** [PoIm: IMPORTANT] **star** [PoIm: IMPORTANT + PoEm: POSITIVE] out of the devilishly handsome [PoEm: POSITIVE] James Norton, **terrifying** [PoEm: NEGATIVE] as **heinous killer** [PoEm: NEGATIVE] Tommy Lee Royce. (Mi)

Example 2 includes two contrasting evaluators. Whereas **hit** expresses only positive emotivity, the term **sensation** is put into contrast and it combines the aspects of positive value, unexpectedness and importance. Similarly, Example 6 combines the parameter of emotivity and importance, as **outstanding** can be classified as something relevant and approving at the same time. In Example 7, there is the expression **star**. It carries the character of something significant and positive. The meaning is intensified by the pre-modifier **huge**, which is an evaluator as well.

There are also other possible combinations concerning other evaluative parameters. The evaluators of *expectedness* can be interpreted by means of *comprehensibility* (as for example in 76 and 77) and *importance* (Example 61). This fact indicates that very few expressions fully represent only one parameter. Especially in the popular press, the information is stressed by means of negative and unexpected words combined.

Example 76:

An initial investigation into the Shoreham *airshow crash* **has found** [PoR: HIGH] that the Hawker Hunter plane that *hit* the ground *and killed* 11 people last month **appeared** [PoR: MEDIAN] to be working **normally** [PoEx: EXPECTED + PoC: COMPREHENSIBLE] and responding to the pilot's commands. (TG)

Example 77:

The Cabinet Office **insisted** [PoR: HIGH] that Mr Crosby's knighthood **had been considered** [PoR: MEDIAN] in the **usual** [PoEx: EXPECTED + PoC: COMPREHENSIBLE] way by a committee of officials that considers honours for political services. (TT)

Example 61:

The scale of London's property bubble is *laid bare* in a report that **reveals** [PoC: COMPREHENSIBLE + PoEx: UNEXPECTED] how the capital has **dramatically** [PoEx: UNEXPECTED + PoIm: IMPORTANT] outstripped New York and every other **major** [PoIm: IMPORTANT] city in the world on prices and sales over the past five years.. (TG)

The evaluators in Examples 76 and 77 refer to some kind of repetition and routine. Thus, they are classified as expected and comprehensible. Example 61 mentions the evaluator **dramatically**. Based on the context, the activity of outstripping carries the significance and relevance. Therefore, it is considered as *important*. As the dictionary entry **dramatically** is defined by means of the word **sudden**, it can be also considered as an evaluator of unexpectedness. Another instance of the evaluator concerning the sub-value *unimportant* is example 51:

Example 51:

He had really been a **peripheral** [PoIm: UNIMPORTANT + PoEm: NEGATIVE] actor in the game since he was sacked from his last job as manager of Barcelona in 1996. (DM)

Here the author of the news report evaluates the actor as an irrelevant subject. The expression **peripheral** can also imply a certain degree of disdain. Therefore, this example (51) could be considered as a combination of the parameter of *importance* and *emotivity*.

To briefly summarize the other possible combinations, few other examples might be examined. In the corpus data, the evaluators were most frequently combined with the parameter of *emotivity* (such as 1, 4, 7, 42, 51, 57, 71, etc.). There was also one instance of the combination with the parameter of *expectedness* (11: **incredibly** [PoEx: UNEXPECTED + PoIm: IMPORTANT]). Thus, it is obvious that the evaluators of importance usually occur in combination with other parameters as well.

Other combinations were concerned with *comprehensibility* (examples 16, 76, 79,...), *reliability* (examples 15, 82, 83,...), etc. There were also evaluative expressions that could be interpreted by the combination with a peripheral parameter.

Example 101:

Previous research **explains** [PoC: COMPREHENSIBLE] how certain hormones affect appetite. (TT)

Example 109:

Precise calculations **show** [PoR: HIGH] there is absolutely no possibility [PoR: LOW] of DA14 hitting the Earth. (Mi)

These two examples are classified only by one core evaluative parameter, as it is the main focus of this thesis. However, if peripheral parameters were included in to the classification, the expressions **show** (Example 109) and **explains** (Example 101) could be combined with the parameter of style.

The results of the analysis may be also interpreted by means of the source of the newspaper reports. Out of 31 evaluative combinations, 23 examples (74.2%) have been found in broadsheets. On the contrary 25.8 % (8 combinations) have been included in the popular press. It is an interesting comparison that broadsheets and tabloids differ enormously in using evaluative language in combinations.

3.3 Prevailing Tendencies

Based on the observations proven by the analysis, it has been found out that emotivity is the most common parameter used in the newspaper discourse. This outcome is in concordance with Fowler's (1991) assumption that newspaper reporting cannot be completely objective and neutral, using only unmarked expressions. The parameter of reliability is the second largest category of evaluators and it is followed by the parameter of expectedness. As has been suggested in the chapter 2.1.1, newspapers tend to report on unexpected events in order to enhance their newsworthiness. This is in confirmed by Bell (1991), who stresses the importance of being original.

Additionally, it was observed that broadsheets tend to comment on the importance and comprehensibility of particular events more frequently. News reports generally avoid describing unimportant events, as almost all occurrences of the parameter of importance were classified by the sub-value IMPORTANT. It has been also noted that there were also many peripheral parameters but they were not classified, as they do not belong to the main focus of this thesis.

Finally, it was indicated that the most influential expressions belong to the category of emotivity, expectedness and reliability. The most prominent are expressions evoking negative emotions. Additionally, a reader's opinion is likely to be shaped also by the selection

of the news. As was suggested in chapter 1.1, broadsheets and tabloids differ considerably in the nature of events which they tend to describe. Whereas broadsheets focus mainly on political and economic issues, tabloids frequently comment on the lifestyle of celebrities, and show business. The quality and the popular press differ enormously in the audiences. This corresponds to the assumption that the possible influence of news reports on public opinion may differ significantly, depending on who the reader is. Additionally, better informed readers are more likely to resist ideological pressure that can be included in newspaper discourse.

To conclude, the contexts of the quality press and the popular press should be compared, with regard to the evaluative expressions used in the discourse. As it was already stated, broadsheets and tabloids differ mainly in their audiences and topics on which they comment. Furthermore, tendency of using evaluative expressions should be described. As it was illustrated in the Example (114), political issues presented by broadsheets involve parameters of reliability. Additionally, the parameter of importance and possibility may be included (as it is the case with reporting on scientific observations). On the other hand, tabloids usually use negative emotivity in order to appeal on reader's emotions. This is related also to the nature of events on which tabloid comment. These are mostly events concerning criminality or lifestyle.

However, such conclusions are not applied generally and cannot be reliably drawn without analysing a much larger sample of examples. For the purposes of this paper, previously mentioned tendencies and assumptions are sufficient in order to make a conclusion.

4 Conclusion

The aim of this bachelor thesis was to monitor the occurrences of evaluative expressions in newspaper discourse and consequently deduce prevailing tendencies in the language in the press. To conclude this paper, both the theoretical and the analytical part are summarized.

In the theoretical part, the language of media was briefly described. Secondly, broadsheets and tabloids were contrasted, and the characteristics and functions of newspaper discourse were summarized. It was pointed out that newspaper reporting cannot be completely neutral and a certain degree of bias and subjectivity is always included. It has been found out that the language of newspaper discourse fulfils several functions, including the most important one: informing readers. Subsequently, evaluative language was described. News values were characterized on the basis of combination of several theories. Additionally, the evaluation in media discourse was presented, based on the classification introduced by Bednarek (2006). Core and peripheral evaluative parameters were defined, which provided a detailed classification for the analytical part. The Appraisal Theory by Martin and White (2005) was introduced and compared to the classification by Bednarek (2006). Finally, influential functions of evaluative language in newspaper reporting were briefly characterized.

In the practical part evaluative expressions were analysed, based on the classification introduced by Bednarek (2006). First of all, primary sources and evaluative criteria have been described. Afterwards, the frequency of occurrences of particular parameters has been illustrated. Only core evaluative parameters have been classified, as including the peripheral parameters to the analysis would be too complex. It was found out that emotivity is the most frequently represented parameter in the newspaper discourse. Additionally, the analysis confirmed what was suggested in the theoretical part, i.e. the news reports frequently comment on negative and unpleasant events in order to increase their newsworthiness. It has been also observed that mainly unexpected events are presented in newspaper reports. Contrary to the broadsheets, there was a greater stylistic variety in terms of evaluative expressions representing the value of expectedness in tabloids. Additionally, it has been found out that almost all evaluative expressions concerning the value of importance are classified by the sub-value of *important*. In the corpus data, there has been only one instance reflecting an event that could be marked by the sub-value *unimportant*. The remaining evaluative expressions concerning the sub-value *unimportant* were detected only in combination with other evaluative parameters. Surprisingly, it has been also found out that the popular press

rarely includes evaluators of *incomprehensibility* or *necessity* to the reports. At the end of the analytical part, prevailing tendencies concerning evaluative language in newspaper reporting have been summarized. It has been confirmed that there is a difference in the context and potential influence on readers between the quality and the popular press.

5 Résumé

Tato bakalářská práce se zaměřuje na vyjadřování stanoviska autora v diskursu novinových zpráv. Konkrétně se soustředí na hodnotící (dále jako „evaluativní“) jazykové prostředky. Jedním z hlavních cílů této práce je zmapování četnosti výskytu evaluativních jazykových prostředků, jejich klasifikace a porovnání kontextů v britském seriózním a bulvárním tisku. Dalším cílem je shrnutí možné interpretace jednotlivých případů.

V úvodu práce je představena základní charakteristika médií a je popsán vztah mezi mluvčím a příjemcem. Dále se práce soustředí pouze na novinový diskurs. Nejprve je popsán rozdíl mezi seriózním a bulvárním tiskem. Je poukázáno především na to, že seriózní a bulvární tisk se výrazně liší cílovou skupinou čtenářů. Dále zde můžeme najít rozdíl v povaze událostí, které jsou v novinových článcích popisovány. Zatímco seriózní tisk běžně podává informace o politických debatách a ekonomických událostech, bulvární tisk se soustředí především na slavné osobnosti a kulturní život. V práci je také zmíněno, že tyto dva aspekty výrazně přispívají k povaze jazyka, který se v novinových článcích objevuje. Při volbě jazykových prostředků je brána v potaz cílová skupina čtenářů a také tematické zaměření daných novin. Další podkapitoly první části práce jsou zaměřeny na znaky a funkce novinového diskursu. Nejprve je pojednáno o znacích novinových zpráv v souvislosti s větnými členy a slovními druhy. Dále je ilustrováno, jak lze měnit důležitost jednotlivých informací ve větě pouhou změnou slovosledu.

V této části je také vysvětleno, proč jazyk novinových článků nelze považovat za neutrální a objektivní. Ať už se jedná o výběr informací, které budou v tisku prezentovány a komentovány, nebo o samotné jazykové zpracování informací, vždy se v celém procesu nachází lidský faktor, který následně ovlivní jazyk daného textu. Žurnalisté používají určité jazykové prostředky na základě vlastní slovní zásoby. Také musí být v brány v potaz politické a sociální podmínky, za kterých článek vzniká. Dále je poukázáno na to, že novinář není schopen prezentovat informace objektivně, i kdyby se vyvaroval všech zabarvených jazykových prostředků. Novináři totiž ve většině případů čerpají informace od jiných institucí, takže vlastní povaha textu je zabarvena už od samého začátku, dokonce i před tím, než do jeho úprav zasáhne žurnalista. V souvislosti s tímto poznatkem jsou v práci definovány funkce novinového diskursu. Jedná se především o funkci informativní. Pohled na další funkce se liší podle různých autorů. Halliday (1970, 1973) tvrdí, že třemi hlavními funkcemi novinového diskursu jsou funkce informativní, interpersonální a textová. Informativní funkce novinového diskursu je zaměřena na prezentování událostí v okolním světě. Interpersonální

funkce vyjadřuje stanovisko autora a je spojena s možným vlivem na postoje a chování čtenáře/příjemce. Popper (1972) oproti tomu rozlišuje funkce argumentativní, popisnou, náznakovou a expresivní. Navzdory tomu, že se pohledy obou odborníků liší, mají společnou jednu myšlenku, a sice že hlavní jazyková v novinových článcích je funkce informativní. Kromě této funkce je ovšem také naznačeno, že jazyk novinových zpráv v sobě může nést ideologický podtext a následně tak ovlivňovat názor čtenáře.

Druhá kapitola této práce se zabývá evaluativními jazykovými prostředky a jejich vymezením z hlediska sémantického. S vyjadřováním stanoviska autora v novinovém diskursu jsou úzce spjaty zpravodajské hodnoty. Proto je jejich klasifikaci věnována oddělená kapitola, ve které jsou hlavní hodnoty popsány a pojmenovány. V této části je zmíněno několik různých klasifikací, které se terminologicky liší. Z hlediska obsahového se však v mnohém shodují. Tyto rozdíly a podobnosti jsou v kapitole popsány a pro ilustraci je uvedeno několik příkladů.

Jako první je zmíněno 21 hlavních zpravodajských hodnot, které ve své práci popsal Bell (1991). Ten však vycházel ze studie, kterou provedli Galtung a Ruge (1965). Zpravodajské hodnoty jsou rozděleny do tří kategorií. První kategorie pokrývá hodnoty spojené s činiteli děje a událostmi, další skupina se zabývá hodnotami v procesu selekce informací a třetí kategorie zahrnuje hodnoty, kterými se vyznačuje samotný text. Všechny hodnoty jsou následně popsány a ilustrovány na příkladech.

V další podkapitole je porovnána klasifikace podle Bella (1991) se zpravodajskými hodnotami, které definovali Galtung a Ruge (1965). Bylo zjištěno, že Galtung a Ruge zpracovali studii, která v samém základu zahrnuje 12 zpravodajských hodnot. V rámci jednotlivých hodnot lze také rozlišovat další podhodnoty, které jsou však pro účely této práce redundantní.

Další část práce se zabývá evaluativním jazykem a jeho charakteristikou z hlediska evaluativních parametrů. Tato klasifikace je převzata podle Bednarek (2006), která představuje hlavní znaky evaluativního jazyka, podrobně se zabývá charakteristikou jednotlivých parametrů. Pro evaluativní teorii založenou na identifikování jazykových prostředků na základě parametrů je předpokladem, že mluvčí hodnotí aspekty okolního světa za použití různých kritérií. Bednarek (2006) dále uvádí, že evaluativní prostředky nezahrnují emocionální stavy mluvčího. Použitím zabarvených prostředků v textu autor vyjadřuje pouze své postoje a názory, které mohou následně ovlivnit čtenáře. Hodnotící jazykové prostředky

se mohou také vztahovat na spolehlivost, nutnost a pravděpodobnost událostí, které novinový článek popisuje. Tato definice je zmíněna Thompsonem a Hunston (2000), kteří se také věnovali studii evaluativních jazykových prostředků. Jejich přístup kombinuje oblast modality a také oblast zhodnocování událostí v novinovém diskursu, které je známo pod názvem The Appraisal Theory. Cíli této práce však nejvíce vyhovuje klasifikace podle Bednarek (2006), proto byla vybrána jako podklad pro analýzu. Z konceptu The Appraisal Theory, jejíž autorem je Martin a White (2005), byl převzat koncept gradace a nepřímé evaluace. Samotná analýza byla provedena podle klasifikace založené na parametrech. Parametry jsou rozděleny do dvou kategorií – klíčové evaluativní parametry a okrajové evaluativní parametry. V rámci první kategorie jsou vymezeny parametry související s důležitostí, emoční zabarveností, srozumitelností, očekávatelností, pravděpodobností/nezbytností a spolehlivostí. Jako okrajové evaluativní parametry jsou uvedeny parametr zřejmosti, stylu a mentálních pochodů. Tato klasifikace byla provedena na základě toho, co autor v diskursu běžně hodnotí jako dobré X špatné, důležité X nedůležité, očekávané X neočekávané, srozumitelné X nesrozumitelné, pravděpodobné X nepravděpodobné, nezbytné X ne nutné, spolehlivé X nespolehlivé.

V rámci evaluativních parametrů Bednarek (2006) vymezuje podkategorie, které ilustruje na příkladech z vlastní analýzy diskursu. Tyto příklady jsou doplněny o možnou interpretaci a finální vyznění daného textu. Na základě této studie byly vymezeny evaluativní parametry i v této práci a každý byl detailně charakterizován za pomoci ilustrace na vlastních příkladech. Klasifikace podle Bednarek (2006) byla vybrána zejména proto, že pro interpretaci jednotlivých zohledňuje kontext, čímž poskytuje detailní popis možného vyznění textu v dané situaci. V rámci některých parametrů lze ještě rozlišovat další podkategorie, jako je například důležitost spojená se slávou, autoritou, nebo ojedinělostí. V rámci očekávatelnosti lze evaluativní jazykové prostředky zařadit podle toho, zda označují běžné, familiérní, překvapivé nebo podivné události. Emoční zabarvení se jednoduše dělí na kategorii pozitivních a negativních výrazových prostředků. V potaz je brána nejen jejich konotace, ale také míra, kterou autor vyjadřuje svoje stanovisko. Některé prostředky jsou sice emočně zabarvené, ale neodrážejí autorův názor. Například slovo *bomba* je negativní již ve svém základním významu. Jeho použití v textu novinového článku ovšem neznamená, že autor vyjadřuje nesouhlas s danou situací, kterou bomba a případný výbuch popisuje. Takový případ patří do nepřímé evaluace.

Co se týče parametru srozumitelnosti, autor může používat evaluativní jazykové prostředky spojené s otevřeností, jasností a záhadností. V této kategorii jsou zahrnuty také stavy, které nám nejsou známy. Jazykové prostředky, které indikují, že něco bylo objasněno, jsou také součástí této klasifikace. Příkladem může být například slovo *odhalit*, které naznačuje, že předchozí stav byl učiněn jasnějším a srozumitelnějším. Na druhou stranu je tento jazykový prostředek klasifikován jako parametr srozumitelnosti: nesrozumitelný, jelikož je spojen se stavem, který byl tajemný a nesrozumitelný dříve. Další příklady, které by mohly být zařazeny do stejné kategorie, jsou například výrazy jako *prazvláštní*, *nadpřirozený*, *tajemný*. Při klasifikaci těchto parametrů je však nutné si dát pozor, protože například slovo *prazvláštní* může být klasifikováno v rámci parametru očekávatelnosti. V tomto případě je zřejmé, jak důležitý je kontext pro výslednou interpretaci použitých příkladů. Okrajové parametry jsou v práci charakterizovány pouze stručně, jelikož jejich výskyt nebyl v analytické části mapován. Přesto je základní klasifikace nastíněna a možné interpretace jsou uvedeny na příkladech.

Na závěr teoretické části je popsáno možné vyznění textu a jeho vliv na čtenáře. Je popsáno, že určité hodnoty jsou obsaženy už v jazyce jako takovém. Evaluativní jazykové prostředky jsou však spojeny pouze s hodnotami, které autor do textu přidal. Autorovo hodnocení může být založeno jak na jeho vlastních úvahách a postojích, tak na základě evaluace ze strany jiných zdrojů, odkud autor podklady pro novinový článek čerpal. Pro rozlišení původu evaluativního postoje je opět nezbytné, aby byl posouzen kontext, ve kterém se daný výraz vyskytuje.

Praktická část práce je zaměřena na monitorování výskytů jazykových prostředků v diskursu novinových zpráv. V úvodu analytické části jsou charakterizovány primární zdroje pro následný rozbor. Jedná se konkrétně o 31 novinových článků ze šesti různých zpravodajských zdrojů, přičemž je zastoupen seriózní i bulvární tisk. Pro rozbor seriózního tisku byly vybrány následující zdroje: The Guardian (dále zkracován jako "TG"), The Telegraph (TT) a The Independent (TI). Bulvární tisk je zastoupen zdroji The Sun (TS), The Daily Mail (DM) a The Daily Mirror (Mi). Analýza byla provedena podle klasifikace, která byla specifikována již v teoretické části (Bednarek). Korpus zahrnuje 244 evaluativních jazykových prostředků, které byly identifikovány v náhodně vybraných novinových člancích. Výsledky jsou analyzovány kvantitativně i kvalitativně.

Analytická část je strukturována podle jednotlivých parametrů. Nejprve je ilustrováno zastoupení jednotlivých parametrů v rámci celého korpusu. Je ukázán počet výskytů

evaluativních prostředků v daném parametru a jejich procentuální vyjádření označuje jejich podíl na celkovém korpusu příkladů. Dále je analýza prováděna podle jednotlivých parametrů.

Z analýzy je patrné, že největší zastoupení evaluativních prostředků má v novinovém diskursu parametr spojený s emočním zabarvením. V 64 případech z 79 (81 %) je emoční zabarvení klasifikováno jako negativní. Zastoupení seriózního a bulvárního tisku je relativně vyvážené, jelikož v seriózním tisku bylo detekováno 46 emotivních výrazových prostředků a v bulvárním tisku se jednalo o 33 jazykových prostředků. Na základě tohoto pozorování lze předpokládat, že bulvární i seriózní tisk používá zabarvené prostředky podobně často. Fakt, že emotivita je nejčastějším parametrem, který lze v evaluativním jazyce detekovat, je v souladu s předpokladem, že noviny používají emotivní jazykové prostředky, aby přidaly článkům na dramatičnosti a následně tak zvýšily jejich mediální hodnotu a zajímavost. Tato myšlenka byla nastíněna již v teoretické části.

Na základě podobného přístupu jsou analyzovány i ostatní parametry. Vybrané příklady byly posuzovány z několika různých hledisek. V potaz bylo bráno, zda se jedná o přímou nebo nepřímou evaluaci. Dále jsou vybrány prostředky zařazené do kategorií a podkategorií v rámci parametru. Následně je nastíněno, jaký je možný záměr autora, respektive co ho vedle k použití daného výrazového prostředku. Tento aspekt je spjat s funkcemi novinového diskursu, které jsou popsány v teoretické části. Jedná se zejména o funkci informační a přesvědčovací. Proto je práce provázána i z tohoto hlediska. Na závěr jsou zahrnuty úvahy, jaké je možné vyznění a interpretace použitých evaluativních jazykových prostředků s ohledem na vliv na čtenáře.

Poslední část praktické práce shrnuje převažující tendence používání evaluativních prostředků v diskursu novinových zpráv. Závěry vyvozené z analýzy jsou v souladu s předpoklady nastíněnými v teoretické části. Je potvrzena Fowlerova (1991) teorie, že jazyk novinových zpráv nemůže být zcela neutrální a nezabarvený. V novinovém diskursu jsou patrná příznaková slova, která spadají do kategorie očekávatelnosti, důležitosti, emotivity, stylu, spolehlivosti, pravděpodobnosti a podobně. Jednou z převažujících tendencí v novinovém diskursu je prezentování událostí, které jsou nové a neočekávané. Toto zjištění je v souladu s názorem, který prezentoval Bell (1991), a sice že žurnalisté se snaží originálními novinovými články odlišit od konkurenčních zpravodajských služeb a přidat tak na mediální hodnotě. Dále je potvrzena tendence prezentovat negativní informace, aby se zvýšila dramatičnost a hodnota jednotlivých článků. Také je popsáno, že míra vlivu textu na

čtenáře je dána mimo jiné jeho informovaností a všeobecným přehledem. Závěrem jsou porovnány kontexty seriózního a bulvárního tisku, ve kterém se evaluativní prostředky v jednotlivých typech novin vyskytují.

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8 Appendices

8.1 Appendix 1

Table 3: Evaluative Parameters and Examples

PARAMETER	VALUES: examples
Core evaluative parameters:	
COMPREHENSIBILITY	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> COMPREHENSIBLE: <i>plain, clear</i> INCOMPREHENSIBLE: <i>mysterious, unclear</i>
EMOTIVITY	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> POSITIVE: <i>a polished speech</i> NEGATIVE: <i>a rant</i>
EXPECTEDNESS	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> EXPECTED: <i>familiar, inevitably</i> UNEXPECTED: <i>astonishing, surprising</i> CONTRAST: <i>but, however</i> CONTRAST/COMPARISON: <i>not, no, hardly, only</i> (negation)
IMPORTANCE	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> IMPORTANT: <i>key, top, landmark</i> UNIMPORTANT: <i>minor, slightly</i>
POSSIBILITY/NECESSITY	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> NECESSARY: <i>had to</i> NOT NECESSARY: <i>need not</i> POSSIBLE: <i>could</i> NOT POSSIBLE: <i>inability, could not</i>
RELIABILITY	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> GENUINE: <i>real</i> NOT POSSIBLE: <i>inability, could not</i>
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> GENUINE: <i>real</i> FAKE: <i>choreographed</i> HIGH: <i>will, be to</i> MEDIUM: <i>likely</i> LOW: <i>may</i>
Peripheral evaluative parameters:	
EVIDENTIALITY	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> HEARSAY: [he said it was] <i>'a lie'</i> MINDSAY: <i>'well done'</i> [he thought] PERCEPTION: <i>seem, visibly, betray</i> GENERAL KNOWLEDGE: <i>(in)famously</i> EVIDENCE: <i>proof that</i> UNSPECIFIC: <i>it emerged that, meaning that</i>
MENTAL STATE	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> BELIEF/DISBELIEF: <i>accept, doubt</i> EMOTION: <i>scared, angry</i> EXPECTATION: <i>expectations</i> KNOWLEDGE: <i>know, recognize</i> STATE-OF-MIND: <i>alert, tired, confused</i> PROCESS: <i>forget, ponder</i> VOLITION/NON-VOLITION: <i>deliberately, forced to</i>
STYLE	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> SELF: <i>frankly, briefly</i> OTHER: <i>promise, threaten</i>

Table 4 – Interpersonal semantics in relation to lexicogrammar and phonology

Register	Discourse semantics	Lexicogrammar	Phonology
Tenor	Negotiation		
	– speech function – exchange	– mood – tagging	– tone (& ‘key’)
power (status)	Appraisal		
	– engagement – affect – judgement – appreciation – graduation	– ‘evaluative’ lexis – modal verbs – modal adjuncts – polarity – pre/numeration – intensification – repetition – manner; extent – logico-semantics – vocation	– loudness – pitch movement – voice quality – phonaesthesia – [formatting]
solidarity (contact)	Involvement		
	– naming – technicality – abstraction – anti-language – swearing	– proper names – technical lexis – specialised lexis – slang – taboo lexis – grammatical metaphor	– ‘accent’ ... – whisper ... – acronyms – ‘pig latins’ – secret scripts

8.2 Appendix 2 – Corpus Data

1. A long time ago in a boardroom far, far away ... director George Lucas is *riding high* on the **unexpected** [PoEx: UNEXPECTED] *success* of Star Wars, the 1977 movie that goes on to launch the **blockbuster** [PoIm: IMPORTANT + PoEm: POSITIVE] era. (TG)
2. Star Wars isn't just a box-office **hit** [PoEm: POSITIVE]: it's a pop culture **sensation** [PoEm: POSITIVE + PoEx: UNEXPECTED + PoIm: IMPORTANT]. (TG)
3. ...what happens when a director returns to a **beloved** [PoEm: POSITIVE] franchise and **screws it up** [PoEm: NEGATIVE], what does that make the Holiday Special? (TG)
4. Now, old fans and new **can** [PoPN: POSSIBLE] watch it in all its **insane** [PoEm: NEGATIVE] **glory** [PoEm: POSITIVE], and get to experience the same **crushing** [PoIm: IMPORTANT + PoEm: NEGATIVE] **disappointment** [PoEm: NEGATIVE] and **bemusement** [PoEm: POSITIVE] that kids and men-children across the US did in 1978. (TG)
5. Their report, out today, is a **huge** [PoIm: IMPORTANT] **blow** [PoEx: UNEXPECTED] to Work and Pensions Secretary Iain Duncan Smith – who **has insisted** [PoR: HIGH] the new system is **simpler** [PoC: COMPREHENSIBLE] and **fairer** [PoEm: POSITIVE]. (TS)
6. Nelson Mandela called Mr Arafat "one of the **outstanding** [PoEm: POSITIVE + PoIm: IMPORTANT] *freedom fighters* of this generation," while a papal spokesman **praised** [PoEm: POSITIVE] his "**great charisma**" [PoEm: POSITIVE]. (TG)
7. It made a **huge** [PoIm: IMPORTANT] **star** [PoIm: IMPORTANT + PoEm: POSITIVE] out of the **devilishly handsome** [PoEm: POSITIVE] James Norton, **terrifying** [PoEm: NEGATIVE] as **heinous killer** [PoEm: NEGATIVE] Tommy Lee Royce. (Mi)
8. And Sarah Lancashire, as **troubled** [PoEm: NEGATIVE] cop Catherine Cawood, is completely **captivating** [PoEm: POSITIVE + PoEx: UNEXPECTED]. (Mi)
9. This is **one of the best dramas** [PoEm: POSITIVE + PoIm: IMPORTANT] on the box, with a **brilliant** [PoEm: POSITIVE] cast to boot. (Mi)
10. London's **traditionally** [PoEx: EXPECTED] low-rise skyline is being swiftly replaced by **luxury** [PoEm: POSITIVE] residential skyscrapers. (TG)
11. "This is **incredibly** [PoIm: IMPORTANT + PoEx: UNEXPECTED] **exciting** [PoEm: POSITIVE], and **could** [PoR: MEDIAN] *open the doors* to new treatments... for young people who develop diabetes," said Professor Noel Morgan of Exeter University Medical School. (TT)
12. "Now, there's this dimension where FGF21 **can** [PoPN: POSSIBLE] **help** [PoEm: POSITIVE] people who **might not** [PoPN: NON-POSSIBILITY] **be able to** [PoPN: ABILITY] sense when they've had enough sugar, which **may** [PoPN: POSSIBILITY] *contribute* to diabetes." (TT)
13. Greece has, almost literally, *nothing*, because it has *little* policy **freedom** [PoEm: POSITIVE], a currency whose value it **cannot** [PoPN: NON-POSSIBILITY] affect and a deflation that makes its debt-to-GDP ratio arithmetically **unbearable** [PoEm: NEGATIVE]. (TT)
14. Our leaders have **had to** [PoPN: NECESSITY] **shut up** [PoEm: NEGATIVE] about that, but there remains, even in Britain, a **curious** [PoEx: UNEXPECTED] **desire** [PoEm: POSITIVE] to *shore up* what went **wrong** [PoEm: NEGATIVE]. (TT)
15. The party **could** [PoPN: POSSIBILITY] change convention rules or bring in an independent candidate, but the **more realistic** [PoR: MEDIAN + PoEx: EXPECTED] (yet **unwelcome** [PoEm: NEGATIVE]) option **may be** [PoPN: POSSIBILITY] to *support* a Democrat. (TG)
16. A local news channel in the US recently covered a *murder investigation* that featured a rather **rudimentary** [PoEm: NEGATIVE + PoC: COMPREHENSIBLE] drawing of the suspect, done by an eyewitness at the scene. **Clearly** [PoC: COMPREHENSIBLE] this witness was *no Van Gogh* but even for a sketch, the picture is a somewhat crude interpretation of a human face. (TS)

17. If Lobos have been as **bad** [PoEm: NEGATIVE] for taxpayers as campaigners say, then their similarities with derivatives-based products sold by London bankers to **naive** [PoEm: NEGATIVE] councils in Southern Europe are **uncanny** [PoC: INCOMPREHENSIBLE]. (TI)
18. George Lucas, who is no **fool** [PoEm: NEGATIVE] recognised without delay he had commissioned a **clanger** [PoEm: NEGATIVE]. (TG)
19. A **huge** [PoIm: IMPORTANT] disability benefits shake-up has been branded a “**fiasco**” [PoEm: NEGATIVE] amid a backlog of claims and long delays. (TS)
20. If the **maligned** [PoEm: NEGATIVE] prequels to the original Star Wars trilogy are a **cautionary** [PoEm: NEGATIVE] tale... (TG)
21. Lucas *has never been shy* about using the brand to **peddle** [PoEm: NEGATIVE] any old **tat** [PoEm: NEGATIVE + PoIm: UNIMPORTANT]. (TG)
22. Yes, it’s a piece of Star Wars merchandise so **godawful** [PoEm: NEGATIVE], even George Lucas doesn’t want to profit from the **bloody** [PoEm: NEGATIVE] thing. (TG)
23. The latter’s appearance is **startlingly** [PoEx: UNEXPECTED] **transgressive** [PoEm: NEGATIVE] as she features as the sexual fantasy of Chewie’s father, Itchy. (TG)
24. The Holiday Special, now but a Google search away, is **often** [PoEx: EXPECTED] **horrific** [PoEm: NEGATIVE] viewing, so don’t be expecting any revisionist articles. (TG)
25. But the report **found** [PoR: HIGH] that ministers’ **failure** [PoEm: NEGATIVE] to test the new system led to “**significant** [PoIm: IMPORTANT] delays, a backlog of claims and **unnecessary** [PoPN: NON- NECESSITY] **distress** [PoEm: NEGATIVE] for claimants”. (TS)
26. It said one disabled person even *suffered* so much *stress* they **had to** [PoPN: NECESSITY] go to hospital. (TS)
27. The cost of building the main stadium for the 2020 Tokyo Olympics is **expected** [PoEx: EXPECTED] to be about half the initial \$2.0 billion price tag that **sparked a** [PoEm: NEGATIVE] public **backlash** [PoEm: NEGATIVE] (DM)
28. The futuristic design had also been **criticised** [PoEm: NEGATIVE] by some architects, who said it would be an **eyesore** [PoEm: NEGATIVE]. (DM)
29. The stadium **fiasco** [PoEm: NEGATIVE] has pushed back the new venue's completion date, **embarrassing** [PoEm: NEGATIVE] Japanese sport officials who have also been *forced* (experiential) to find an alternative venue for 2019 Rugby World Cup matches that Japan **will** [PoR: HIGH] host. (DM)
30. Neymar **has been ordered** [PoPN: NECESSITY] to appear in court to face fraud and corruption charges relating to his transfer to Barcelona. (TT)
31. The case has been brought against Neymar after Brazilian investment fund DIS **alleged** [PoR: MEDIAN] that they **failed** [PoEm: NEGATIVE] to receive the 40% cut of the transfer fee which took the 23-year-old from Santos to Barcelona. (TT)
32. Barcelona and their **star** [PoEm: POSITIVE + PoIm: IMPORTANT] player are also currently *embroiled in an investigation* into **alleged** [PoR: MEDIAN] tax fraud. (TT)
33. However **ridiculous** [PoEm: NEGATIVE] the picture **may** [PoPN: POSSIBILITY] look, when compared to an actual photograph of the suspect it **seems** [PoR: MEDIAN] the “artist” **did manage to capture** [PoPN: ABILITY] his likeness. (TS)
34. There is **misery** [PoEm: NEGATIVE] for Palestinians, and there is **misery** [PoEm: NEGATIVE] for Israelis who **suffer** [PoEm: NEGATIVE] terrorist activity. (TG)
35. Breaking the news to **disappointed** [PoEm: NEGATIVE] fans, the singer issued a statement. (TT)
36. **Shocked** [PoEx: UNEXPECTED] shoppers watched **in horror** [PoEm: NEGATIVE] as a **cannibal** [PoEm: NEGATIVE] seagull *ATE a pigeon alive* in a city centre. (TS)
37. The **vicious** [PoEm: NEGATIVE] bird *pecked the defenceless pigeon to death* outside a café in Exeter, Devon. (TS)

38. Several times the **stricken** [PoEm: NEGATIVE] **victim** [PoEm: NEGATIVE] attempts to get away from its **attacker** [PoEm: NEGATIVE], the gull *chases* it and *drags* it *back*. (TS)
39. And it's seen *taking large chunks of flesh from its back* while it continues to **frantically** [PoEm: NEGATIVE] flap its wings. (TS)
40. Some onlookers were so **disturbed** [PoEm: NEGATIVE] by the **gruesome** [PoEm: NEGATIVE] spectacle that they ran away. (TS)
41. The team **looked** [PoR: MEDIAN] **weak** [PoEm: NEGATIVE], too young, **low on quality** [PoEm: NEGATIVE] and they were lead by an **inscrutable** [PoC: INCOMPREHENSIBLE] man with a **less than glorious** [PoEm: NEGATIVE] past. (TG)
42. Meira was so **bedazzled** [PoEx: UNEXPECTED] by the football **miracle** [PoEx: UNEXPECTED + PoEm: POSITIVE] that had just happened that he lifted up the bowl the **wrong** [PoEm: NEGATIVE] way round. (TG)
43. A **shocking** [PoEx: UNEXPECTED] leaflet which claims gay people committed the holocaust and that homosexual people have "the longest child **abuse** [PoEm: NEGATIVE] record in history" has been handed out to **horrified** [PoEm: NEGATIVE] passers-by. (Mi)
44. But where is the "reason" in the centrist, moderate Greek parties which, for several years, have conspired with the Troika to **impoverish** [PoEm: NEGATIVE] their country? (TT)
45. This is **surely** [PoR: HIGH] The Great Unreason – more **unreasonable** [PoEm: NEGATIVE] even, than the student Marxism of Mr Tsipras. (TT)
46. The giant space rock, which is big enough to destroy London, **could** [PoPN: POSSIBILITY] come as close as 17,200 miles. (Mi)
47. DA14 belongs to a **dangerous** [PoEm: NEGATIVE] family of near-Earth objects (NEOs) that are small enough to be missed but large enough to cause **serious** [PoIm: IMPORTANT] **damage** [PoEm: NEGATIVE]. (Mi)
48. The asteroid is **more likely to** [PoR: MEDIAN] hit some space **junk** [PoEm: NEGATIVE + PoIm: UNIMPORTANT], but most of this is only about a centimetre across and the impact won't even be noticed. (Mi)
49. He said the asteroid posed no **threat** [PoEm: NEGATIVE] to the International Space Station, which orbits at an altitude of only a few hundred kilometres. (Mi)
50. When the **sad** [PoEm: NEGATIVE] news of his *death broke*, I realised **guiltily** [PoEm: NEGATIVE] that I hadn't thought of Johann Cruyff for a while. (DM)
51. He had really been a **peripheral** [PoIm: UNIMPORTANT + PoEm: NEGATIVE] actor in the game since he was *sacked* from his last job as manager of Barcelona in 1996. (DM)
52. There are many ways some schools **can** [PoPN: ABILITY] **manipulate** [PoEm: NEGATIVE] their intakes and still comply with the code of practice. (TG)
53. The ability to put in the **occasional** [PoEx: UNEXPECTED] **complaint** [PoEm: NEGATIVE] to the adjudicator **seems** [PoR: MEDIAN] **paltry** [PoEm: NEGATIVE] in comparison with this sort of **radical** [PoIm: IMPORTANT] thinking. (TG)
54. Anyone who is playing that game **needs** [PoPN: NECESSITY] to realise that it is causing **great** [PoIm: IMPORTANT] **resentment** [PoEm: NEGATIVE] and it **will** [PoR: HIGH] backfire immediately. (TI)
55. George Bush **ambiguously** [PoC: INCOMPREHENSIBLE] described death of Mr Arafat as "a **significant** [PoIm: IMPORTANT] moment in Palestinian history", while the secretary of state, Colin Powell, appealed for calm in the region. (TG)
56. **As we all now know** [PoEx: EXPECTED], a referendum **will be held** [PoR: HIGH] on 23 June to determine whether the United Kingdom remains part of the European Union. Many commentators and politicians **believe** [PoR: MEDIAN] this to be **the single most significant**

- [PoIm: IMPORTANT] decision the British public will have made since we backed continued membership of the European Economic Community in 1975. (TG)
57. It's also **noteworthy** [PoIm: IMPORTANT + PoEm: POSITIVE] for the introduction of bounty hunter Boba Fett. (TG)
58. Disabled People Minister Mike Penning said: "The old DLA system was *extremely outdated*, with the **majority** [PoIm: IMPORTANT] of claimants getting the benefit for life without systematic checks on their condition. (TS)
59. The sports council **has not revealed** [PoC: INCOMPREHENSIBLE] the names of the architects who have joined a design competition, but local media named them as the **renowned** [PoIm: IMPORTANT] Kengo Kuma and Toyo Ito. (DM)
60. Jack Straw, the foreign secretary, said Mr Arafat had played such a **dominant** [PoIm: IMPORTANT] role for so long that it was **hard to imagine** [PoC: INCOMPREHENSIBLE] the Middle East without him. (TG)
61. The scale of London's property bubble is *laid bare* in a report that **reveals** [PoC: COMPREHENSIBLE + PoEx: UNEXPECTED] how the capital has **dramatically** [PoEx: UNEXPECTED + PoIm: IMPORTANT] outstripped New York and every other **major** [PoIm: IMPORTANT] city in the world on prices and sales over the past five years.. (TG)
62. He added that he **expected** [PoEx: EXPECTED] London's **dominance** [PoIm: IMPORTANT] to remain in place for the next decade. (TG)
63. But the progression of the disease is **radically** [PoIm: IMPORTANT + PoEx: UNEXPECTED] different in those diagnosed as teenagers or beyond, who retain **unexpectedly** [PoEx: UNEXPECTED] **large** [PoIm: IMPORTANT] numbers of beta cells at diagnosis – up to 50 per cent are still present, although they are no longer working as they **should** [PoPN: NECESSITY]. (TT)
64. If the amount of glucose in the blood is too high, it **can** [PoPN: POSSIBILITY] **seriously** [PoIm: IMPORTANT] *damage* the body's organs over time. (TT)
65. A cure for sugar cravings is a **major** [PoIm: IMPORTANT] step nearer after scientists identified a hormone which suppresses a "*sweet tooth*". (TT)
66. Politically, it is **crucial** [PoIm: IMPORTANT] to ensure that data released into the public domain is verified, and this is one of the **primary** [PoIm: IMPORTANT] roles of an independent election commission. (TG)
67. Trust is **vital** [PoIm: IMPORTANT + PoPN: NECESSITY] at all times during an election process. (TG)
68. As a global community, we **should** [PoPN: NECESSITY] take heart. (TG)
69. The Welshman's value *has soared* since moving to north London from Cardiff as a teenager in 2008, and he **is said to be** [PoR: MEDIAN] one of his country's **key** [PoIm: IMPORTANT] performers at Euro 2016. (Mi)
70. Mr McDonnell **stressed** [PoIm: IMPORTANT] the **need** [PoPN: NECESSITY] to deal with the causes of mass migration - *poverty, conflict* and climate change - and stop people trafficking. (Mi)
71. A **fascinating** [PoEx: UNEXPECTED + PoEm: POSITIVE] **drama** [PoIm: IMPORTANT] involving **big** [PoIm: IMPORTANT] business is *brewing in the fog* of Hillary Clinton's election campaign. (TI)
72. John McDonnell today **predicted** [PoR: MEDIAN] national borders **will be** [PoR: MEDIAN] **irrelevant** [PoIm: UNIMPORTANT] by the year 2100 as he called on Britain to help more Syrian refugees. (Mi)
73. Local authorities have **diminishing** [PoEm: NEGATIVE + PoIm: UNIMPORTANT] powers to intervene. (TG)
74. Then, **of course** [PoEx: EXPECTED], there are the flies. (Mi)

75. The **typical** [PoEx: EXPECTED] Mayfair or Holland Park apartment in central-west London has jumped in price by 138% since 2004. (TG)
76. An initial investigation into the Shoreham *airshow crash* **has found** [PoR: HIGH] that the Hawker Hunter plane that *hit the ground and killed* 11 people last month **appeared** [PoR: MEDIAN] to be working **normally** [PoEx: EXPECTED + PoC: COMPREHENSIBLE] and responding to the pilot's commands. (TG)
77. The Cabinet Office **insisted** [PoR: HIGH] that Mr Crosby's knighthood **had been considered** [PoR: MEDIAN] in the **usual** [PoEx: EXPECTED + PoC: COMPREHENSIBLE] way by a committee of officials that considers honours for political services. (TT)
78. A Downing Street source pointed out that Labour had **repeatedly** [PoEx: EXPECTED] arranged for honours to be given to its *supporters* when it was in Government. (TT)
79. The genetically-modified mice had a choice between the same two diets as the **normal** [PoEx: EXPECTED + PoC: COMPREHENSIBLE] mice. (TT)
80. Election commissions and those of us who support them **should** [PoPN: NECESSITY] use the tools and frameworks of open data to build the publication of real-time election results into **standard** [PoEx: EXPECTED] practice for elections, giving citizens faith in their democracies. (TG)
81. Asked about it on the BBC's Sunday Politics today, he said: "**Inevitably** [PoEx: EXPECTED] in this century we **will have** [PoR: HIGH] open borders." (Mi)
82. **Indeed** [PoEx: EXPECTED + PoR: HIGH] listening to Cruyff talk about football was *like listening to a painter or a writer discussing their craft*. (DM)
83. But the organisation instead **confirmed** [PoEx: EXPECTED + PoR: HIGH] Wellington's place on the sevens calendar was safe in a one-paragraph statement issued Thursday. (DM)
84. A casual comment in an interview **should not** [PoPN: NECESSITY] be taken as permission for everyone to start playing leadership games. (TI)
85. Wookiee nookie is **the last thing you'd expect** [PoEx: UNEXPECTED] to see in a show aimed at a family audience, right? (TG)
86. Carroll **magically** [PoEx: UNEXPECTED + PoEm: POSITIVE] appears and starts to make *suggestive* comments. (TG)
87. **Interestingly** [PoEx: UNEXPECTED + PoEm: POSITIVE], Lucasfilm has never really gone after those circulating first the tapes, then digital uploads. (TG)
88. Prime Minister Shinzo Abe **shocked** [PoEx: UNEXPECTED] Olympic organisers in July when he pulled the plug on the winning design by Iraqi-British architect Zaha Hadid as soaring costs put it on course to become the world's most expensive sports stadium. (DM)
89. This multi-Bafta Award-winning drama was one of most **shocking** [PoEx: UNEXPECTED] shows of 2014. (Mi)
90. While out solving the **curious** [PoEx: UNEXPECTED] *incident of the dead sheep* in Halifax, Catherine *smells something pungent* from a nearby garage. (Mi)
91. The **discovery** [PoEx: UNEXPECTED] of dormant cells **could** [PoPN: POSSIBLE] lead to the end of daily injections for people. (TT)
92. **Unexpected** [PoEx: UNEXPECTED] **triumph** [PoEm: POSITIVE] completes transformation in club's fortunes. (TG)
93. For eight short minutes, the **miracle** [PoEx: UNEXPECTED + PoEm: POSITIVE] actually had the audacity to wink at Schalke. (TG)
94. The Royal Blues were 2-0 up at home to Bielefeld while leaders Stuttgart had **unexpectedly** [PoEx: UNEXPECTED] conceded a goal against Cottbus. (TG)
95. It was **the first time** [PoEx: UNEXPECTED] this season that the league's youngest team **had shown** [PoR: HIGH] their inexperience. (TG)

96. Major Tim Peake treated his Twitter fans when he uploaded a **stunning** [PoEx: UNEXPECTED] snap of Great Britain from his vantage point on the International Space Station. (TS)
97. The leaflet distributed in Derry city also **astonishingly** [PoEx: UNEXPECTED] **alleges** [PoR: MEDIAN] that "Hitler used his homosexual formation, the SS, to commit almost the whole Holocaust". (Mi)
98. This **outrageous** [PoEx: UNEXPECTED] award is the **clearest** [PoC: COMPREHENSIBLE] evidence yet that the Tories think they **can** [PoR: MEDIAN] get away with whatever they like. (TT)
99. A condition **known** [PoC: COMPREHENSIBLE + PoEx: EXPECTED] as insulinitis, representing an inflammatory process, kills off nearly all the insulin-producing beta cells in the pancreas of the young children. (TT)
100. At first I just thought it was some sort of **fight** [PoEm: NEGATIVE] but then it became **clear** [PoC: COMPREHENSIBLE] that *the seagull was eating the poor pigeon alive*. (TS)
101. Previous research **explains** [PoC: COMPREHENSIBLE] how certain hormones affect appetite. (TT)
102. Sir McCartney sported a rising sun logo t-shirt when he flew into Tokyo last Thursday, posing with a robot for photographers at the airport upon arrival, before **reportedly** [PoR: MEDIAN] falling ill with the **unspecified** [PoC: INCOMPREHENSIBLE] virus the following day. (TT)
103. It was made for Thanksgiving but is **perhaps** [PoR: MEDIAN] *more suited* to Halloween. (TG)
104. Researchers at the University of Exeter **believe** [PoR: MEDIAN] it **may be possible** [PoR: MEDIAN] to awaken the dormant cells and reverse the disease. (TT)
105. Earlier this year MIT and Harvard University **showed** [PoR: HIGH] they **could** [PoPN: POSSIBILITY] switch off type one diabetes for six months in animals by transfusions of millions of insulin producing cells. (TT)
106. **Might** there **not** [PoPN: POSSIBILITY] be some reason in electing a party prepared to make "**impossible**" [PoPN: NON-POSSIBILITY] demands? (TT)
107. It follows that many of them **cannot** [PoPN: NON-POSSIBILITY] eat. (TT)
108. Scientists **are sure** [PoR: HIGH] there is **no chance** [PoR: LOW] of the 150ft-wide space rock hitting the planet. (Mi)
109. Precise calculations **show** [PoR: HIGH] there is absolutely **no possibility** [PoR: LOW] of DA14 hitting the Earth. (Mi)
110. **The chances** [PoR: LOW] of seeing it in the days before the internet were very **slim**. (TG)
111. Official figures **showed** [PoR: HIGH] that borrowing is **likely to** [PoR: MEDIAN] be higher in this financial year than in 2014-15, in breach of the chancellor's fiscal rule that the annual deficit **should** [PoR: MEDIAN] fall in each year of parliament. (TG)
112. Researchers say their findings, published online in the journal Cell Metabolism, **could** [PoPN: POSSIBILITY] *improve* the diet and *help* patients who are diabetic or obese. (TT)
113. Given clear skies, it **should be possible** [PoR: MEDIAN] to track the rock climbing in the north-eastern sky from anywhere in the UK. (Mi)
114. But by midday on Monday 30 November – the day after Burkina Faso's presidential election – citizens had a **reliable** [PoR: HIGH] early indication of who would be their first elected head of state since the *overthrow* of **strongman** [PoEm: NEGATIVE] Blaise Compaoré last year. (TG)