UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

LANGUAGE OF DIPLOMACY: INTERPERSONALITY IN KOFI

ANNAN'S ENTRY AND EXIT SPEECHES TO THE UNITED NATIONS

GENERAL ASSEMBLY

BY

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English Language

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DECLARATION

Candidate's Declaration

I hereby declare that this thesis is the result of my own original research and that no part of it has been presented for another degree in this university or elsewhere.
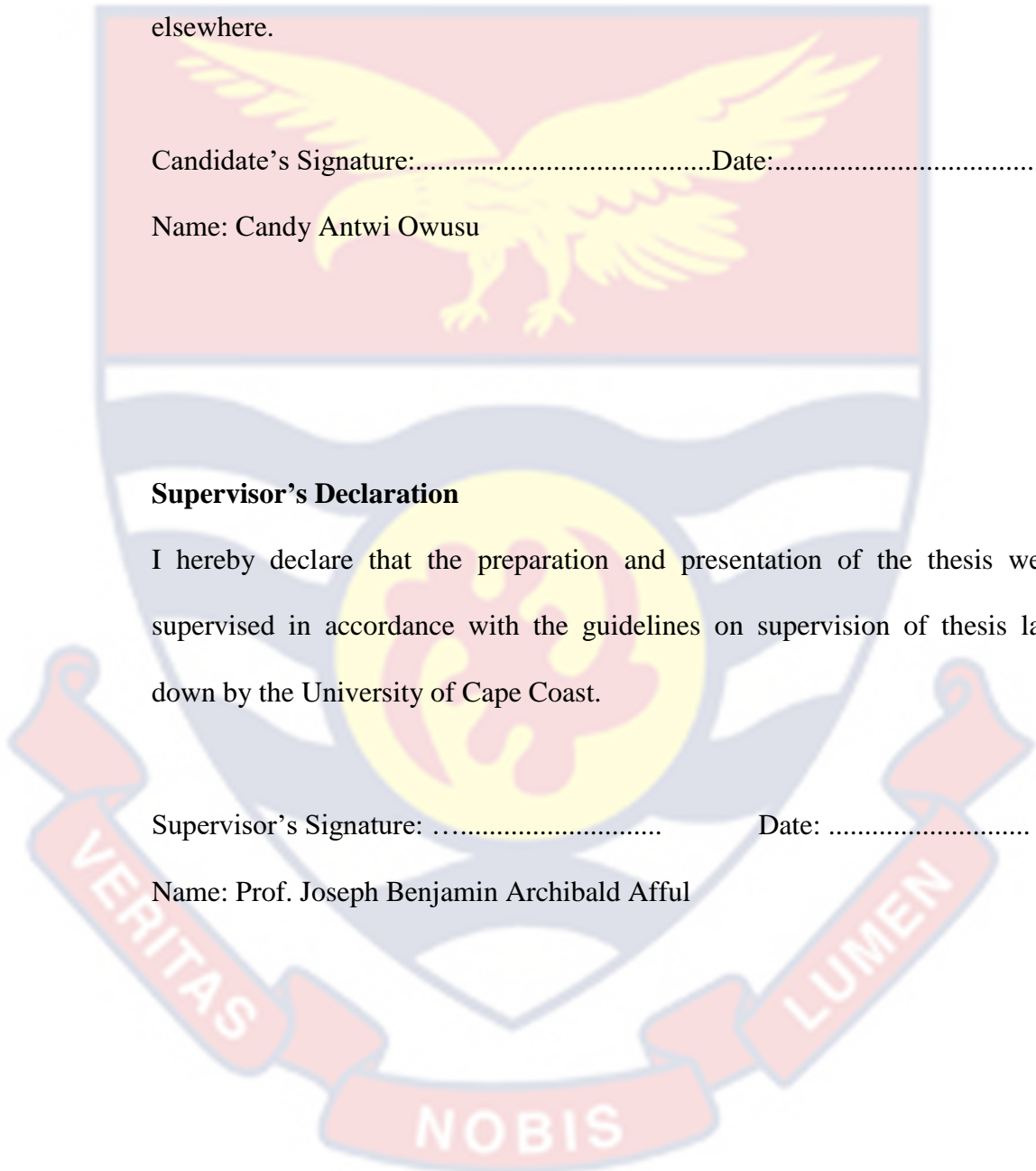
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Supervisor's Declaration

I hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of the thesis were supervised in accordance with the guidelines on supervision of thesis laid down by the University of Cape Coast.

Supervisor's Signature: …...........................   Date: ....

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ABSTRACT

One of the unique features associated with Kofi Annan, a global icon, is his language use. By adopting a systemic functional linguistic approach, this study investigated the interpersonal language choices in his diplomatic speeches. The study, specifically investigated mood, modality and polarity, and personal pronouns and vocative address. To accomplish this purpose, the first speech he delivered when he was elected into office as the Secretary-General (SG) and his final speech he delivered to end his tenure in office as SG were selected from the reliable website of the United Nations. Employing qualitative document analysis, specifically the directed and summative approaches, the study provided three key findings. The first key finding concerned the dominant use of Declarative Mood choice as a system for information dissemination. The second key finding concerned the use of modal verbs and negative polar markers to mainly indicate the speaker's commitment to the truth value of propositions. The third key finding concerned the use of the first and second person personal pronouns (in both the singular and plural forms) to indicate the speaker/addressee roles in the speech situations; and vocative addresses expressed observation of diplomatic protocols as well. The study provides empirical support for SFL theory and equally has implications for the scholarship on interpersonality and diplomatic practice.

KEY WORDS

Interpersonal Metafunction

Kofi Annan

Language of Diplomacy

Public Speaking

Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL)

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DEDICATION

To the prestigious memory of the world's greatest icon, the Late Busumuru
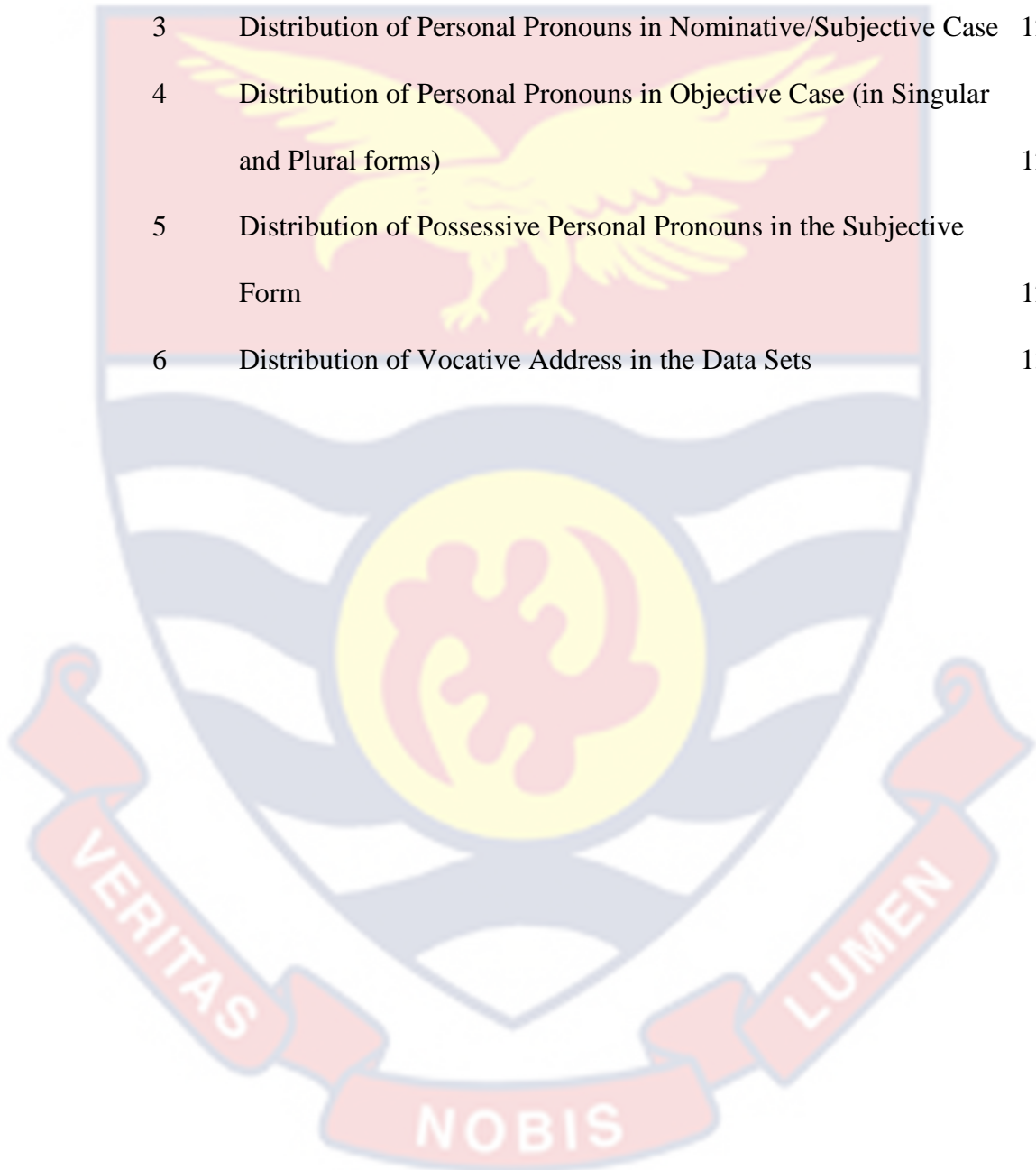
Kofi Annan.

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LIST OF ACRONYMS

AIDS	Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
AU	African Union
CDA	Critical Discourse Analysis
DD	Diplomatic Discourse
EnS	Entry Speech
ESP	English for Specific Purposes
ExS	Exit Speech
IR	International Relations
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
PD	Political Discourse
PD	Public Diplomacy
SFL	Systemic Functional Linguistics
SG	Secretary-General
UN	United Nations
UNEF	United Nations Emergency Force
UNHCR	United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
UNO	United Nations Organisation
WHO	World Health Organisation

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Introduction

The connection between language and diplomacy is a close one, and without language there is no diplomacy and with careless language, diplomacy is not achieved. The present study is a linguistic investigation into diplomacy and interpersonality, focusing on a career diplomat of all times—Kofi Atta Annan, (henceforth, simply referred to as Kofi Annan). In this introductory chapter, I provide the background to the study, the research questions guiding the study, and the significance of this study. Further, this chapter provides the delimitations of the study, the organisation of the study, and chapter summary.

Background to the Study

Language is one of the powerful tools in understanding human and how institutions and organisations work. Over the years, institutions (and how they work) have become the object of investigation in the Media, Cultural and Organisational Studies. The investigation of institutions has taken a 'linguistic turn', with many language-focused explorations of how power and discourse function in specific institutional and organisational settings, such as schools, courtrooms, corporations, clinics, hospitals, churches, and prisons. Such studies have been concerned with the ways in which language is used to create and shape institutions and how institutions in turn, create, shape, and impose discourse on people (Mayr, 2008). Institutions, thus, have considerable control over the organisation of human routine experiences of the world and better influence the classification of realities in the world.

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As a matter of fact, institutions are created and shaped by the kind of language or discourses they produce. Language is, therefore, fundamental to institutionalisation: institutionalisation occurs as actors interact and accept shared definitions of reality, and it is through this that linguistic definitions of reality are constituted (Berger & Luckman, 1966 as cited in Philips, Lawrence & Hardy, 2004). Institutions or organisations create voices in their attempt to produce and disseminate discourses with the values, core tenets of such institutions or organisations as guiding principles. Over the years, (applied) linguists and discourse analysts (for example, Foucault, 1971; Mayr, 2008), in their attempt to understand how language works, have interrogated and investigated the nature of discourses produced from institutions or organisations.

One such expression of human's reality is politicking with language. Apparently, politics is one key reality of human experience in the world and scholars have sought to investigate this reality in diverse ways—sociologically and linguistically. The discourse of politics, also known as 'political discourse' (Chilton, 2004; Wilson, 2015), has received maximum attention in different ways. Relating politics and language, political discourse produced is viewed at both the 'micro' and 'macro' levels. At the micro level, politics and language play out where there are conflicts of interest, struggles for dominance and efforts at co-operation between individuals, between genders and between social groups of various kinds. At the macro level, political institutions of the state serve to resolve conflicts of interest, and in the other view, serve to assert power of a dominant individual or group (Chilton, 2004). Linguistic action— discourse— is at the centre of both the micro and

macro levels, which is strikingly absent from conventional studies of politics. At the macro level institutions are types of discourse with specific characteristics— for example, parliamentary debates and broadcast interviews. For Foucault, 'the discipline is a principle of control over the production of discourse. The discipline fixes limits for discourse by the action of the identity which takes the form of a permanent re-actuation of the rules' (Foucault, 1971, p.61).

Out of these politickings with language and human reality, other discourses have emerged. The discipline termed 'professional discourse' has, therefore, been assigned and developed side by side with the related fields of organisational discourse, workplace discourse, institutional discourse and, more recently, corporate discourse, —all related to rather subservient specific forms of communication (Irimiea, 2017). In other words, professional discourse(s) refer to the discourse types associated and identified within professional— organisation, institution, workplace—contexts. In order to understand a particular text (spoken, written, or multimodal) produced by such institutions or organisations (professional context), there is the need to identify with those texts as a result of the institutional processes and values. For example, presidential inaugural speeches, interviews, parliamentary debates, and political party manifestoes, emerge from the political setting. These genres demonstrate and provide traits peculiar to one another within the political arena.

The genres produced in the political setting (institution, workplace) — from political manifestoes, interviews, through to speeches (inaugural) — have received the attention of scholars from different research perspectives

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(for example, genre studies and discourse analytical perspectives) in both the native and non-native contexts. However, prominent in the literature are the studies that are related to political speeches. A political speech is the kind of public speech given by authorities with political purposes that attempt to influence a group of people. The art of persuasion, negotiation, and representation is at the heart of political speeches. Intrinsically, the art of being 'diplomatic' is deeply rooted in political discourses and public speeches. Actors of politics are, as a matter of fact, very conscious of the effects and impacts their messages (speeches) have on their target audience; hence, these political actors are usually diplomatic in order to have their message across.

The human factor in politicking and being diplomatic about issues is vital, regardless of the mode and location in which they occur. It is the human agents that carry out the communication tasks, after all. Within the structures in the United Nations Organisation (UNO), the Secretary-General (SG) plays a key role in the enactment of communication tasks— driven toward a diplomatic course. The role of the SG goes beyond delivering speeches of different kinds and orientations to the world. In this case, the SG as the UNO's spokesperson is a reflective character who does the biding of the Organisation— negotiating, mediating, resolving, and making sure the aim of the Organisation is achieved. The UN has produced several SGs, with each one playing his/her roles uniquely. However, His Excellency Kofi Atta Annan was uniquely exceptional; this study is built around him.

Motivation for the Study

The motivation for this study stemmed from two factors— comments and tributes to the memory of the late Kofi Annan. After his demise, many

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comments and accolades were issued from family, friends, and diplomats the world over. These comments and tributes extolled his humanitarian, intellectual, and linguistic prowess, as compiled by Green (2018). The following are few of those comments and tributes:

> "In many ways, Kofi Annan was the United Nations. He rose through the ranks to lead the organization into the new millennium with matchless dignity and determination. In these turbulent and trying times, he never stopped working to give life to the values of the United Nations Charter. His legacy will remain a true inspiration for all of us."— Antonio Guterres, UN Secretary General

> "Kofi Annan, our African and global icon who lived a life deeply committed to serving humanity. He did it with dignity and gave hope to the voiceless. My friend, My Hero, My Inspiration."—Amina J. Mohammed, UN Deputy Secretary General

> "He brought considerable renown to our country by this position and through his conduct and comportment in the global arena."— Nana Akufo-Addo, President of Ghana

> "His integrity, persistence, optimism and sense of common interest for humanity informed his outreach to the community of nations. Long after he had broken barriers, Kofi never stopped his pursuit to a better world, and made time to motivate and inspire the next generation of leaders."—Barack Obama, Former U.S. President

> "Kofi was humanity's best example, the epitome of human decency and grace. In a world now filled with leaders who are anything but that, our loss, the world's loss becomes even more painful."—Zeid Ra'ad al-Hussein former UN Human Rights Chief. [(Global Leader Tributes Highlight Kofi Annan's Legacy, compiled by Chandler Green, on August 22, 2018), unfoundation.org]

These and many other tributes urged me to investigate more about him, especially, his linguistic prowess.

Profile of Kofi Annan

Kofi Annan was a Ghanaian diplomat who served as the seventh Secretary-General of the United Nations (UN) from 1997 to December, 2006. He was born on April 8, 1938, in Kumasi, Ghana (Africa), into an aristocratic family. He attended a number of schools and colleges in his home country and

abroad (the United States and Switzerland). He had his secondary education at Mfantsipim School in Ghana, from where he went on to pursue higher education, attending four different colleges: Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology (then, Kumasi College of Science and Technology); Macalester College in St. Paul, Minnesota; Graduate Institute of International Studies in Geneva, Switzerland; and the MIT Sloan School of Management in Cambridge, Massachusetts. He earned a number of degrees, including a Master of Science, and studied International Relations as well. His multilingual competence cannot be overlooked. Mr. Annan, whose native language is Akan, also became fluent in English, French, and other African languages (for example, Kru languages) [http://biography.com/political-figure/kofi-annan].

In 1965, Kofi Annan married Titi Alakija, a Nigerian, with whom he had a daughter, Ama and later a son, Kojo. The couple got separated and divorced in the late 1970s and 1983 respectively. Mr. Annan married Nane Maria Annan, a Swedish lawyer at the UN, in 1984. He began his career with the UN as a Budget Officer for the World Health Organisation (WHO) in Geneva in 1962, and spent his entire career with the UN, with the exception of a brief stint as the Director of Tourism in Ghana (1974 -1976). He later served with the Economic Commission for Africa in Addis Ababa, the UN Emergency Force (UNEF II) in Ismailia, the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) in Geneva, and in various senior posts in New York, dealing with human resources, budget, finance, and staff security. Later, he became an international civil servant working for the UN in 1992 and eventually became the UN Secretary-General and later, an envoy to

Syria. On March 1, 1993, he was elevated to Under Secretary-General for Peacekeeping Operations. In that position, he distinguished himself, particularly in his skilful handling of the transition of peacekeeping operations from UN forces to NATO forces, during the war in Bosnia and Herzegovina.

Diplomatically as the UN's Secretary-General, Kofi Annan garnered for himself a number of achievements as well as challenges. One of his main priorities was to develop a comprehensive programme of reforms that would revitalise the United Nations, making the international system more effective. He was an advocate for human rights, the rule of law, the Millennium Development Goals in Africa, and he brought the Organisation closer to the global public by forging ties with civil society, the private sector and other partners. Also, Kofi Annan expedited the repatriation from Iraq of more than 900 international staff and other non-Iraqi nationals (1990) and served as Special Representative of the SG to the former Yugoslavia and Special Envoy to NATO (1995-1996) [Kofi Annan Foundation, August, 2018]. Because Boutros Boutros-Ghali, his predecessor, alienated some member nations—most notably the United States (US) — with his independent and aloof style, Annan took it upon himself to repair the broken relations with the US and reformed the UN bureaucracy, when he entered office in 1997. He introduced a reform plan to reduce and streamline the budget and operations of the Organisation, moves that were welcomed by the US. His other priorities included restoring public confidence in the UN, combating the AIDS virus, especially in Africa and ending human rights abuses. [https:// www.britannica. com/biography /Kofi-Annan].

However, he faced two key challenges in the UN. According to Bradlow (2018), it was under Mr. Annan's watch that two of the biggest failures in the UN history happened. Both the Rwandan genocide and the massacres in Srebrenica took place at the time when he was the head of Peacekeeping Operations. However, through his initiative, UN Peacekeeping was strengthened to enable the UN control the rapid rise in the number of operations and personnel. In 2005, Member States established two new intergovernmental bodies: the Peacebuilding Commission and the Human Rights Council, through Mr. Annan's efforts.

After serving as the 7th SG of the United Nations, the Kofi Annan Foundation was founded and chaired by him, as an impetus for lasting peace and inclusive governance to prevent threats on security, development and human rights. He died at the age of 80 on August, 18, 2018 in Bern, Switzerland. Several tributes came from all angles for the late H.E Kofi Annan, from family, friends (individuals), and representatives of organisations (home and abroad). Those tributes sought to dignify the role played by Kofi Annan as a family man and an international (global) diplomat. Prominent to these comments and tributes is his language, which is the drive of this study to purposefully ascertain his diplomatic role through his language choice(s).

Statement of the Problem

Investigations into institutions have taken a linguistic turn with many language-focused explorations. Such studies have been concerned with the ways in which language is used to create and shape institutions and how institutions in turn have the capacity to create, shape, and impose discourse on people (Mayr, 2008). Over the last four decades, many studies have been

conducted within the domain of politics. Most of these studies paid attention to political discourses of different sorts such as political speeches (Farhat, 2016; Wang, 2010; Zeng & Wang, 2019); parliamentary debates (Ilie, 2009; Sarfo, 2016); presidential inaugurals (Koussouhon & Dossoumou, 2015), among others, in both native and non-native contexts. Other institutions like the judiciary as in courtroom discourses such as cross-examinations (Ahialey, 2011), judgements (Dariusz Kozbial, 2020), and courtroom hearings (Hlioui, 2020); religion as in sermonic discourse (Obeng-Appiah, 2015; Taiwo, 2005); and academic as in lectures and academic writing (Afful, 2006; Afful, 2007; Akoto & Afful, 2022) have also explored aspects of interpersonality from different theoretical approaches.

However, not so much can be said regarding the discourse of diplomacy. Few of the studies that have been conducted in non-traditional partisan politics (apolitical) are those that were delivered on the UN's platform (General Assembly). These studies used different theoretical approaches like Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) (Green, 2007); discourse historical approach (Alemi, Tajeddin & Kondlaji, 2017), and the few others which adopted the SFL theory paid attention to aspects such as transitivity and modality (Sharififar & Rahimi, 2015; Gamage & Makangila, 2019). Guo and Rahman Hadi (2020) focused on interpersonality, similar to the current study. The current study takes a different tangent—which is linguistic in nature and uses a different discourse domain (diplomatic) and a different case study. This is considered as a gap in the literature. Hence, my interest in filling this niche. It is, therefore, the aim of the present study to investigate the interpersonal language choices— mood, modality and polarity, pronominals and

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vocatives— of the 7th SG of the UN, His Excellency Kofi Atta Annan, in his entry and exit speeches.

Research Questions

This research was guided by the following research questions:

(a) What mood choices characterise Kofi Annan's entry and exit speeches to the United Nations?

(b) How are modality and polarity systems explored in Kofi Annan's entry and exit speeches to the United Nations?

(c) How are pronominal and vocative address systems explored in Kofi Annan's entry and exit speeches to the United Nations?

Delimitations of the Study

In a study of this kind, it is important to set the boundaries in order to ensure manageable scope. I, therefore, present the delimitations in respect of the area of study, the data for the study, and the theoretical backing of the study.

The first delimitation concerns the area of study. My study is limited to the linguistic study of diplomacy. As far as this study is concerned, the lexicogrammatical devices that characterise the selected diplomatic speeches by Kofi Annan are, however, limited to the interpersonal meaning (metafunction). This study is limited to interrogating interpersonal metafunction since 'interpersonal meanings are used to establish the speaker's role in the speech situation and relationship with others' (Almurashi, 2016, p.73).

The second delimitation of this study concerns the data used for the analysis and discussion. In this study, I paid attention to only two key selected

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scripted speeches delivered by Kofi Annan during his assumption into office and end of his tenure in office as Secretary-General. Though written-to-be-spoken discourse data, my study is only limited to the written aspect of the texts since I focused on the linguistic aspect, rather than phonetics or any other language feature. This limitation to the study is directed toward the manageability of the scope and because of time constraint in carrying out the research.

Finally, this study is delimited with regard to the theory supporting and guiding it. Though deeply rooted in Halliday's Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) approach to language study, my study focused on an aspect of functionality of language —interpersonal metafunction. Rather than the other two acknowledged metafunctions, interpersonal meaning is relevant to understanding the speaker and addressee's relationship in social events, especially in the context (that is, diplomacy). Hence, my interest in this study is the interpersonal meanings construed in the diplomatic discourse of Kofi Annan.

Significance of the Study

First, my study may serve as a pioneering work on a career diplomat, Kofi Annan, and his diplomatic role with regard to diplomatic communication in the global context. Hence, the study paves way for a broader understanding of diplomatic communication and provides room for diplomats to understand their language choices as a matter of urgency.

Secondly, my study makes a significant contribution to the literature on both SFL language theory and diplomacy, specifically, diplomatic discourse. In view of this, my study specifically contributes to existing scholarly works on interpersonal metafunction theory, which makes it possible

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to practicalise language choices and social relationships. Significant is the interpersonal relationship that exists between speakers and listeners in language situations. The potency of the theory contributes to unearthing human reality in language situations.

Professionally, this study is beneficial to the practices of Diplomacy and International Relations (IRs). The current study has an influence on English for Specific Purposes (ESP). ESP focuses on language in a real professional context and it assumes that language teaching is adjusted to specific linguistic and communicative needs of the learner; for effective communication in situations which occur, or will occur, in their professional work (Donesch-Jezo, 2012). In the pursuit of the study, I aim specifically at revealing the practice of professional diplomatic communication. Again, the present research would pave way for language developers to design models for the teaching and practice of diplomacy in both native and non- native contexts (intra-national and inter-national).

Further, this study has practical importance for diplomacy. In this study, the interpersonal metafunction and lexicogrammatical choices were investigated in diplomatic discourse. As one of the pioneering works in diplomacy in the Ghanaian context, as far as I am concerned, my study has value for the diplomatic practice. The study, therefore, provides the practical platform for both diplomats and non-diplomats the opportunity to learn and practise the use of the language of diplomacy and diplomatic communication.

Last but not least, this work has significance for researchers who are interested in investigating diplomatic language. The study serves as a source of reference for other studies to be conducted in the area of study. As a result,

it contributes to the knowledge and research base for diplomacy and interpersonality in communication situations.

Organisation of the Study

This study is organised in five chapters. The first chapter is the introductory chapter to the study which provides a background to the entire study. In that regard, the chapter gives a background to the study, and provides the statement of the problem, research questions, significance of the study, delimitations of the study, and organisation of the study. Chapter Two is the Literature Review. This chapter presents the theory which supports the present study and it reviews previous studies related to the current study. The third chapter, on the other hand, presents the methodological procedures I followed in conducting this study. In this chapter, therefore, I consider the description of the research design, sampling procedure, data description, and analytical framework. The fourth chapter presents the analysis and discussions of the data, done in relation to the research questions. Chapter Five provides a summary of the entire study, the key findings of the study, implications of the study, and recommendations for further study.

Chapter Summary

This chapter has provided a background to the study. First, the background navigated the area of study by looking at institutional (professional) discourse like political discourse, and diplomatic discourse; it also looked at a brief biography of Kofi Annan, and considered the need for investigating the language of diplomacy. The problem of the study, followed by the research questions propelling the study, were provided. Also, in this chapter, the significance of the study was highlighted.

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CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

In the first chapter, I presented the background to the study, the problem statement, and research questions. The significance of the study and delimitations of the study, with the organisation of the study, and chapter summary ending the chapter, were also provided. This chapter focuses on the review of related literature. In this chapter, I discuss the concepts and theory that underpin the study, followed by the review of studies relevant to my research. I conclude the chapter with a summary.

Conceptual Review

In this section, I espouse words and concepts such as diplomacy and language of diplomacy as against political language (discourse). The conceptual review is very important as it provides a context for this study.

Diplomacy

'Diplomacy', as a term, has been taken through different kinds of tests by various scholars in order to bring to bear the different senses of the word. The word has been taken through various forms of scrutiny: from historical perspectives—the origin of the term is highlighted (for example, Berridge & James, 2003; Freeman & Marks, 2019); to concepts and theories— notions and ideas that relate to the word, 'diplomacy' are made known (for example, Constantinou & Sharp, 2016); and through to types— projecting the various kinds or senses of the term with regard to contexts and for the purposes the term tends to serve (for example, Amstrong, 2016; Avenell & Dunn, 2016; Huijgh, 2016; Maley, 2016). The various perspectives concerning the concept

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reveal the *senses/meanings* inherent in it— from historical, etymological, and conceptual, among others— to the types and purposes to which the term, *diplomacy* serves, have been explored.

Freeman and Marks (2019), for instance, refer to modern diplomatic practices as a product of post-Renaissance European state system, which is traced back to Europe and got transported to the rest of the world. For them, by the 20th century, the diplomatic practices pioneered in Europe had been adopted throughout the world, and diplomacy had since been expanded to cover summit meetings and other international conferences, parliamentary diplomacy, the international activities of supranational and subnational entities, unofficial diplomacy by non-governmental elements, and the work of international civil servants.

Accordingly, the term *diplomacy* is known to have been derived via French from the ancient Greek *diploma*, composed of *diplo*, meaning "folded in two", and the suffix *–ma*, meaning "an object". The folded document conferred a privilege— often a permit to travel— on the bearer, and the term came to denote documents through which princes granted such favours (permit to travel). Later, it applied to all solemn documents issued by chancelleries, especially those containing agreements between sovereigns. Subsequently, the term became identified with international relations, and the direct tie to documents lapsed (except in diplomatics, which is the science of authentication of old official documents).

In the 18th century, the term 'diplomate' ("diplomat" or "diplomatist") came to refer to a person authorised to negotiate on behalf of a state. Freeman and Marks, therefore, established the term, *diplomacy*, as a method of

influencing the decisions and behaviour of foreign governments and people through dialogue, negotiation, and other measures short of war or violence.

Also, Berridge and James (2003) consider diplomacy in four ways: (a) as a conduct of relations between sovereign states through the medium of officials based at home or abroad, the latter being either members of their states diplomatic services or temporary diplomats; (b) as the use of tact in dealing with people— in this sense, diplomacy is a skill which is very important in the conduct of diplomacy; (c) as any attempt to promote international negotiations (particularly in circumstances of acute crisis), whether concerning inter or intra-state conflicts; and (d) as foreign policy— here diplomacy is synonymous with foreign policy.

Diplomacy, as an art of discourse politics, is concerned with using tactful language which could be persuasive, negotiative, and resolutory in crucial circumstances (conflict situations and policy-making) at both international and intra-national levels of politics. It is important, therefore, to take into account the institution one stands for and the cause of that institution so as to act accordingly towards the achievement of the goal of the institution. According to Berridge and James (2003), the backbone of diplomacy has over centuries been the dispatch of diplomatic missions to foreign states and it has since been the norm. States are considered as notional persons; they can only communicate through representative human persons. This can be done in principle by such representatives speaking to one another at a distance, to ensure interstate communication. The kind of language use directed towards achieving a peaceful coexistence of humanity is diplomatic in nature.

Theorising diplomacy has never been explicit, and Constantinou and Sharp (2016) suggest that though there have been several works on diplomatic theory around, writers do not name what they do as 'diplomatic theory'. Hence, the theoretical perspectives in diplomacy have been grounded in key conceptual exploration, epistemological exchanges, normative and critical propositions concerning different aspects of diplomatic practices. Notably, early diplomatic encounters combined advocacy, negotiations, and problem-solving with missions of reflection and problematisation. In view of this outcome, the evolution of diplomatic theory is mapped unto the discipline of International Relations (IRs). This mapping is done as a suggestion of a complex entanglement between the early theorising and diplomatising, by linking the incompleteness of human knowledge with the ceaseless search and negotiation of foreign, unknown and the unexplained relations internationally. The diverse means and ends of diplomacy have been historically debated with regard to the normative aspirations of a diplomatic actor. However, in the modern era, *raison d'état* has predominantly linked 'diplomacy' to 'statecraft', side-lining its humanist legacy and promise.

In other spheres, some scholars (Amstrong, 2016; Avenell & Dunn, 2016; Huijgh, 2016; Maley, 2016) sought to classify diplomacy, based on either the field or institution, and the purpose which the term serves and how those institutions observed or practised their diplomatic protocols. Huijgh (2016), for instance, looks at 'Public diplomacy (PD)' as a term, concept, practice and multidisciplinary field of study. As a diplomatic practice, PD is considered to have preceded its conceptual and scholarly foundations. It centred on diplomatic communication between political entities (kings in

ancient times and nation-states today) and people (that is, publics), usually in foreign countries, but according to some accounts, also domestic publics. Like many other tools of diplomacy, public diplomacy continues to evolve in response to societal changes such as democratisation, globalisation, and the communication revolution. As a multidisciplinary field of study that inspires multiple definitions and practices that often go beyond those associated with diplomacy, it is further established that the evolution of public diplomacy can conceptually be understood to comprise related stages: traditional, new diplomacy, and a more integrative approach.

Maley (2016) continues that some diplomatic activities are carried out on the quiet and behind the veil of secrecy for which the results go unpublished and largely unnoticed; hence, 'Quiet Diplomacy and Secret Diplomacy'. Quiet diplomacy is seen as diplomacy that is not advertised by the participants; the idea is that the participants are unwilling to make the content or substance discussed public due to its 'arcane or technical' nature and the content might be of little interest to the wider public. Secret diplomacy arises when *the very fact of a diplomatic engagement's taking place is itself* concealed, that which is different from confidentiality. Secrecy in diplomatic engagement is important for a number of reasons: "First, secret diplomacy militates against comprehensive analysis, since key cases (or data points) are likely to be missing. Second, secrecy may serve to protect sensitive negotiations from attack by 'spoilers' who want to see diplomacy fail. Third, secrecy may be important in facilitating engagement with groups with whom state actors do not want to appear to be engaging, such as terrorists or hostage-takers" (Maley, 2016, p. 456).

Depending on a particular circumstance or situation, diplomatic engagement can be seen as 'Crisis diplomacy' (Avenell & Dunn, 2016) or 'Coercive diplomacy' (Berridge & James, 2003; Jakobsen, 2016). In International Relations (IRs), a crisis situation and its management play an integral role; hence, the need for diplomacy. It is acknowledged that the concept, 'Crisis diplomacy' was coined from Robert McNamara's comment (Williams (1983) as cited in Avenell & Dunn, 2016), during the Cuban Missile Crisis: "there is no longer any such thing as strategy, only crisis management'; he uses "strategy" as a synonym for 'diplomacy', and implicit in this definition of diplomacy, given the context, was that crises themselves were the common enemy and it was central to the role of diplomacy to resolve the crisis and avert catastrophe". According to Avenell and Dunn, this guise began with Phil Williams' attempt in defining crisis in his book, *Crisis Management.* After several failed attempts to have an agreed definition for the widely used term 'international crises', Williams suggested two schools of thought in the extrapolation of crisis diplomacy. The first school of thought has peaceful resolution of confrontation and avoidance of conflict or war at all cost as its sole aim whereas the second sees crisis diplomacy as 'an exercise in winning, with the main objective being to make the enemy capitulate and back down, therefore furthering one's own ambitions' (Williams (1976) as cited in Avenell & Dunn, 2016, p. 464). However, Avenell and Dunn are of the view that the definition of crisis diplomacy, as postulated by Williams' two schools of thought, should sit somewhere in the middle— winning and furthering one's own ambitions versus ensuring peace by avoiding war at all cost.

From their medial position on the two schools of thought, they propose three ideal tools for crisis diplomacy—negotiation, mediation, and the use of force. Mediation and negotiation are seen as the ideal way for crisis diplomacy. Mediation, as a process, is used by disputants to resolve their differences with the help of an outside party, while negotiation is applied when compromises are made under conflicting positions. The third option— the use of force— is used when the first two alternatives fail to work to perfection. This is what Jakobsen referred to as "*coercive diplomacy*— a diplomatic strategy whereby military threats and symbolic use of force are combined in order to resolve "war-threatening" crises and "armed conflicts" short of full-scale war" (Jakobsen, 2016, p. 476). The concept is considered as oxymoronic because military coercion and diplomacy are seen as mutually exclusive alternatives employing different instruments and serving different ends.

Using the sticks and carrots symbolic analogy, Jakobsen elaborates on the fact that military coercion relies more on threats and limited force (sticks) to coerce adversaries to do something against their will, which is against the principle of diplomacy, which leans towards negotiation, positive inducement (carrots) and assurances to solve conflicts peacefully and to develop "friendly relations among nations" (Jakobsen, 2016, p. 477). In other words, military coercion and limited force could be employed minimally with positive diplomatic negotiations towards the achievement of peace without sparking conflict or war. Similarly, Berridge and James (2003) explain coercive diplomacy as a euphemism for the threat or use of force against an opponent to foster a more cooperative cast of mind. The NATO against the Federal

Republic of Yugoslavia during the Kosovo crisis in 1999 is cited as a "bomber" diplomatic tactic. To them, the use of force in most international relationships could be spoken or unspoken with diplomacy in accompaniment. Equivalent to coercive diplomacy is the 'gunboat' diplomacy (a term of the 19th century) or 'bomber' diplomacy.

Language of/in Diplomacy Versus Diplomatic Discourse

Delving into the exploration of diplomacy further, some scholars like Nick (2001) and Kamel (2001) interrogate the language of diplomacy from its nature or characteristic view point and determinant of language specifics.

Nick (2001) posits the concept, 'language in diplomacy' and interprets it in a number of ways: (a) as tongue ("mother" tongue or an acquired one) — the speech used by a tribe or a similar large group of people; (b) as a special way of expressing the subtle needs of the diplomatic profession; (c) as a particular form, style, manner, or tone of expression. It may as well mean the verbal or non-verbal expression of thoughts or feelings. Unlike Nick (2001), Kamel (2001) prefers to use the concept, 'language of diplomacy', to mean the refinement of language as a medium of communication; diplomatic language, thus, is seen as the child of the language of communication. For him, the formation of diplomatic language should be in special patterns, with a chosen cadence and sometimes its repetitive pattern is designed to 'oil the joints' of relationships between people and nations; a similar view is shared by Nick and others (Berridge & James, 2003; Freeman & Marks, 2019).

Typical of 'language of diplomacy' is couching a formalised pattern in that it is able to convey several messages at once. The messages conveyed should have the power to soften their negative impact when such is intended;

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it should be a face-saving room for the opposing party to respond in kind, while protecting the deliverer, the messenger, and the ambassador from the responsibility of their impact. Ideally, the intention of diplomatic language is to 'protect the messenger from being killed', especially in the highest level of crisis situation. Also, the idea of 'language of diplomacy' characteristically is not supposed to be culturally-bound but it attempts at transcending such boundaries to create a quasi-neutral vehicle of exchange that conveys the message while appearing least ego damaging. Diplomatic language has to be diplomatically 'correct' and more acceptable. Again, the 'language of diplomacy', as "one form of what Arabs call *adab alhiwar*, the proper etiquette of dialogue, has neither been successful in resolving problems nor indeed in oiling the joint of human intercourse" (Kamel, 2001, p. 23). This suggests that, though diplomatic language seeks to resolve problems and ensure peaceful co-existence among nations, it has not been entirely so. Violence and war are forces beyond the control of humanity. However, through effective dialogic communication, the canker (violence and war) could be controlled, if not eradicated entirely.

Kamel's (2001) 'language of diplomacy' focuses on the characteristics or makeup of a diplomatic language— what makes a language 'diplomatic' is in the form, content, and intended goal or purpose. On the other hand, Nick's (2001) concept, 'language in diplomacy', digs deep into the kind of language a diplomat should use or learn. With regard to language in diplomacy as a tongue, a diplomat must be able to communicate in one language, common to all participants. The issue of commonality in language is quite problematic. However, Nick proposes four ways to overcome this problem— first, one of

the interlocutors must speak the language of the other, if possible; second, both participants (interlocutors) may use a third 'neutral' language; third, there should be the use of interpreters; finally, there should be the use of international synthetic, artificial language.

Focusing on a more substantial aspect of language and diplomacy, Nick (2001) paid attention to the aspect of the message itself— the message contained in diplomatic communication (oral or written). For him, oral communication, in which there is the quintessence of personal contact, remains the very substance, the *raison détre* of diplomatic communication. Such verbal discourse must be a simple chat, conversational and exchange of views. However, for formal diplomatic *demarche*, official negotiation or any other form, which is basically a dialogue, consists of speaking and listening to the other person. He concludes that speaking is the use of words linking them into sentences and arranging the sentences in a logical order; in addition, it includes the accentuation of words or emphasis of particular parts of a sentence. In effect, oral communication also includes a number of 'side effects', such as tone of voice (friendly, solemn, confidential, menacing, nonchalant, et cetera), pauses between words or sentences, the order in which different parts of the message presents gesticulation, face mimic, and smiling .

Further, characteristically, the choice of the right words is extremely important in diplomacy. Throughout the centuries, a very carefully balanced, restrained, moderate vocabulary has been developed, ensuring a particular way of refined control over nuances in the meaning of words— both when agreeing with one's interlocutor (but taking care not to give the impression of undue enthusiasm) as well as in rejecting his views (again with fitting concern to

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avoid undesired offence). One of the typical characteristics of "diplomatic" language is a certain subdued tone, some kind of understatement. It is correct to say that the real weight of words and terms in diplomatic professional jargon is much stronger than those same words in "normal" everyday speech (Nick, 2001, p. 20). Diplomatic language is a special kind of language employed with an effort to minimise provocation likely to be caused, be it the delivery of sharp or unavoidably threatening message. It is often a crafty language filled with words and phrases directed towards the agenda of diplomatic systems. For example, in the Ancient Near East, this was Akkadian; in the European system, it was first Latin and then French; and, in today's world system, it is English (Berridge & James, 2003).

With a brief review on the language of diplomacy or diplomatic language, it is appropriate to look at the 'discourse of diplomacy' or 'diplomatic discourse', which seems to be narrow; making room for diplomatic language to be understood fully.

'Diplomatic discourse' (DD) is a type of discourse which can be understood through the analysis of the components of its name: *diplomatic* and *discourse*. The concept, "diplomatic", stems from the concept, 'diplomacy'; which has been defined by scholars from various perspectives (Berridge & James, 2003; Freeman & Marks, 2019). As such, any act in diplomacy is *diplomatic* in nature. On the other hand, the discourse analyst, Gee (2011), has defined the term 'discourse' in two ways— using the small letter 'd' and the capital letter, 'D' to differentiate between the two. The first, small *d* discourse, is seen as language in its context of use and above the sentence level. This conceptualisation of discourse is attributed to Flowerdew (2013).

Broadly, discourse is defined as language in its context of use. With regard to language in its context of use, the concern is also with language above the level of the sentence. The emphasis on contexts of use and the suprasentential level is important because, for much of the history of modern linguistics, under the influence of the generative linguist, Chomsky, language has been analysed as separate from context, as decontextualised sentences (Flowerdew, 2013). Apparently, the rationale for a contextualised and suprasentential consideration of language is based upon the belief that knowing a language is concerned with more than just grammar and vocabulary: it also includes how to participate in a conversation or how to structure a written text. To be able to do this, it is necessary to take into account the context, or situation, in which a particular use of language occurs and how the units of language combine together and structure the overall discourse.

Second, the big *D* discourse (Gee, 2011) refers to ways of combining and integrating language, actions, interactions, ways of thinking, believing, valuing, and using various symbols and objects to enact a particular sort of socially recognisable identity. In a more restrictive sense, the term 'discourse' can be used to refer to a particular set of ideas and how they are articulated such as the discourse of environmentalism, the discourse of neoliberalism or the discourse of feminism. In this case, the term refers to a specialised knowledge and language used by a particular social group. This meaning is associated with French post-structuralist thinkers such as Michel Foucault (Flowerdew, 2013), and Gee (2011) confirms that this notion of discourse has been referred to differently by different scholars such as: "discourses (Foucault); communities of practice (Lave & Wenger, 1991); cultural

communities (Clark, 1996), among others". Discourse with big *D*, he argues, involves: " (a) situated identities; (b) ways of performing and recognising characteristic identities and activities; (c) ways of coordinating and getting coordinated by other people, things, tools, technologies, symbols, systems, places, and times; (d) characteristic ways of acting-interacting-feeling-emoting-valuing-gesturing-posturing-dressing-thinking-believing-knowing-speaking-listening (and, in some Discourses, reading-and-writing, as well)" (Gee, 2011, p. 40).

In effect, with 'diplomatic language' seen as language of negotiation, persuasion, peace or foreign policy, and discourse as language use in context, beyond the sentence level; and the use of language to articulate ideologies and principles, 'diplomatic discourse' could be equated to language use above the sentence level which reflects ideologies and principles of diplomacy. According to Zhang (2015), diplomatic discourse (DD) is 'language unit above the sentence in communicative use with representatives from a foreign nation or political entity to achieve pacific settlement of disputes, and above all, to serve the interest of one's country' (Zhang, 2015, p. 8). Further, he stipulates that DD is aimed at: (a) the use of tact in dealing with people; (b) any attempt to promote negotiations (particularly in circumstance of acute crisis), whether concerning inter-state or intra-state conflicts and embracing a foreign policy. Also, DD is considered a larger language unit that comprises smaller factors and producer intentions necessarily incorporates (functionally) grammatical studies below, at, and beyond the sentence, so that the linguistic components can be accounted for to do justice to the DD analysis.

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Towards a diplomatic agenda, DD is seen as *dialogic*, *interpersonal* kind of discourse which places value on both the communicative actors— the speaker(s) and the audience. Zhang (2015) is of the view that when diplomats evade, both DD production and translation are interpersonally prominent. They are interpersonally prominent because (1) the evasion is usually done through suppressing transaction of ideational information, which may be detrimental to cohesion at the sentence level and coherence at the discursive level; (2) the DD that evades mainly deals with constitution, social, interpersonal, and international interactions. The aims of the interactions, on the part of the speaker or the "honorable liar", are to maintain the honourability of the country the person represents. As a linguistic unit designed for these aims, the formal aspect of the DD in question can be used as evidence to account for the aims pursued. As Halliday (1973) observes, the mood, modality, person and intonational components of syntactic form can indicate its producer's attitudes, evaluations, judgments as well as their relationship with its receivers (as cited in Zhang, 2015).

In sum, the various perspectives projected from the concept— diplomacy— have proven to be an embodiment which seeks to provide peaceful co-existence amongst nations (inter and intra), even in the worst case scenario of crises (political, economic, and social) situation. Associated with the concept are key instruments such as negotiation and mediation, which are paramount to interpersonal form of communication. Though in certain circumstances, force is employed in ensuring peace, modern diplomatic adventure would minimise its use. The present study aligns itself with the

ideal diplomatic choices— negotiation and mediation— which seem to sit well with interpersonal and dialogic communication, the aim of the current study.

The Politics of Human Communication and Language of Politics

Human beings are political and, as matter of fact, the Aristotelian definition considers humans as *creatures whose nature is to live in polis…,* in that humans are political animals (Chilton, 2004, p. 5). Beneath the day-to-day activities such as the provision of goods and services (buying and selling) through to the settling of disputes or conflicts at home or outside (domestically or publically), the concept of politicking comes to play.

Looking at the term 'politics' from both the traditional study of politics and in discourse studies of politics, Chilton (2004) arrives at two definitional strands: politics is viewed as a struggle for power, between those who seek to assert and maintain their power and those who seek to resist it; politics is viewed as cooperation, as the practices and institutions that a society has for resolving clashes of interest over money, influence, liberty and the like. On the other hand, Hague and Harrop (2004), referring to Miller's (1991) definition, arrive at four significant points: "(a) Politics is a collective activity, involving people who accept a common membership or, at least, acknowledge a shared fate…; (b) Politics presumes an initial diversity of views about goals or means or both…; (c) Politics involves reconciling such differences through discussion and persuasion. Communication is, therefore, central to politics; (d) Political decision becomes authoritative policy for a group, binding members to agreements that are implemented by force, if necessary" (Hague & Harrop, 2004, p. 3). Politics scarcely exists if decisions are reached solely by violence; but force or its threats, underpins the executions of policy.

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Traditionally, politics can be seen as an activity, which is practised by individuals with the aim of asserting and wielding power. In another breath, politics is considered as the ability to convincingly use language to one's advantage in any language situation. At the centre of politics is the use of language or communication. What is clear is that political activity does not exist without the use of language. According to Chilton (2004), without a continuous exchange of information, attitudes and values, neither society nor politics will be possible; hence, it is the task of any individual (politician) to communicate effectively to signal their agendas, policies, and strategies. To this effect, political activity is seen as invariably a form of communication and the first task of an analyst is always to interpret ('decode') the message so that its underlying themes ('subtexts') become apparent.

When the broad concepts of 'language' and 'politics' coincide, language is mainly considered power strategy (de Landtsheer, 1998). Language with political undertones has commonly been considered as 'political language' by some scholars. Politics is largely considered to be a matter of words; thus, inherent in politics is language use. Mostly in politics, negotiations are held, speeches are made, debates take place, and bargains are struck. Besides the oral forms, there are written forms of political communication such as laws, proclamations and treaties. To this purpose, this commonly used concept suggests that political language is public communication on the subject of politics. However, political language goes beyond the use of language to achieve political purposes. Instantiations of political language can be seen in the language of newspapers, television, and radio (including parliamentary debates, mass meetings, town hall meetings,

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party meetings), propaganda (including publications for elections and other political pamphlets), and administrative, judicial, and diplomatic language (including law texts, treaties, and international political negotiations).

Some scholars developed even more restricted concepts, as they have equated *political discourse* to "polemic or argumentative language (Klaus, 1971) or to political vocabulary (Prost, 1969), either separately or as levels of analysis within the concept of language used in politics (Dieckmann, 1975). Others refer to semantic criteria (content) or sometimes to pragmatic ones (function and effects) in order to identify political language" (as cited in de Landtsheer, 1998, p. 5). Whether by form or function, the concept may be appropriated as a pattern of speech used by politicians in its strictest sense; in a more scientific sense, the concept may look beyond the political figure and rather focus on the language in its context of use. Obviously, language that deals with political issues cannot be seen in isolation from everyday language and, depending upon its use, all languages can become political language in one way or the other. In one breath, language used in the public sphere may be deemed important to the audience and appeal to them in a political way; in yet another sense, the ability to use language to have one's way can make the language political.

In sync with this study, political language (discourse, to be precise) is assumed as any form of language use within a political setting toward the attainment of 'political' power. According to de Landtsheer (1998), using language in the public sphere as a definition of political language acknowledges current scientific developments in (international) communication theory, focusing on the growing power of the mass media,

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new communication technologies, the trends of globalisation, and commercialisation. This moderate view obviously has been inspired by the critical approach to communication theory, which acknowledges the political function of almost all public utterances.

This appropriation makes language to be looked at in a different lens with regard to its purpose and target audience. Depending on the purpose or target audience, one's language can be considered as diplomatic or political when the focus of language is either to negotiate for peaceful coexistence or for power exertion. According to Arakelyan and Avetyan (2017), diplomatic and political discourses are closely related; and though the two are different in terms of the scope of disciplines, they exist side by side. They are often inseparable and complement each other. Diplomatic and political discourses have their unique features and specific functions. The functions of diplomacy have focused on four areas with the key notions of language: negotiation, the protection of nationals abroad, representation, and reporting. In a similar vein, the main function or purpose of politics is persuasion— "the aim of which is to change attitudes, to change the beliefs and even to influence the audience's choices" (Arakelyan & Avetyan, 2017, p. 4).

Accordingly, both diplomats and politicians can influence their audience's behaviour with the help of persuasion and significantly language is the channel to achieve this purpose [persuasion]. Language use towards the agenda of 'persuading' target audience, as spelt out by Aristotle, includes three notions: "*Pathos*— which appeals to emotions; *Logos*— which appeals to reasoned argument and deals with logical thinking, proper choices of words, use of sound argument; and *Ethos*— which appeals to the good character of

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the speaker: their influence, authority, and exercise" (Arakelyan & Avetyan, 2017, p. 4). However, it must be noted that language can be used either politically or diplomatically for the purpose and agenda best known to the speaker and his/her intended/target audience. According to Zhang (2015), language used in diplomatic communication is already scripted through careful reflection; hence, any off-tracked linguistic representations could be regarded as mistakes or errors. Further, for written discourse concerning diplomacy and politics, mistakes or errors are rare, but if wordings change, it is all about manipulation for certain purpose, which can be interpreted in Speech Act Theory as the producer's illocutionary intentions.

Fixed rules and common practice in the diplomatic community are normative; hence, an actor or representative must stay with the scripted text, as far as practicable, to avoid blunders. This rule, however, cannot be entirely applied so far as politics and political discourse(s) especially are concerned. The politician may infuse his/her wordings in an original scripted text for purpose meant to win the hearts of electorates. Saying anything outside the *supposedly* scripted texts may be pardonable inasmuch as whatever is communicated does not give a political opponent a point. Diplomatic agents as the norm requires should stick to pre-arranged scripts (Zhang, 2015).

In sum, this sub-section of the review has sought to make a distinction between diplomatic and political language (discourse) which may, on face value, serve similar language purposes— negotiating, persuading, and reporting. Political discourse is set to be related to language use within political circles of which the core value is 'power' attainment. Contrarily, diplomatic discourse is language use by representative(s) from (inter or intra)

nations towards peaceful coexistence between or amongst states home and abroad.

Public Speaking

This section considers the art of public speaking and the types of speeches that emerge out of the speech situation, and the purposes or functions they serve. The section is relevant in identifying the type of speech of the present study, and the purpose(s) it serves.

Eke (2021) argues that public speaking is all about sharing information, ideas or opinions on a particular issue of interest and importance to a group of people (audience). He insists that a public speaker's task is to hold the interests and attention of an audience on a given topic for a stipulated period of time. In public speaking or communication, the audience is pivotal. During the preparation and delivery stage, the speaker mostly takes into account the audience and their psychological make-up. For Gareis (2006), whether the goal of the speech is to entertain, to educate, or to persuade, the speech should be audience-tailored. For this purpose, the audience must be engaged in such a way that they interact mentally with the ideas put across. Eke (2021) also proposes that a good public speaker should have a good perception about his/her audience. He suggests that the speaker should bear in mind the needs, attitudes, and background of the audience; the subject for discussion should be of equal importance to the speaker as well as the audience.

Regarding the issue of relevance of subject matter for the speech, the speaker must pay attention to the purpose or the function the speech would have on this audience. Mufanti, Mufanti, Nimasari and Gestanti (2017)

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propose three functions of public speaking which concur with Schreiber and Hartranft (2003) who pair the functions with the types of speech. In Mufanti et al, the three functions of public speaking are (a) to convey information—information is disseminated and personalised usually by an expert; (b) to share thought; and (c) to debate argument verbally. Schreiber and Hartranft propose that the three general purposes of speaking in public and the types are to inform your audience (informative speech); to persuade (persuasive speech) and to commemorate or entertain (commemorative/entertaining speech). For them (Schreiber & Hartranft), the occasion determines the kind of speech to be delivered.   An informative speech will require the presenter to share information about a particular person, place, object, process, concept, or issue by describing or explaining. Persuasive speech will attempt to reinforce or change the beliefs, attitudes, feelings or values of the audience; and entertaining or commemorative speech will seek to strengthen the bonds between the audience(s) from recalling a shared experience, or intend to amuse the audience through humour, stories, or illustrations.

Mufanti et al. further intimate that speeches can be classified into four, based on the purpose of delivery. These are (i) narrative speech— which aims to amuse the audience or share the speaker's experience; (ii) demonstrative speech—is basically the type of speech delivered to show how something works or how something is done; (iii) informative speech— is the type of speech that aims at educating and informing the audience; and (iv) persuasive speech— is the type that seeks to persuade, convince and change or influence the mind-set or behaviour of the audience(s).   They further argue that, depending on the mode of delivery, speeches can equally be grouped into four

kinds (a) manuscript or scripted speech— the type of speech that is delivered based on a written-out text; (b) memorisation or memorised speech— this type of delivery requires the speaker to have concepts kept in mind without any written text to refer to; (c) impromptu speech— the type of speech delivered with little to no preparations; and (d) extemporaneous speech— the type that is based on preparation with the speaker presenting ideas freely with an outline or a guide. It is a carefully planned and well-prepared speech.

This study uses a public speech which is diplomatically oriented and precisely the two speeches (manuscript/scripted) of Kofi Annan were meant to inform the target audience; hence, these two speeches are informative. The entry speech informs the audience about the speaker's appreciation of being elected into office, and the speaker's role to the UN. The exit speech was a farewell speech which was equally informative. In this speech, the speaker demonstrated to the audience the success story through his first and second terms in office as the Secretary-General (SG), and informed the audience about a lot more responsibilities the Organisation would have to shoulder even in his absence from office.

Theoretical Review

The study is deeply rooted in Halliday's Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) as a functional language theory. Specific to this study is the application of the interpersonal functional tools. The subsequent sub-sections consider the SFL in the broader sense, focusing on interpersonal metafunction resources.

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Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL)

Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) is a theory of language and discourse developed by M.A.K Halliday and his followers. Whilst *systemic* in SFL refers to a conception of language as a network of systems, or choices, for expressing meaning; *functional* refers to a concern for what language does and how it does it, in contrast to more structured approaches (Flowerdew, 2013). According to Eggins (2004), the Hallidayan Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) is recognised as a useful descriptive and interpretative framework for viewing language as a strategic meaning-making resource.

Systemicists view language as social semiotics. For systemic linguists, people perceive language with each other in accomplishing everyday social life. In that regard, four main theoretical claims are made about language as interests of systemicists: (a) language use is functional; (b) its function is to make meanings; (c) these meanings are influenced by social and cultural contexts in which they are exchanged; and (d) the process of using language is a semiotic process, a process of making meaning by choosing. These four points indicate that language use is functional, semantic, contextual, and semiotic; to a larger extent, the systemic approach is viewed as a functional-semantic approach to language.

With regard to the meaning-making resources of language, the SFL tradition postulates three broad metafunctions or meanings: ideational, interpersonal, and textual. Thompson (2014) summarizes these three metafunctions (kinds of meanings):

> (a) we use language to talk about our experience of the world, including the worlds in our minds, to describe events and states and the entities involved in them; (b) we also use language to interact with

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other people, to establish and maintain relations with them, to influence their behaviour, to express our own viewpoint on things in the world, and to elicit or change theirs; (c) finally, in using language, we organise our messages in ways that indicate how they fit in with the other messages around them and with the wider context in which we are talking or writing (Thompson, 2014, p. 28).

Haratyan (2011) posits that, in Halliday's SFL, language as a social phenomenon is functional, that is, it is concerned with the mechanism of text structure, function, and meaning of language. It begins as an analysis of language in social context where a particular lexico-grammatical choice is constructed under the influence of social and cultural contexts. Meaning, central to SFL, is achieved through the linguistic choices in paradigmatic and the syntagmatic levels of discourse where the words are arranged in a clause or text. To that effect, three categories are used as the basis for exploring how meanings are created and understood because they allow the matching of particular types of functions/meanings with particular patterns of wording to an extent that other categorisations generally do not. The idea of matching meanings and wordings is central. For Caffarel-Cayron (2009), we are concerned with functional grammar (the study of linguistic forms in relation to the meanings that they express) rather than only semantics (the study of meaning).

The term, *lexicogrammar*, as used in Hallidayan functional linguistics, captures the notions of *lexis* and *grammar* which form a continuum of linguistic resources for the expression of meaning; where *lexis* is seen as the most delicate set of choices and *grammar* as the most general. Lexicogrammar makes it clear the different sets of choices that are available to

language users and these, according to systemicists, fall into three main groups. Thus, the resources of wordings that express propositional content belong to different parts of the grammar.

All the more specific functions can be assigned to one or other of the three broad functions outlined above; and, hence, we refer to these broad functions as metafunctions. The first (using language to talk about the world) is the experiential; the second (using language to interact with other people) is the interpersonal; and the third (organising language to fit in its context) is the textual. The metafunctional diversification is one key aspect of organisation of the content of levels of language which allows the simultaneous creation of multiple meanings: ideational which comprises both experiential and logical meanings (creation of text/clause as experiences (logical meaning)), interpersonal (creation of text/clause as exchange) and textual (creation of text/clause as a message in contexts) (Caffarel-Cayron, 2009). For Webster (2019), meaning is represented paradigmatically in terms of systems of choice related to what is being talked about (that is, ideational): how those interacting with one another through what they say (that is, interpersonal); and how ideational and interpersonal meanings are turned into discourse (that is, textual). For the purpose of this study, the interpersonal metafunction will be given prominence since it aids in the analysis and discussion of the study.

Interpersonal Metafunction

Halliday (1970) set out his concept of the interpersonal function of language by defining it as the function by which the speaker intrudes in the discourse, takes up a position and expresses his or her role in the speech exchange. Besides mood and modality, his concept of the interpersonal

subsumes a broad range of phenomena, such as the vocative, deixis, attitudinal lexical items, uses of conjunction items invoking the speaker's communicative role (Halliday & Hassan, 1976) as well as prosodic, intonational features (as cited in Davidse & Simon-Vandenbergen, 2008)

According to Halliday (2008), the interpersonal component of the grammar is that of "language as action"; this builds up into a rich array of speech functions, modalities, personal forms, keys, and various dimensions of force and attitude by which the speaker enacts immediate social relationships and, more broadly, the whole pattern of the social system with its complexity of roles, statuses, and voices. Among them, interpersonal function is defined as "an interactive event involving speaker, or writer and audience" (Halliday, 2008, p. 106). In other words, language plays a role of building and maintaining appropriate social relations, and indicates the roles of the participants in communication. Interpersonal function works to represent the speaker's identity and status, and shows his or her attitudes, motivations or inference to the surroundings.

Also, for the Hallidayan theory, the interpersonal function of language can be realised lexico-grammatically by mood type, modal operator and vocative address; which are particular elements of the clause. The choice of vocative address plays an essential role in the establishment and maintenance of the relationship between the speaker and the listener. The interpersonal metafunction concentrates on social roles and relations through formality degree, pronouns and clausal mood (whether declarative, imperative or interrogative). In interpersonal metafunction, the degree of intimacy or distance and the type of the relationship between the writer and reader or

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participants in a text through the type of modality can be explored; the system of pronominal determination describes how a referent can be recognised through the stances of the referent regarding the speaker and listener.

Accordingly, the general notion of interpersonal meaning had a big impact beyond Hallidayan, or Systemic Functional Linguistics—not only on the study of clause grammar, but also on discourse and language change. At clause level, it was particularly in functional approaches that the role of modality and mood was considered from the perspective of the difference between ideational and interpersonal meaning (Davidse & Simon-Vandenbergen, 2008).

MOOD and Mood

Mood shows what role the speaker selects in the speech situation and what role he or she assigns to the addressee. The system of MOOD belongs to the interpersonal metafunction of the language; it is the key interpersonal system of the clause, and is the grammatical resource for realising an interactive move in dialogue (Martin, Matthiessen & Painter, 2010). According to Haratyan (2011), grammatically interpersonal metafunction at the clausal level enjoys Mood. Halliday and Matthiessen (2004) make two distinctions of 'Mood' (with initial capital case), as the name of an element of the interpersonal structure of the clause (Mood + Residue) and 'MOOD' (in capital case), as the name of the primary interpersonal system of the clause— the grammaticalisation of the semantic system of speech function. With this distinction, they argue that as general convention, names of structural functions are spelt with an initial capital and names for systems with all capital case. In that order, MOOD looks at the larger interpersonal system network

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and at the clausal level, Mood looks at elements of interpersonal structural dimension of the clause. In other words, as a principal grammatical system, MOOD, is seen as an aspect of the clause as an exchange (Halliday, 1994; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004; Martin, Matthiessen & Painter, 2010; Thompson, 2014). In effect, whilst MOOD is concerned with speech functions, which are either Indicative or Imperative; and Mood is concerned with clause structure (that is, Subject and Finite ordering).

With the organisation as a message, the clause is organised as an interactive event involving a speaker, or writer and the audience. In the event of an interaction, speakers and writers are assigned roles at a particular point in time. The fundamental types of speech role which are more specific in nature are just two: (i) giving and (ii) demanding. It is either the speaker is giving something to the listener (a piece of information) or she/he is demanding something from him/her. Further, these two elementary categories (giving and demanding) involve complex notions: giving which means 'inviting to receive', and demanding means 'inviting to give'. The speaker is not only doing something himself; he is also requiring something of the listener. Typically, therefore, an 'act' of speaking is something that might more appropriately be called an "interact": it is an exchange, in which giving implies receiving and demanding implies giving in response (Bloor & Bloor, 2004; Halliday, 1994; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004; Thompson, 2014).

According to Halliday (1994), another basic distinction that cuts across *giving* and *demanding* fundamentally relates to the nature of the commodity being exchanged— which may either be, (a) goods-and-services or (b) information. These two variables, when taken together, define the four

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primary speech functions of Offer, Command, Statement, and Question. These, in turn, are matched by a set of desired responses: accepting an Offer, carrying out a Command, acknowledging a Statement, and answering a Question. He further posits that, when language is used to exchange information, the clause takes on the form of a *Proposition*. It becomes something that can be argued about— something that can be affirmed or denied, and also doubted, contradicted, insisted on, accepted with reservation, qualified, tempered, regretted and so on. However, in order not to deny the fact that the function of the clause as interactive event goes beyond exchange of information, the parallel term 'Proposal' is used to refer to Offers and Commands.

The general rule behind the expression of MOOD in the clause is as follows: the grammatical category that is characteristically used to exchange information is that of Indicative; within the category of Indicative, the characteristic expression of a Statement is Declarative, that of a Question is the Interrogative, and within the category of Interrogative, there is a further distinction of yes/no Interrogative, for polar questions, and WH- Interrogative, for content questions. These features are typically expressed as follows:

" (1) The presence of Mood element, consisting of Subject plus Finite, realises the feature 'Indicative'; (2) Within the Indicative, what is significant is the order of Subject and Finite: (a) the order, Subject before Finite realises 'Declarative'; (b) the order, Finite before Subject realises 'yes/no Interrogative'; (c) in a WH- Interrogative the order is : (i) Subject before Finite if the WH- element is Subject; (ii) Finite before Subject otherwise" (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p. 114).

The mood element is constituted by the Subject and the Finite (auxiliary or lexical verb) and the remainder of the clause as the Residue,

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determine the mood of a clause as verbal group. Hence, the order Subject + Finite establishes the Mood as Declarative, while the order Finite + Subject establishes the Mood as Interrogative. In a system network, a clause can be Declarative or Imperative with "wh or yes-no" format including material, verbal, relational or existential process.

The Subject and Finite together make up a component of the clause that is called Mood. This term is unfortunately a little confusing, because there is the use of 'mood' (small 'm') to refer to the choice of clause types. The reason for using the same term is that it is the presence and ordering of Subject and Finite that realise Mood choices. Whereas the Subject function may be carried out by any nominal group of the kinds, the Finite is drawn from a small number of verbal operators— these can be divided into two main groups: those that express tense ('be', 'have', and 'do', plus 'be' as the marker of passive voice) and those that express modality ('can', 'may', 'could', 'might', 'will', 'would', 'shall', 'should', 'ought [to]') (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p. 114).

Modality and Polarity

Another important element in interpersonal function in SFL tradition is Modality and Polarity. Similar to Halliday (1994) and Halliday and Matthiessen (2004), Fairclough (2003) discusses four major speech functions, two associated with Knowledge and Exchanges (Statement, Question) and two associated with Activity, Exchanges (Demand, Offer). He sees modality as the question of what people commit themselves to when they make Statements, ask Questions, make Demands or Offers. On the other hand, Halliday (1994) and Halliday and Matthiessen (2004) argue that modality refers to the area of

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meaning that lies between yes and no— intermediate ground between positive and negative polarity. For them, what this implies will depend on the underlying speech function of the clause; hence, they make the following propositions:

> (1) if the clause is an 'information' clause (a proposition, congruently realised as indicative, this means either (i) 'yes or no', that is, 'maybe'; or (ii) /'both yes and no', that is, 'sometimes'; in other words, some degree of probability or of usuality). (2) If the clause is a 'goods & services' clause(s) (proposal, which has no real congruent form in the grammar; but by default we can characterise it as imperative, it means either (i) 'is wanted to', related to a command, or (ii) 'wanted to', related to an offer, in other words, some degree of obligation or inclination).

They refer to type 1 as *Modalization* and to type 2 as *Modulation*. Polarity is, thus, a choice between yes and no. But these are not the only possibilities; there are intermediate degrees, various kinds of indeterminacy that fall in-between such as 'sometimes' or 'maybe'. These intermediate degrees, between the positive and negative poles, are known collectively as 'modality'. What the modality system does is to construe the region of uncertainty that lies between 'yes' or 'no'. But there is more than one route between the two.

In-between the certainties of 'it is' and 'it isn't' lie the relative probabilities of 'it must be, 'it will be', 'it may be'. Similarly, in-between the definitive 'do!' and 'don't!' lie the discretionary options 'you must do', 'you should do', 'you may do'. The space between 'yes' and 'no' has a different significance for propositions and proposals. In a proposition, the meaning of the negative and

positive pole is asserting and denying; positive 'it is so', negative 'it isn't so'. There are two kinds of intermediate possibilities: (i) degrees of probability: 'possibly/probably/certainly'; (ii) degree of usuality: 'sometimes/usually/ always'. The former are equivalent to 'either yes or no', that is 'maybe yes', and 'maybe no', with different degrees of likelihood attached. The latter are equivalent to both 'yes and no'; that is, 'sometimes yes', 'sometimes no', with different degrees of oftenness attached. It is these scales of probability and usuality to which the term *Modality* strictly belongs, and Halliday and Matthiessen (2004) distinctively use *Modalization* for. Accordingly, probability and usuality can be expressed in the same three ways: (a) by a finite modal operator in the verbal group; (b) by a modal Adjunct of (i) probability or (ii) usuality; and (c) by both together. In a statement, modality is an expression of the speaker's opinion whereas in a question, it is a request for the listener's opinion.

On the other hand, in a proposal, the meaning of the positive and negative poles is prescribing and proscribing: positive 'do it', negative 'don't do it'. Here, there are also two kinds of intermediate possibility, in this case depending on the speech function, whether command or offer: (i) In command, the intermediate points represent degrees of obligation: 'allowed to/supposed to/required to'; (ii) in offer, they represent degrees of inclination: 'willing to/ anxious to/determined to'. The scales of obligation and inclination are termed 'Modulation'. Again, both obligation and inclination can be expressed in either two ways, though not in this case, by both together: "(a) by finite modal operator; (b) by an expression of the Predicator: (i) typically by a passive verb; (ii) typically by adjectives. Proposals that are clearly positive or

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negative, as seen in goods-and-services exchange between speaker and hearer, in which the speaker is either (i) offering to do something; (ii) requesting the listener to do something; and (iii) suggesting that they both do something" (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p.147). Similarly, Fairclough (2003) argues modality in terms of a relationship between speaker or writer or 'author' and representation. In other words , modality is seen as important in the texturing of identities, both personal ('personalities') and social, in the sense that what you commit yourself to is a significant part of what you are— modality choices in texts can be seen as part of the process of texturing self-identity. Choices in modality are significant not only in terms of Identification, but also in terms of Action (and the social relations of Action), and Representation. Modality can be seen as initially to do with 'commitments', 'attitudes', 'judgement', 'stance' and therefore with Identification.

Notably, modality goes beyond cases of explicit Modalization, that is, cases where there is explicit marker of modality. The archetypical markers of modality are "modal verbs" (can, will, may, must, would, should, et cetera). In the cases of Statements, modalized cases are seen here as intermediate between Assertion and Denial, which are typically as positive Statements, and negative Statements (for example, 'Conflict is not seen as creative') without modal verbs or other modal markers. All of these fall within the broad category of modality. The rationale for this is fairly obvious: in terms of commitments to truth, 'Conflict may be seen as creative' or 'Conflict could not be seen as creative', are intermediate between Assertion and Denial. In the case of Demands, modalized forms (for example, 'you should open the window', 'you must open the window') are seen as intermediate between

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Prescriptions (for example, 'Open the window!) which are typically realised as positive imperative clauses, and Proscriptions (for example, 'Don't open the window!') which are typically realised as negative imperative clauses. Questions are seen in terms of the author eliciting the commitment to truth of others. Again, the range of modalities includes non-modalized questions (for example, 'Could the window be open?'). The same is true for Offers.

Modality is, therefore, a very complex aspect of meaning, and the framework above excludes much of its intricacy. For instance, Demands can be realised as 'question-requests', as clauses which are Interrogative in their Grammatical Mood (for example, 'Will you open the window?') and have the form of modalized Questions. There are also distinctions of tense ('can', 'could'; 'will', 'would') which overlap with the distinction between hypothetical and non-hypothetical (for example, 'I will open the window' and 'I would open the window if asked').

Thompson (2014) provides a diagrammatic view of the modality systems which basically looks at modality type (Modalization and Modulation); Commitment (High, Median and Low) and Responsibility which can be viewed as explicit or implicit; or either subjective or objective.
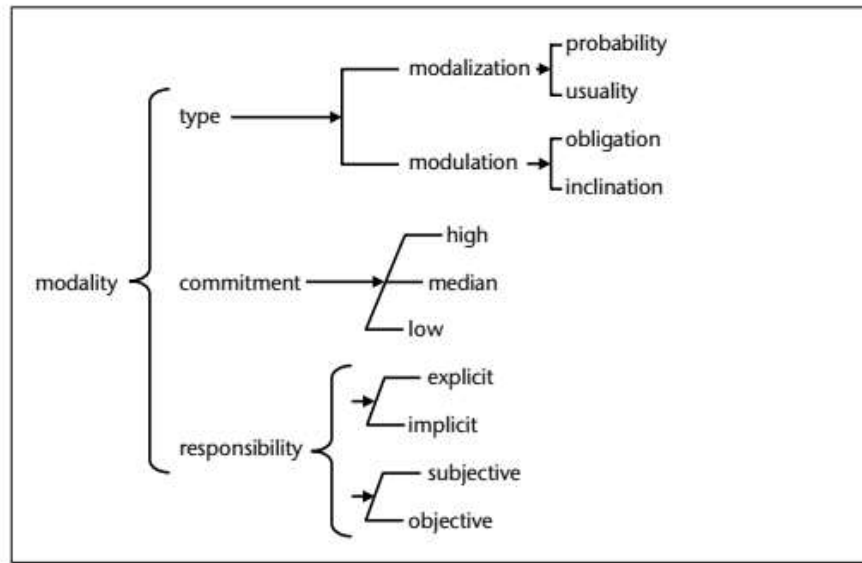
Figure 1: Simultaneous systems of modality (Thompson, 2014, p. 77)

Modality is, therefore, related to a speaker's judgement and will, expressing the effectiveness of a proposition that the speaker makes judgement about; obligation of the listener that the speaker asks to fulfil or personal will of proposing.

Modality, a major component in SFG, serves to realise interpersonal function and involves degrees and scales. Halliday (2008) established three basic values to formalise the modal judgement, "high, "medium", and "low". There are many forms to show modality in texts. For example, modality can be realised with modal verbs such as, "can", "will", and "must", with modal adverbs such as "probably" and "certainly", and with predicate verbs such as "be supposed to" and "be obliged to". As the meaning of modality lies between "YES" and "NO"; namely "Positive" and "Negative", modality thus has scales. The scales can make what is said inclined to be positive or negative and express possibilities, frequency, obligation, and will of different degrees. The scales of modality are divided into three degrees: low, medium, and high.

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	Positive	Negative
Low	Can, may, could, might, dare	Needn't to, doesn't need to, doesn't have to
Medium	Will, would, shall, should, is/was to	Won't, wouldn't, shouldn't, isn't/wasn't to, shall not
High	Must, ought to, need, have/had to	Must not, oughtn't to, couldn't, mightn't, may not, hasn't , hadn't

Figure 2: Scale of Modality expressed by Modal Operators (Halliday and Matthiessen, 2014, p. 144)

On the other hand, polarity refers to the positive or negative value assigned to the clause by the speaker (Fontaine, 2013; Halliday, 1994; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004). According to Fontaine (2013), polarity is often presented with the Finite element; however, it is acknowledged that it is a kind of meaning that can be expressed in both finite and non-finite clauses. Polarity relates most directly to the interpersonal metafunction because of the influence of the speaker in using polarity to interact with others. It captures a dichotomy of the clause in terms of positive and negative polarity.

All clauses can be identified as having either a positive or negative polarity. Positive polarity is the unmarked polarity as there is no marker of positive polarity in English. Usually, negative polarity is always marked and it is expressed by the morpheme, *not* [(whether free, '*no*t', or bound variation, '-*n't'*)]" (Fontaine, 2013, p. 122). It is to be noted that in finite clauses, there is gravity between the Finite element of the clause and the polarised element (for example; *can't*, *didn't*, *haven't*, *isn't*). However, in the non-finite clauses, the

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absence of a Finite element means that only the stressed form on *not* can be used since there is no finite item with which to conflate the negative marker: *Maybe <u>not</u> seeing their mother and father in such pain was having a bad effect on the little girls.* In conclusion, polarity marks the speaker's commitment to the truth values of propositions; and with or without polar markers, polarity can be expressed.

Pronominals and Vocative Address

Pronominals and vocative address play important roles in creating interpersonal meanings. In a cross-disciplinary diachronic study, Brown and Gilman (1960) identified two principles determining second-person pronoun usage in a number of European languages. They introduced the symbol **T** and **V** to designate the simple or intimate pronoun of address (**T**) and the polite, distant or secondary pronoun (**V**). In the binary scheme of alternatives, **T** symbolises an informal/familiar approach and **V**, a formal/polite stance. The **T** and **V** designators are respectively for "familiar" and "polite" approach parallel to the Latin subject pronouns *tu* and *vos*, where the former was the familiar pronoun of address directed at one person and the latter for a polite approach— a sign of reverence, and the invariable plural, for both familiar and polite. However, Cook (2014) proposed a third dimension **N** for neutrality, to fill the lacuna in the Brown and Gilman's binary designators. The argument was based on the binary model's inability to take into consideration other languages, especially the English single, *you*. To Halliday and Matthiessen (2014), the personal pronoun represents the world according to the speaker, in the context of speech exchange; and the basic distinction is into speech roles (*I*, *you*) and other roles (*he*, *she*, *it*, *they*), and also the general pronoun (*one*).

The Figure below presents the English personal pronoun and speech roles in the systemic perspective (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014, p. 384):
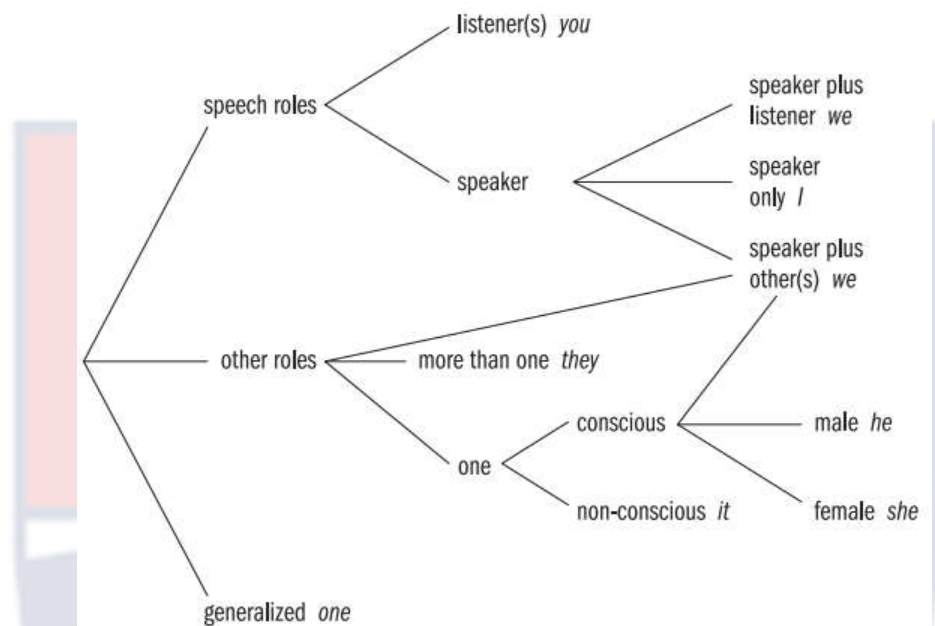
Figure 3: The English Person Categories (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014)

In speech situations, the speaker's role is made distinct with the use of *I* only and *we*, which corresponds with the first person personal pronoun; and addressee role is represented with *you*, corresponding to the second person pronoun while the other role is made with the *he/she/it,* which corresponds with the third person. For the purposes of interpersonal meanings, the first and second person personal pronouns (T-V binary model) demonstrate who is in control of the speech— an expression of power and solidarity.

On the one hand, vocative address term usually outside the clause structure (Subject + Finite) has important functions to play when used. Syntactically, vocatives are optional nominal elements that can occupy different positions in the clause, and basically do not affect the grammaticality of the clause (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004; Shabeeb, 2021). The function of vocatives does not have any direct impact on the clause. First, the vocative

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may be used to call for the attention of listener(s); second, it may be used as a form of greeting or acknowledgement; and third, vocatives can be used as a way of appreciating particular person(s) among the audience.

However, Zwicky (1974) distinguishes between two functions of vocatives, which he labels *calls* and *addresses*, the former being used to attract the addressee's attention and the latter "to maintain or emphasise the contact between the speaker and the addressee", as cited by Davies (1986) who disagrees with this assertion. For Davies, the two distinctive major functions of vocatives are first, the identification function, which is associated with those vocatives used to indicate who is being addressed. This function can be achieved through the semantic content of the vocative, though contextual factors such as gestures, gaze or circumstance can play part. The second function is expressive in that it indicates something of the speaker's view of or attitudes towards the addressee. This may show degree of distance or solidarity between speakers and addressees, their relative status or role, the speaker's view of the addressee(s)'s position or role in society, or something related to feelings (for example, affection, disapproval, admiration) toward the addressee or combination of any of these (Davies, 1986, p. 93), as postulated in Brown and Gilman's (1960) **T**-**V** binary model of pronominals. Both pronominals and vocatives show degree of closeness or distances, solidarity and power.

The present study considers interpersonal metafunctional systems— Mood, modality and polarity, personal pronouns and vocatives (Fairclough, 2008; Halliday, 1994; Halliday, 2004; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014) and follows Fontaine's (2013) three-strand analysis of the English clause— which

provides a ten-step guideline for analysing the clause with respect to each metafunction (strand of meaning). This offers a consistent and systemic approach to clausal analysis. It is to be noted that the present study follows the steps that specify interpersonal metafunction, excluding the other two metafunctions (textual and ideational) which are not the study's focus.

Empirical Review

In this section, I review studies which provide a bench mark for my research. Specifically, I review traditional political discourse studies and other studies that I term as 'non-political' or 'apolitical' discourse studies which resonate with the current study. The second part focused on studies on SFL and interpersonality analysis within institutional setups such as legal, academic and religious. This review helps to situate the current study in the contexts of institutionalised discourse such as diplomacy, politics, and other fields like judiciary, religion and the academia.

Political Discourse Studies in Native and Non-native Contexts

Using a combined theory (SFL and CDA), Wang (2010) analysed Obama's political speeches from the perspective of transitivity and modality— through which ideology and power are revealed in the language of politics. The findings of the study first show that simple words and short sentences were frequently used in Obama's speeches and that his language is easy to understand and colloquial. The choice of simple and colloquial language easily shortens the distance between the speaker and the target audience. Secondly, from the transitivity analysis, material process dominated his speeches— which suggested a tool of winning and building the confidence of the people in the presidency. Modality analysis, on the other hand, shows that

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modal verbs, tense, and first person pronouns were used. The use of simple present tense purposely presents issues ranging from political, economic and cultural at the present, while simple future time was used to relay his political reforms and ideological principles in his time. The first person pronouns usually shortened the distance between him and his audience— a tool used to persuade and win the acceptance of the audience.

However, Farhat's (2016) study employed only SFL approach to the analysis of Obama's speeches. Using Systemic Functional Linguistics theory by Halliday, this study investigated transitivity process and modality patterns as a way of exposing Muslim representational issues in the discourse of President Barack Obama. Adopting a qualitative method of analysis, the study selected and analysed linguistically six speeches by Obama, focusing on experiential and interpersonal meanings which are linked or tied to transitivity and modality respectively. The study found out that Obama expressed his views on Muslims world representation through the use of different process types and participant roles, and different modality types which were found in his speeches depicted the relation between the president as speaker and the audience as listeners.

Also, Shadeed, Ayesh and Itmeizeh (2019) interrogated Trump's speeches, using a combined theory (SFL and CDA). The study investigated the frequencies of the transitivity types, modality; political ideologies and ethical dimensions implied in Trump's speech were equally explored. Using CDA as a methodological framework and SFL as a theoretical framework, the results of the study showed that simple words, short sentences, and affirmative sentences were most frequently used as compared to negative ones. The active

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voice was profusely used as against the passives. With regard to transitivity, the study showed that the material processes were used mostly, preceded by relational ranks and then followed by mental process. The analysis of modality revealed that most modal verbs, tense and first person were used in political speech.

Also, Karimnia and Rahbarian (2017) compared the New Year's messages of both Hassan Rouhani and Barack Obama delivered in March, 2016. The study critically analysed the discourse of these two presidential messages and discovered the hidden aspects of ideologies, policies, and background worldviews. However, this study which draws on SFG-based CDA method, found that Obama's speech was characterised by the use of simple words and sentences; and his references to Iranian traditions and cultural aspects showed his attempt to create an intimate setting with reduced distance between his government and Iranians. Also, material processes were frequently used more than any other type in both speeches. It further revealed that both speakers' modes and attitudes were indicated through the use of relatively polite modal verbs to create a less formal situation and to connect with the audience.

On the concept of interpersonal function in language use, Chen and Shuo (2018) examined mood, modality and personal system in Obama's White House Correspondent's Dinner speech in 2016, adopting the Hallidayan approach. The study showed that mood system, modal systems, and personal system are all used in Obama's 2016 dinner speech. In terms of mood system, declarative sentence is used most frequently; imperative sentences and interrogative sentences are used less. The reason is that Obama's speech

mainly conveys information to hearers. In terms of modality, Obama uses medium values most frequently, followed by the low and high value modality. In this way, the audience can accept the speech content easier. From the point of view of the person system, the use of first person pronouns dominates, followed by the third and the second person pronouns.

In their comparative study, Zeng and Wang (2019) investigated the interpersonal metafunction of political speeches. In the study, two inaugural speeches of Theresa May and David Cameron were considered from the SFL perspective, where vocative address, mood and modality were in focus. The findings of the study established that both inaugurals used first person pronoun to communicate their (speakers) will and authority. Secondly, modal verbs of medium and low degrees were used by those speakers to show interpersonal distancing; in terms of mood, the indicative mood was mostly employed to express view and win audience over by the speakers. However, modal verbs of high degree modality and the choice of second person verbs were chosen by the speakers, based on the distinct inaugural background. It turned out that whilst the male speaker tended to employ more of high degree modal verbs to establish authority, the female counterpart avoided using high degree modal verbs. It was established that the construction of interpersonal meaning, through the choice of vocative address, modality and mood complement one another.

Ye (2010) conducted an interpersonal metafunctional analysis of Barack Obama's Victory Speech. The study shows that positive declarative clauses dominate Obama's speech; imperative clauses are in the second position; 'will', 'can' and 'must' turn up frequently as modal verb operators to

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carry on the modality in the speech; the first personal pronoun and its anamorphous turn up mostly in the victory speech, and the second personal pronoun, 'you', comes next. Also, Yang (2017) adopted qualitative and quantitative approaches to carry out a linguistic analysis of Barack Obama's inaugural address from the perspective of interpersonal metafunction. Focusing on mood, modality and person systems, the study finds that plural forms of first person are mostly used, whereas declarative clauses have absolute advantage over other clause types, and the medium and low modal auxiliaries appear mostly frequently in Obama's address, which aim to help readers understand and evaluate the speech regarding its suitability, thus, provide some guidance for readers to make better speeches.

On the tangent of parliamentary discourse, Ilie (2009) examined the interplay between strategic uses of parliamentary address and institutional discursive practices in the U.K Parliament and the Swedish Riksdag. The study focused on the ways MPs use and abuse particular addressing and referring strategies. It revealed that in both parliaments, MPs address each other by means of relatively restricted and well-defined range of parliamentary forms of address: gender-specific titles, gender-neutral titles, institutional titles and personal names.

The review has so far considered political discourse in native language context where the studies employed different aspects of SFL functional theory, whilst others used combined theories like CDA and SFL. In the subsequent section, I pay attention to studies in non-native context, especially Africa. Most of the political discourse studies in Africa are mostly presidential speeches, parliamentary speeches, victory speeches, inaugural speeches, or

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state of the nations' address et cetera. These studies are speeches delivered by both current and past presidents and parliamentarians. Similar to the native political discourse studies, the non-native studies adopt either the SFL or the CDA models. The current review covers studies specifically within the West African sub-region which includes countries or nations like Ghana and Nigeria.

Appiah (2015) investigated Jerry Rawlings' June 4th speeches from the point of view of transitivity. The study examined transitivity patterns associated with the key participants and how Rawlings used transitivity to enact power and ideology. From the CDA and SFL perspectives, the study established that ideology and power of the political actors reside in the texts. The findings showed the predominant use of material processes in the presidential speeches reflect their actions and events, and the patterns of transitivity used demonstrate their exercise of constitutional and legal powers while power to their opponents is limited.

Also, Israel and Botchwey (2017) explored the illocutionary acts performed in Presidential Inaugural Addresses (PIAs) by Ghanaian presidents of the Fourth (4th) Republic, (Prof. J. E. A. Mills and John Mahama). Using Austin and Searle's Speech Act Theory (SAT), this study concluded that PIAs are characterised by more assertives than declaratives and mostly illocutionary acts are used to depict the past, present, and future situations and to inspire public confidence in governance. Further, the acts were indicated by the interplay of time, mood, and the subject of the verb phrase of the proposition and the use of performative verbs.

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On the other hand, Adjei and Ewusi-Mensah (2016) explored transitivity in Kufour's 2008 Farewell Speech to the Ghanaian parliament. Employing transitivity within the Hallidayan SFL framework, the study found that material processes were maximally used in the speech as against the existential processes which were used minimally. To this effect, the study made a contradictory pronouncement by interpreting Kufour's Farewell Speech as undemocratic in nature. First, it indicated that the address was full of autocracy and demonstrated individualistic traits of leadership. However, it made a swift turn by establishing that Kufuor's ability to move beyond rhetoric to making relevant recommendation for the incoming administration is a justification for his maturity as a democratic leader with credentials.

Mensah (2014) examined the rhetoric of Kwame Nkrumah's political speeches. Exploring the historical, political and diplomatic circumstances which gave birth to Nkrumah's rhetoric, six major speeches (audio-recorded and five volumes of selected published speeches) were used as the primary data source for the analysis and discussion. The framework for this study was basically tools for rhetoric studies: Aristotle (2007) on Levels of Proofs and Rhetorical Regimes, Perelman and Olbrechts-Tyteca (1969) on Argument and Lloyd Bitzer (1968) on Situation. Analysis was done vertically and horizontally, focusing on the rhetorical strategies and tools Nkrumah employed in his 1950 to 1964 speeches. It found that, as part of Nkrumah's logical strategy, logical association was usually employed— two entities were associated with either positively or negatively for the purpose of achieving good or bad publicity. The negative association in his speeches was for both Ghanaian and Western adversaries while the positive association was used to

enhance his ethos. Further, the argument of inclusion was significant in the speeches— central to the subject of Africa's unity— with no mention of specific individual states. This sought to deepen the continental discussion on the project of Africa's freedom. Also, the study revealed that Nkrumah consistently used symbolism as a strategic way of establishing his ethos as well as creating solidarity with his audience. The use of collective memory of his audience in his speeches established pathos, and finally, the study established that Nkrumah's speeches were used to address composite immediate and remote audiences.

Obeng (2018) explored the entwining between language and liberty in Ghanaian political discourse. Three letters of Dr. J. B. Danquah (two addressed to President Nkrumah and one to the Speaker of Ghana's parliament) were the primary data sources. The study proved that discursive strategies such as deferential modes of address and reference, politeness, candour, inferencing, glittering generalities, emotional valence and intertextuality, were the tools used in Danquah's fight for liberty in his letters. With regard to grammatical features, the study demonstrated that conditional sentences, political pronoun, physical verbs denoting destruction and injury, pronouns (exclusive and inclusive) and adverbs as well as other important graphological features the study paid attention to reflected power disparity between Danquah (political prisoner) and Nkrumah (President). With regard to the framework, it is to be anticipated per the caption of the study that CDA framework or approach should have worked better, however, this study rather employed a philosophical theory on Liberty.

Chefor (2019) explored the mood system as an aspect of interpersonal metafunction in the SFL theory, across two mediums— French and English. The focus was to interrogate whether the mood system of the political speech in the French language was preserved in its English translation. It established that, with regard to mood choices, declaratives were highly recorded in both French and its English translation; however, imperatives were minimally used, while there were interrogatives in both language situations. Therefore, the study had proven that the original style of the political speech in French was highly maintained in its English translated form.

With the combined application of SFL and CDA principles, Koussouhon and Dossoumou (2015) sought to reveal the hidden ideological principles in Nigerian President Muhammadu Buhari's inaugural speech. With interpersonal metafunction as a focal point, the study analysed mood, epistemic and deontic modality choices as well as recoverable references through personal pronouns. It became clearer from the research that declarative clauses were frequently identified, with few of imperative clauses being used in the political discourse under study. Also, high and medial auxiliaries profusely dominated the modal choices (*must, have to, shall,* and *will*), which communicate the sense of moral obligation, accountability and responsibility of the presidency and his administration. With regard to recoverable references through personal pronouns, the study found out that the first person inclusive pronoun 'we' dominated the speech, preceded by the first person singular exclusive. The choice of inclusiveness suggested a binding obligation on both the speaker and the audience; however, the choice of exclusiveness conferred authority on the president and his administration.

From a comparative approach, Dadugblor (2016) explored Ghana and US' State of The Nation's Address. The study examined the ways in which rhetors in presidential discourse associate with and dissociate from their audiences, in an attempt to consolidate power while subtly masking their action. The study analysed the expressive values of selected lexical items, and the inclusive and exclusive use of 'we' in selected State of the Nation/Union Addresses in Ghana and United States, using a comparative rhetoric and Rhetorical Discourse Analysis (RDA). The study revealed that presidents' unique position during these speeches as both heads of nations and heads of their political parties presented a challenge in their twin roles as assessors of national performance and promoters of policies, with the result that they associate with different audiences for political gain, based on whether the stance is epideictic (celebrating unity) or deliberative (setting a policy agenda). The study affirmed that an interdisciplinary approach such as RDA could help unravel aspects of such speeches—persuasion and power differentials aimed at agenda setting— that a single approach might otherwise not be able to uncover.

However, Sarfo (2016) focused on questions and debates in the U.K and Ghanaian Parliament comparatively. The study paid attention to the similarities and differences of questions and debates—from the point of view of transitivity (process types) and debates from evaluative view point. It found out that while the question forms in the two parliaments are similar, there were differences as well. The differences were attributed to language interference and cultural difference.

What these studies have sought to do is to interrogate political speeches of different kinds— presidential speeches, parliamentary speeches, inaugural speeches— using different theoretical approaches (CDA, SFL, RDA; and combined - theory (CDA and SFL). What seems significant in these studies is the political language (discourse) explored and SFL as theoretical tool which is related to the present study. However, studies such as Ye (2010), Koussouhou and Dossoumou (2015), Yang (2017); Chen and Shuo (2018); Chefor (2019) and Zeng &Wang (2019) are directly related to the present study. These studies explored aspects of interpersonality like mood, modality, personal pronouns, which are the focus of the present study. What needs to be iterated at this point is that the current study primarily seeks to interrogate diplomatic language by a career diplomat— that which sets this work apart; and further treats interpersonality in the diplomatic language (discourse) at the clausal level as an exchange (Halliday, 1994; Halliday, 2008; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014) — which makes this study distinctive.

Apolitical / Non-partisan Speeches at the UN Platform

This section of the review pays attention to studies that are considered 'apolitical'— these are studies that are non-political in nature, and have to do with speeches delivered at the UN's General Assembly platform (Green, 2007; Guo & Rahman Hadi, 2020).

In 2007, Green investigated the discursive strategies in Dr. Bingu wa Mutharika's political speeches— addresses he delivered in the UNGA over the period of four years (2004-2007)— during his tenure as a president in Malawi. Using CDA as a theoretical framework, the study diachronically compared four speeches and identified specific pronouns that shift focus and

responsibility toward and away from 'him' as the president, on different occasions for different means. It further revealed that collocation of specific pronouns with key lexical items had the ability to strengthen the weight of the political rhetoric. The comparative approach enabled the researcher to also establish that the addresses by the President over the four-year span suggested that the alteration of components in the addresses correlate with the changing political and economic climate of Malawi. It also showed that the exercise of authority and responsibility for Malawian concerns are of interest to the President.

Similarly, in a comparative analysis, Sharififar and Rahimi (2015) investigated Obama and Rouhani's speeches at UN in September, 2013 from Halliday's Systemic Functional Linguistics perspective. This study is different from Karimnia and Rahbarian (2017) who compared the New Year's messages of both Obama and Rouhani, discovering aspects of ideologies, policies and political worldviews from SFG and CDA theoretical approaches. The focus for Sharififar and Rahimi was on transitivity system and modality as used to represent how the two presidents' language can incorporate both ideology and power in the political speeches. Whereas Obama's language is characterised with colloquial language made up of simple and short sentences, Rouhani's speech is made up of more difficult words, making his language rather difficult and formal. On transitivity analysis, the study revealed that both speeches by the presidents were made up of material process as a process of 'doing' and 'happening'; the modality analysis also showed that both presidents' use of modal verbs indicated their firm plan to fulfil their tasks and

make their language easy as much as possible as a way of shortening the distance between the presidents and their audience.

However, Alemi, Tajeddin and Kondlaji (2017) conducted a comparative study of Iranian Presidents Rouhani and Ahmadinejad's speeches at the UN General Assembly. Adopting discourse historical approach, the study investigated differences in ideological and political identities in the speeches of the two presidents; in the view of the importance of the UN in shaping a country's domestic and foreign policies. The study specifically investigated how topoi (topics) were used by both presidents in order to identify themselves. It showed that the pronoun 'I' was used to project personal identity by political activists whereas topoi came out to be used as a tool to identify the ideological stances of speakers in a political context. The variety of topics or topoi that occurs in public speech definitely affects the impression it exerts on the audience.

Gamage and Makangila (2019) investigated the types of modality used and their level of commitment and responsibility in two selected political speeches (2016 and 2017) delivered by Sri Lankan President at the UN General Assembly. In addition, the study investigated the frequency of occurrence of modal expression by employing the SFL approach. It found that higher frequency of modality expression indicates the higher level of the speaker's commitment to the proposition and the validity of the proposition. Whereas the first speech does not reflect a higher frequency of modal expressions, the second speech had higher percentage of modality, which by extension, shows the speaker's commitment to the propositions and proposals in the speech situation. It was further noted that apart from modal verb

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operators, other modal adjuncts and adjectival expressions can be used to express modality and, in the case of this study, these expressions were used to persuade the listeners at the assembly.

Adopting a systemic functional approach, Mushtaq et al. (2021) investigated Imran Khan's speech addressed to the UN General Assembly. The study analysed the ideational metafunction of the speech focusing on transitivity. The study adopted a quantitative approach by randomly sampling transitivity clauses from the text. Material and relational processes were the most frequently used. The material process which dominated the speech was used to describe the happenings with the people of Kashmir and for this purpose, material verbs were used. On the contrary, Tayyab et al. (2021) investigated political persuasion by Premier Imran Khan in his 74th speech to the UNGA, from a socio-political approach. Adopting a qualitative approach, the study used Aristotle's three rhetorical proofs (Ethos, Pathos, and Logos) and other persuasive strategies — personal pronoun, relative pronouns, logical processes, body language, and self-presentation. The finding showed that the Prime Minister highlighted various issues— national and international (economic, corruption, Islamophobia, environmental threats, money laundering) — using political persuasion. It further indicated that political leaders utilise persuasive strategies at international political events, without highlighting the possibilities that could cause negative criticism.

Adopting the Hallidayan Systemic Functional Grammar approach, Guo and Rahman Hadi (2020) carried out an interpersonal metafunction analysis on the speech of President Mohammad Ashraf Ghani delivered at the 72nd Session of the UNGA. Through a qualitative analytical approach, the study

found out that positive declarative clauses were used as means of conveying a message or information and convincing the addressee with the propositions made. Also, modalities were used to obtain the attention of audiences to specific circumstances and to end the tasks and to increase the authority of the addresser. For instance, the use of "we" and "our" and "you" and "I" patterns usually helps to shorten the distance between the addresser and the audience.

To sum up, this section has reviewed studies that focused on speeches delivered on the UN platform (non-partisan). Most of these studies used different theoretical approaches. For instance, Alemi et al. (2017) adopted historical approach focusing on ideological and political identities whilst Green (2007) used CDA approach focusing on rhetoric and pronoun pairing. However, the findings in Alemi et al. showed that personal identity is created using the pronoun, *I*; and Green revealed that pronouns collocate with key lexical items to strengthen the weight in political rhetoric. Similar to the current study, are studies like Gamage and Makangila (2019), which focused on modality and the level of commitment and responsibility; Guo and Rahman Hadi (2020) which focused on mood and modality. These are common features in the interpersonal metafunction of the SFL theory.

Interpersonality in Other Institutions

In this subsection, I address the question of interpersonality in religion, the academia and the judiciary. These institutional discourse studies were carefully selected and reviewed based on familiarity and manageability for me. Also, these domains are well researched and, therefore, I seek to find the niche that exists within the political, non-political, diplomacy, and these other popular institutional discourses.

From the religious domain, interpersonality has been explored in religious sermons and Christian literatures. On mood as an interpersonal feature, Obeng-Appiah (2015) explored sermons of two charismatic church preachers. The focus of the study was to find out how the clause as an interactive grammatical unit was used to establish interpersonal relationship between the preachers and the congregants. Using four sermons as the data for the analysis, Mood, Subject, Modality, Tense, Polarity and Vocatives became fundamental to the analysis of Mood systems. The findings showed the dominance of declaratives in the sermons as against the imperative and interrogative choices. Also, the choice of first person plural and second person as subjects of the declaratives established interpersonal relationship between the preachers and their congregants. With regard to vocatives, terms such as *church*, *folks*, and *somebody* were used in the sermonic discourse to signal the participation of the congregation. The sermonic discourse is characterised by lack of reciprocity in interaction due to the role of preachers as informants and the congregants as information-receivers.

Also from a different religious genre, Bankole and Ayoola (2014) explored mood and modality in a Christian magazine (*Christian Women Mirror*). The aim of the study was on how interpersonal relationships are created and the nature of propositions in religious articles. The study revealed that the dominance of declarative mood was as a result of the writer's aim to offer convincing information to get the audiences (readers) persuaded. Whereas the interrogatives in the texts encouraged interaction through which the reader gets involved and carried along, the imperative mood was used to give specific instructions. In regard to modality, the study recorded low

modality systems where the writer avoided the use of many modal verb operators (modulated and modalized clauses); the purpose of which was to remain factual and frank.

Wang (2014) used the King James Bible as a research text and examined the interpersonal meaning in conversational contexts (conversations among God, God's chosen people, and other people). The study focused on the aspects of mood and modality in the religious language. It showed that imperative mood in the selected biblical texts was used by God in His attempt to instruct or give command (demand) to the people— an indication of power; the interrogative mood was used by the people to negotiate with God. On the other hand, vocatives were used to initiate conversation through the calling of names, either by God or the people. Finally, in the modality system, modal verbs, modal adverbs, and interpersonal metaphors revealed the god-human relationship. In that context, modal operators of median value (*shall*, *will*) were frequently used; with less of high value of modal verbs (*must* and *ought to*) and the modal auxiliaries of medium value were negligible.

Taiwo (2005) also investigated the forms and functions of interrogation in charismatic Christian pulpit discourse, using both audio and video recording data as well as observations of pulpit messages of preachers in South Western Nigeria. The findings revealed three types of interrogative forms commonly used by the charismatic Christian preacher— wh-questions, yes-no questions and rhetorical questions. These question types performed some illocutionary functions, which are different from their traditional function of elicitation of information. The wh-question used were unambiguous and the answers were obvious. It established that interrogation is

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a tool used not only to elicit information but to regulate the linguistic behaviour in the sermonic discourse.

From the academic discourse domain, several studies have been conducted on academic lectures and academic writings from interpersonality and SFL approach. Hamoy (2014) specifically investigated the use of interpersonal features to create voice in academic writing. Using SFL as a linguistic frame, the study focused on how intermediate English as Second Language (ESL) learners create voice and how that aligns with the voice of Western academic writing. Within the system of MOOD, interpersonal features— Subject, Adjunct and Finite— were analysed to determine authority, objectivity and abstractness in participants' writing. Using twenty four (24) samples from eight participants of varying native languages, the study showed that participants lacked impersonal Subjects creating a detached, objective voice—which makes academic writing more abstract. The overuse of personal Subjects did not allow for the correct abstractions, their use of Adjuncts contained features of spoken language; strong authority was also created by their choice of modal Finites. In effect, the voice in ESL writing was more conversational than academic. The study could not make a valid conclusion by virtue of the fact that the data size was too small. The data was limited to only L1; hence, the conclusion was purely based on assumption.

Contrary to interpersonality from the systemic perspective, address terms— key to interpersonality— have been given great attention in academic discourse studies. Address terms have thoroughly been investigated by an expert in sociolinguistics (Afful, 2006; Afful, 2007; Afful, 2010, Awoonor-Aziaku, 2021). Afful (2006) examined address terms among university

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students in Ghana, using two sets of data collected from participants and non-participants observation and interviews supplemented by intuition. The findings showed that Ghanaian students used four major groups of address terms; and the second findings relate with the use of the reported modes of address— personal names, titles, descriptive terms, and catch phrases to reflect and construct the individual and social identity of students. Also, the 2007 study focused on the variation in address forms among students and the findings showed that personal name, descriptive phrase, and titles are key naming practices among students, which are influenced by socio-cultural and other situational factors—display of innovativeness and playful variations of address forms in spontaneous situations. In 2010, he investigated address forms from a gendered perspective. Adopting an ethnographic-style approach, this study focused on how students in a Ghanaian university construct gendered identity through address forms. It revealed that address terms serve as boundary markers between the student speech community and the academic and non- academic staff. As indicated in Afful (2006), the use of honorific titles (*Sir* and *Madam*) showed the addressee's dignified deportment, significant age difference, and the possibility of the addresser having been taught by the addressee. Similarly, Awoonor-Aziaku (2021) established that the address and reference terms employed in the academic setting are dependent on two factors—culture and relationship; and that the culture of Ghanaians has implications on how individuals are addressed in the society. Equally, the asymmetrical relation that exists in the Ghanaian cultural system extends to the academic setting; hence, creating unequal levels of formality and informality in the relationship between students and their teachers.

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Equally, pronouns have been interrogated from non-systemic approach. Akoto (2020); Akoto, Amoakohene and Oppong-Asare (2021); Akoto, Fordjour and Oppong-Asare (2021); and Akoto and Afful (2022) have investigated the tri-PP (*I*, *We*, and *You*) in academic lectures from a cross discipline approach (Humanities, Natural Sciences and Social Sciences). Akoto (2020) investigated individualities in the referent of the tri-PP and revealed that the referents of *I*, *We*, and *You* were either metadiscursive or non-metadiscursive. Whereas Akoto et al. (2021) explored the variation in the discourse referents of *I*, *We*, and *You* from a macroscopic approach (metadiscursive and non-metadiscursive) revealing that *I* was used to designate practitioners especially in Natural Sciences and Social Sciences only; and the non-metadiscursive *I* referent is anthropocentric (that is, human-related). The *We* referent in HS and SS are considered to be more anthropocentric and society-centred (countries and continents, that is, Africa (ns) and Ghana (ians)) as compared to the NS. Finally, the *you*-referent was used relative to time (present, past and future). The retrospective use of *you* designated the student's pre-tertiary status, current and prospective (for example, current students when they become graduates). Also, from a corpus-based approach, Akoto et al. (2021) found that there was a higher pronominal density in (NS) lecture than that of HS and SS, and that indicated that there was more interactivity in NS lectures as compared to the other two disciplines (HS and SS). Finally, Akoto and Afful (2022) examined the commonalities in the discourse reference of *I*, *we*, and *you* and revealed three referents—lecturer, students and lecturer + students were common to the tri-PP investigated and these pronouns were common to all the disciplinary domains.

The *I* and *we*-lecturer referents projected lecturers' desire to project their independent selves in enhancing authorial visibility in the classroom discourse and the *you*- lecturer referent was employed to depersonalised stance. While the *I* and *we*- student referents showed rhetorical transfer of status of novices to the position of high power.

Finally, from the judiciary discourse domain, aspects of interpersonal features have equally gained prominence in the judicial set up such as courtroom discourse, legal documents and legal news. Dong (2013) presented modality analysis of utterances between the lawyer and the witness in the courtroom. The study, applying the interpersonal metaphor theory to cross examinations, evaluated the relationship between the types of orientations and values of modality used in the court and the chances of powerful linguistic position in gaining the trust of the jury. Four samples of recorded courtroom examinations were used to explore metaphorical and non-metaphorical modality systems. The result revealed that objective and high value modality characterised the utterances of the lawyers as against subjective and low value of modality of the witness's utterances. The subjective modalities are more personal and less powerful in position, and not persuasive as compared to objective modalities which are impersonal, powerful and persuasive.

A similar study was conducted by Ramadhani, Amalia, Indrayani, and Mahdi (2019) in the legal setting. The study analysed modality systems in cross-examination/questioning in the courtroom, and specifically focused on the lawyer's linguistic power in examining facts provided by the witness. Adopting a qualitative method with descriptive approach, interpersonal grammatical metaphors in the utterances were interrogated, based on different

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types of orientations and values of modality to show power and ability to convince the jury. Three samples were used in this study. The findings showed higher values and more medium value of modality system dominated the lawyer's utterances making the arguments more objective. Whilst medium and low modality systems characterised the witness's utterances projecting subjectivity in position in responding to cross examination questions. The lawyer's choice of modality system indicated linguistic power by applying more high value of modality system.

On the contrary, Bashir, Yunus and Al-Jarrah (2018) investigated hedging in two primary modal verbs in legal discourse, from a pragmatic perspective. The corpus-based study focused on the uses and functions of modal 'will' and 'shall' in legal discourse in Nigerian context aiming at their pragmatic functions as hedges. Specifically, the study sought to examine how hedges were used in the legal texts to indicate precision and uncertainty. The results showed that modal 'will' dominated the modal 'shall' in the corpus. The different semantic and pragmatic function of 'will' and 'shall' as hedges included conveying a truth value of a proposition (epistemic meanings) such as politeness, obligation, precision, duty, intention, and permission. These two modal verbs are usually used by legal practitioners (lawyers) in the courtroom to achieve precision in arguments in pursuant of persuasion and to establish commitment to the truth value of their propositions.

Also, Sinar, Zein, Nurlela and Yusuf (2020) took a different systemic approach to the analysis of courtroom discourse. This study, unlike Ramadhani et al. (2019) and Dong (2013), focused on experiential meaning in forensic courtroom discourse. Adopting a descriptive qualitative method on

the content of conversation between the jury, witness and public prosecutors in a Medan-Indonesia courtroom, it revealed that material process dominated the discourse followed by verbal, mental and relational meanings relatively. However, in 2020, Sinar et al. investigated same courtroom discourse but this time the attention was paid to interpersonal meaning. In this study, an attempt was made to discover the types of speech, Mood, and Move in the courtroom. The focus was to reveal the speech function, the Mood and Move analysis as a feature of roles exchanged between the jury, witness, and public prosecutor in demanding and giving information in the courtroom. The findings revealed (RSQ) Response Statement to Question as a dominant speech function, with dominant declarative Mood and K2^ K1 move pattern. This reveals that in the courtroom discourse, there is a high demand for information; hence, the high existence of Q and RSQ which are realised in interrogative and declarative Mood patterns. Also, from a corpus-based approach, El-Faharaty and Elewa (2020) concluded on their investigation of deontic modality of obligation and prohibition in two constitutions (Arabic and English) translated and non-translated, that the translation of deontic modals of obligation and prohibitions from Arabic to English was influenced by the sources of lexical variations such as lexical verbs, adjectives, nouns, prepositions, particles and phrasemes. In the case of the deontic modal obligation, 'must' translated into English as 'shall' , and 'must' were used to denote forcible procedural prohibition and general abstract obligation.

Sinar, Zein and Nurlela (2020) is distinct from Sinar, Zein, Nurlela and Yusuf (2020) in terms of approach and method to the study of courtroom discourse. Though both studies used courtroom discourses, Sinar, Zein and

Nurlela used both systemic functional theory and move (genre) analysis, Sinar et al. adopted systemic approach to explore experiential meanings in courtroom discourses. On the contrary, Ahialey (2011) investigated linguistic structures inherent in counsels' elicitation strategies and defendants/witnesses' response aiding in trial cross examination in courtroom. Using the theory of ideology, Grice's Cooperative Principle and Fairclough's three dimensional model, it revealed that power imbalance in the courtroom is promoted during cross examination through the use of complex sentences and coercive question types in some Ghanaian courts. On the other hand, Logogye (2016) concluded that questions asked by lawyers in court deviated from the Wh-question type in the Ghanaian law courts , and that the different types of questions asked are based on syntactic structures such as leading, confirmatory, demonstrative imperative and Wh-question.

Hlioui (2020) examined personal pronouns in two legal documents. Adopting SFL and Cognitive Linguistics approaches, the study focused on experiential metafunction to determine different participants' roles assigned by the speaker with the use of personal pronouns whilst interpersonal metafunction of SFL was used to find out the social status of speakers. The Cognitive Linguistics perspective, on the other hand, was used to explore personal pronouns as a tool to exert power. In its distinctiveness, the study used two genres— Life Insurance Contract and Court Hearing Transcripts— to discover the variation that each genre presented in terms of the distribution of personal pronouns. It concluded that the choice of certain personal pronouns and of certain participant roles assigned to them is genre specific and the genre of the corpus dictates preferences of reference density, processes and

participant roles. Also, the power dynamics that existed between participants of each genre in the court hearings affected the choice of personal pronouns and the roles assigned to them.

In 2021, Zhang compared personal pronouns, their distribution and rhetorical significance in English and Chinese legal news reports. It revealed that the personal pronouns in both English and Chinese have different referential systems that influence their performance slightly in the data sets. The study showed that the discourse and communicative purpose restrict the use of pronouns, and the referential characteristics also affect the distribution and frequency in the texts. Also, the personal pronouns were mainly used for anaphora references in terms of function and their semantic meanings, and references depended on their antecedents. Further, the rhetorical significance of the personal pronouns existed in its referential functions by making back reference to the antecedents, which semantically avoid repetition of previously used nouns.

To sum up, the review sought to identify the relative differences and similarities that exist among the selected institutional discourses and the current study on interpersonality in diplomatic context. The review has similarities with the current study in relation to the investigations on interpersonal language features such as modality (Dong, 2013; Ramadhani et al, 2019); mood (Sinar et al., 2020); personal pronouns (Akoto et al., 2021); address terms (Afful, 2006; Afful, 2007). However, most of these studies within the legal and academic settings employed different theoretical approaches into the exploration of interpersonality. For instance, Bashir, Yunus and Al-Jarrah (2018) explored modality from a pragmatic perspective,

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where hedging with modal verbs became the focus. Afful (2006), Afful (2007), Afful (2010) and Awoonor-Aziaku (2021) investigated address terms/forms from a sociolinguistic approach. Also, most of these studies paid attention to aspects of interpersonality from different discourse community (religion, academia and the judiciary), which makes the present study stand out since it focused on interpersonality within the diplomatic set up.

Chapter Summary

This chapter has reviewed literature relevant to the current study. First, the concepts such as 'diplomacy', 'diplomatic language' and 'political language' [discourse in focus] were discussed. Thereafter, Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL), a linguistic theory that underpins the present study, was reviewed. Particular attention was paid to the interpersonal metafunctional systems— Mood, modality and polarity, and pronominals and vocative address systems. Further, previous studies on institutional discourses such as   political, apolitical, and other institutional discourses such as legal, academic, and religious were reviewed to help identify the gap in the literature.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

In the previous chapters, I provided the background to the study and reviewed relevant literature that indicates how the present study fits into previous research on the subject under study. In Chapter Three, I present the methodological procedures I undertook in conducting the research. Important to this chapter are the research design, data description and collection procedures, method of sampling, and method of analysis. Reliability, validity, ethics and challenges encountered were equally given attention. I finally, concluded with a chapter summary.

Research Design

This study is largely a qualitative research which is concerned with the understanding of human beings' experiences in an interpretive way (Jackson II, Drummond & Camara, 2007). Qualitative research is "an approach for exploring and understanding the meaning individuals or groups ascribe to a social or human problem" (Creswell & Creswell, 2018, p. 51). In other words, qualitative research is "especially effective in obtaining culturally specific information about the values, opinions, behaviours and social contexts of particular populations" (Mack, MacQueen, Guest & Namey, 2005, p. 1). Due to the descriptive and interpretative nature of the current study, I chose the qualitative research as the suitable design. In adopting this research design, I considered and accepted Creswell and Creswell's (2018) postulation that qualitative approach mostly adopts the constructivist worldview, ethnographic design and the observation of behaviour.

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Qualitative data take the form of words (spoken or written) and visual images (observed or creatively) produced. They are associated primarily with strategies of research such as case studies, grounded theory, ethnography and phenomenology: narrative, action theory, historical theory and content analysis (Denscombe, 2010; Hancock, Ockleford & Windridge, 2009); and with research methods such as interviews, documents, and observation. The present study is typically a case study since it investigates an individual in a typical natural language situation to obtain an in-depth knowledge and information. According to Denscombe (2010), typical of case studies is its focus on just one instance of the phenomenon that is being investigated and the use of the case study approach is aligned with qualitative research far more than it is with the quantitative research. My research is a typical case study which is particularly interested in investigating the language characteristics of a career diplomat, (Kofi Annan) during his entry and exit at the UN.

The present study further employs content analysis as a qualitative research approach for the analysis. 'Content analysis' refers to a technique rooted in qualitative approaches (Hancock, Ockleford & Windridge, 2009; Hseih & Shannon, 2005); and this approach is particularly suitable when analysing documents (for example, newspaper texts, responses to open-ended questions). According to Krippendorff (2004), content analysis is "a research technique for making replicable and valid inferences from texts (or other meaningful matter) to the context of their use" (Krippendorf, 2004, p.18). Though qualitative content analysis is widely noted as an approach or technique in qualitative design, some scholars (Elo & Kyngas, 2007;

Krippendorff, 2004) intimate that content analysis as a method may be used with either qualitative or quantitative.

In the present study, I adopted Hseih and Shannon's (2005) directed and summative approaches to content analysis, and Mayring's (2014) summary, explication and structuring approaches of qualitative content analysis for the following reasons. Firstly, characteristic to this present study is its nature of data, which is written (scripted speech/text) to be spoken, which has the tendency to reveal the interpersonal potentiality of making meaning. The directed approach was deemed appropriate because it is a theory-based study which focuses on exploring existing literature to make valid claims. For instance, the directed approach helps me to derive my research questions based on the SFL language theory, specifically the interpersonal metafunctional theory. Secondly, with the directed approach, I derive the variables for the study from the interpersonal theory. Also, the directed approach helps me in the answering of my research questions, and the investigations were conducted and guided in that regard. Thirdly, the summative, structuring and explication qualitative content analysis were adopted to help the interpretative process to the data sets. I used these approaches to define the context for my data sets by equally identifying contextual meanings from the texts. In other words, for the present study to make its investigation possible and reliable, directed, explication, structuring, and summative approaches were deemed appropriate since these approaches provided the context for the texts, as guided by theory (SFL). Interpretations were basically done in this qualitative sense.

To sum up, it is appropriate for the current study, which is qualitative in nature, to employ qualitative content based analytical techniques or tools — summary, explication and structuring (Mayring, 2014), and directed and summative approaches (Hseih & Shannon, 2005)— in investigating the interpersonal metafunction of Kofi Annan's speeches. The content-based analysis was employed to unravel the linguistic resources in the speeches and further, summary, explication and structuring were co-currently used in analysing the data sets based on the research questions.

Data Source and Data Description

The source of data for this study was mostly collected from the United Nations' (UNs') website. The data sets were selected, using the purposive sampling method.

In this study, I selected two key speeches of Kofi Annan as the data sets. Both speeches were delivered at the UN General Assembly. The entry speech was the first speech he delivered when he was elected as the UN Secretary-General in 1997 and the second speech was the exit speech he delivered when he ended his tenure in office in 2007. In terms of length, both speeches contained four thousand, one hundred and forty words (4,140); the entry speech contained two thousand, and forty-nine words (2,049) and the exit speech was made up of two thousand and ninety-one words (2,091). This data set was sampled purposively, using three main criteria: the purpose and nature of my study, availability of the data sets electronically and the credibility of data source.

The first criterion I considered is the purpose and nature of the study. As a typical case study, the purpose is to identify a feature peculiar to an

individual case in my research; hence, this focus propels the kind of data sets relevant to the study. For instance, my purpose was to investigate the language of diplomacy; hence, the typical case would be to identify a relevant character within the diplomatic community and use him/her as a case study. Also, the choice of the data sets reflects the purpose of my study, considering the issue of saturation point, where a particular feature in the research is likely to replicate itself over and over again.

The second criterion has to do with the availability of data electronically. Availability of data is very important to every researcher, and in my case, I considered the accessibility of the data sets electronically. Third, the credibility of the data source became a criterion I took into consideration. For instance, I deemed the UN website as a credible source to consult for data, for my study.

Method of Data Analysis

This subsection discusses the procedure of analysis. In this subsection, I adopted the three-step approach of content analysis to my data sets: summary, explication and structuring of interpersonal features in the data sets. Before the analysis, I labelled the two key speeches: the entry speech was labelled as EnS and the exit speech was labelled as ExS. EnS is a code for Entry Speech whilst ExS is a code for the Exit Speech.

Identifying and counting of interpersonal features in the data sets

After labelling or coding the speeches, I identified and counted the interpersonal features co-currently. At this stage, Fontaine's (2013) three-strand analysis of the English Clause became the appropriate choice.

The three-strand analysis provides a ten-step guideline for analysing the clause. The guidelines for analysing the clause are in respect to each metafunction (strand of meaning), which offer a consistent and systemic approach to clausal analysis. It must be mentioned that steps five (5) through to step eight (8) were applicable to the present study. For instance, steps 5 and 6 required the identification of the Finite and the Subject in the speech situation or texts. In SFL theory, the Subject and Finite are key to clausal analysis (Halliday, 2004; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014). The clause became the unit of analysis. Though clause complex is acknowledged in SFL, I considered all clauses as one focusing on the Subject and Finite ordering. In particular, Step 7 looks at the determination of the Mood of the clause which stresses the Subject and Finite order. It should be noted that non-finite clauses were not considered since they do not express Mood choice. Also, any minor clauses or other units without a Mood element were not analysed in this step.

Analysing the data sets with respect to the first research question

The identification of Subject and Finite ordering was followed in order to determine the Mood choices in the data sets. As I had already stated, Fontaine (2013), Halliday (2004), and Halliday and Matthiessen (2014) became useful. Steps 5 and 6 required identification of Subject and Finite and in SFL theory, the Subject and the Finite ordering realises the Mood as Indicative. With the Indicative, the Mood can be either Declarative or Interrogative. Declarative Mood will be realised with the Subject followed by the Finite; whereas the Finite before Subject realises the Mood as Interrogative. Following this Subject and Finite ordering pattern, I counted all the Declarative and Interrogative Mood choices in the data sets. For instance,

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the following Figures present how Mood choices were identified and counted in EnS and ExS:

	Others	Subject	Finite	Others
1.	As	1	Speak	here to United Nations staff around the world
2		My feelings	Are	both of humility and pride.
3		I	am humbled	by the enormous task ahead of me, by the daunting responsibilities that…
4	But	I	(also) feel	greatly honoured.
5	For	We	Are	above all a team.
		Mood		**Residue**

Figure 4: A Systemic View of Declarative Mood in EnS

	Others	Subject	Finite	Others
1.	When	I	(first) spoke	to you from this podium
2		it	Seemed	to me that humanity…
3		One	Was	to ensure that globalization…
4		Another	was	to heal the disorder of the post-cold-war world,…
5	And	the third	Was	to protect the rights and dignity of individuals, particularly women…
		Mood		**Residue**

Figure 5: A Systemic View of Declarative Mood in ExS

The two Figures (4 & 5) present a systemic view of Declarative Mood in the data sets focusing on the clause (Subject + Finite). The Mood determined by Subject and Finite order is Declarative, as exemplified in the Figures above.

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Analysing the data sets with respect to the second research question

The identification of Finite in Step 6 of Fontaine (2013) helped me to identify the modality and polarity choices in the data sets. The Finite was used to determine the state of modal verbs that are used to express modality. I used Step 8 to identify all markers of modality and polarity. Accordingly, in this Step, I paid attention to identification of all markers of modality and polarity. In this regard, I identified all markers of modality and polarity and their finiteness. I identified all the modal verbs used in the data sets, counted them, and categorised them into types either as modalization or modulation, especially in the context of the data sets. Thompson (2014) was used to determine the values of modality, either as low, median or high, an indication of the level of commitment to the truth value of a proposition or proposal. At this stage, since same modal verbs could be used as either modalization or modulation, context became a relevant resource to make the distinctions. For instance, *will* and *would* were used as either modulation or modalization in Extracts 1 and 2 in EnS and ExS respectively:

> **Extract 1**
> This means that we *will* need to reform. (Modulation)
> **Extract 2**
> One was to ensure that globalization *would* benefit the human race as a whole, not only its fortunate members. (Modalization)

For polarity systems, I considered the positive or negative value assigned to a given proposition by the speaker. Here, all negative markers such as *never*, *not*, and *no more* were considered as marks of polarity, indicating the speaker's commitment level just as a mark of modality. For example in

Extracts 3 and 4, the speaker demonstrated the value of the given propositions with polarity choices:

Extract 3

I am humbled by the enormous task ahead of me, by the daunting responsibilities that the Secretary-General is called upon my shoulder. But I also feel greatly honoured. *Not* only personally, but most of all as a fellow member of the Secretariat for so many years— as one of you. [EnS]

Extract 4

One was to ensure that globalization would benefit the human race as a whole, *not* only its more fortunate members. [ExS]

These Extracts demonstrate the use of negative markers to show polarity and modality. Polarity marks the speaker's level of commitment or otherwise to the truth value of a proposition, which is equally a show for modality.

Analysing the data sets with respect to the third research question

The third research question sought to investigate personal pronouns and vocative address choices in the data. Step 5 of Fontaine's (2013) identification of the Subject in the clause, as I had stated earlier, became relevant. At this point, all the personal pronouns and vocative address were identified and counted in both data sets; that is, all personal pronouns and their types/cases, and vocatives were considered. I had to consider all pronouns in the subjective form; however, attention was also given to the objective function of the personal pronouns. In this sense, both the subjective and objective forms of personal pronouns and their respective types/cases in singular and plural forms were considered. In the analysis, I considered the referents of the personal pronouns and their use in the diplomatic data sets. The reason is that these pronouns are used as a distinguishing feature between

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speaker-listener roles in a speech event. For instance, the first persons *I* and its variants *me*, and *my* clearly identify with the speaker and the giver of information whereas the second persons *you* and its variants identify the listener(s) or the receiver(s)/addressee(s) of the information, in the following Extracts:

> **Extract 5**
>
> As *I* speak here today to United Nations staff around the world, *my* feelings are both of humility and of pride [EnS]
>
> **Extract 6**
>
> When I first spoke to *you* from this podium, in 1997... [ExS]

These two Extracts show the speaker's use of first person singular to refer to himself in the speech situation and the second person to refer to the listeners (in this case, audience present).

For the vocatives, they were seen as more passive than active. In the context of the study, the vocatives were passive subjects outside the clause structure. This means that the vocatives were not integrated into the clause. I counted all the vocatives in the data sets and considered their relevance as interpersonal feature in the diplomatic discourse. The order of arrangement of the vocatives was considered as an important feature for the determination of relevance or importance in the contexts, as seen below:

> **Extract 7**
>
> Friends and colleagues [EnS]
>
> **Extract 8**
>
> Madam President,
>
> Excellencies,
>
> Ladies and Gentlemen, [ExS]

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These vocatives in the data sets show the speaker's sense of cordiality and respect for protocol in the diplomatic context. These addresses were used as a form of greeting and to demonstrate order of importance in terms of rank (especially in Extract 8).

Validity and Reliability

To ensure validity and reliability, I undertook some steps. Most importantly, I consulted and relied on the views of experts in the field of SFL any time I encountered challenges. I engaged one Senior Research Fellow at the Department of English, University of Cape Coast and two MPhil students who had completed their programme in English Language. The expert in SFL provided me with in-depth knowledge on interpersonality. I further engaged the MPhil students by explaining the concepts of interpersonality and diplomacy to them and how I carried out my analysis. I then provided them with the raw data for them to assess and provide me with their degree of agreement with regard to my analysis. In both cases, their degree of agreement was rated 85 % and 90% respectively. This shows my inter-rater agreement with my analysis, which on average is high.

Problems Encountered and Strategies Adopted

In conducting this research, I encountered two main challenges which were resolved. The first challenge I encountered was distinguishing between mood with small 'm' and MOOD with a capital 'M'. This challenge was resolved with Halliday (2014) who exemplifies MOOD as speech functions (statement/declarative, question/interrogative, command or order/imperative) whereas mood is considered as Subject and Finite within the clause. In the context of this study, both options became eminent since Subject and Finite

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ordering (mood) helps to determine MOOD type as speech functions, as Butt et al (2003) posit that the Subject and Finite are a grammatical sign of an exchange and are the two grammatical features that carry the burden of interpersonal meaning. The identification of the Subject which usually consists of the nominal group (nouns, noun phrases, pronouns/pronominals) informed my analysis of the choice of pronouns and vocatives used in the data sets whereas the Finite feature informed my modality and polarity analysis. The two features of the clause— Subject and Finite— informed my analysis of Mood choices.

Secondly, making demarcations among sentential/clausal analysis constituted a challenge. However, Fontaine's (2013) three-strand analysis of the English Clause helped me to resolve this problem. The demarcation for clausal analysis is made clear with boundaries clearly spelt out. For him, grammatical analysis is applied to individual clauses; it constituted the second stage or phase in the analysis, following on from the initial analysis of the text in terms of isolating the clauses. The segmentation stage involves identifying possible clauses, resorting to any ellipsed items, identifying all verb groups and recognising any embedded clauses. The ten steps in the grammatical analysis, as presented in Fontaine's three –strand analysis of the English Clause, assume that initial segmentation stage. In that vein, clauses or sentences were segmented by first identifying the Subject and Finite which were used as the bases for my analysis.

Chapter Summary

This chapter generally outlined the methodological and analytical procedures used in conducting the study. In the first place, the chapter

discussed the research design. The source of data and sampling techniques and data description were also highlighted. In this regard, the study used two key speeches Kofi Annan delivered during his entry and exit as the UN Secretary-General. The method of analysis was discussed in the chapter. Also, the problems encountered and strategies to surmount them were provided, and validity and reliability were discussed. Finally, the chapter was concluded with a summary.

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CHAPTER FOUR

ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

Introduction

In the previous chapter, I presented the methodological procedures used in conducting the research. In Chapter Four, I present the analysis of the data, together with the discussion of the findings, which were guided by three research questions. The aim of this study was to find out interpersonality in the speeches of Kofi Annan. In this regard, the chapter pays attention to Mood, modality and polarity, personal pronoun and vocative address choices as interpersonal devices used in his entry and exit speeches as UN Secretary-General.

Interpersonal Language Devices in Kofi Annan's Speeches

This first section presents the analysis and discussion based on the first research question, which seeks to investigate Mood choices in both the entry and exit speeches— that is, EnS and ExS. Mood, in this context, refers to the speech functions used in any speech or communication event. By speech functions, the specification concerns whether the speaker is seeking information (interrogative), giving information (declarative), giving an order or giving an offer (imperative). The study recorded Indicative Mood choices and Table 1 shows the distribution of the Mood choices in both EnS and ExS:

Table 1: Distribution of Mood Choices in the Data Sets

MOOD CHOICE	Entry Speech (EnS)	Exit Speech (ExS)	Total Frequency	Percentage (%)
Declarative	106	95	201	98.5%
Interrogative	1	2	3	1.5%
TOTAL	107	97	204	100%

As shown in Table 1, the Mood choices used were within the category of Indicative, and the choices were made between Declarative and Interrogative. Notably, the frequency of occurrence indicated Declarative Mood as the highest choice in both data sets. In EnS, 106 Declarative Mood choices were recorded whereas 95 Declarative Mood choices occurred in ExS. This represented 98.5% of the total Declarative Mood choices used in both speeches, with the remaining 1.5 % represented by Interrogative Mood in both speeches. This result shares a similar view with previous studies on Mood in political and other institutional discourses (legal, academic and religious) such as those of Chefor (2019); Chen and Shou (2018); Koussouhon and Dossoumou (2015), and Ye (2010) which observed the dominance of Declarative Mood choice as against other Mood choices in public speeches.

Table 1 has provided an overview of Mood choices in both EnS and ExS. The focus of this distribution is to provide a guide into a detailed analysis and discussion of Mood choices in the data. In the subsequent section, therefore, I provide a detailed discussion of Mood choices, citing instances from the data sets.

Indicative System

Indicative system is made up of Declarative and Interrogative Mood choices. In this section, I provide a discussion on these two Mood choices in the data sets.

Declarative Mood

The Declarative Mood dominated the two key speeches delivered by Kofi Annan in his entry and exit at the UN. In these speeches, the Declarative Mood choices gave information, made assertions or personal convictions and

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even called on target audience to get involved in a proposed activity or agenda. The choice of Declarative Mood structures by the speaker rendered /accorded him the informant status while the audience became the receptors or listeners of the information. In all the speech situations, the speaker's commitment to propositions and the acknowledgement of responsibilities as well as assigning speech roles to the target audience were made explicit through the Declarative Mood choices. As part of the study's focus to indicate balance in the analysis and discussion, seven extracts were selected purposefully to show the variations in the choices of Declaratives from simple clauses to clause complexes. The following are instances of Declarative Mood in both speeches; seven instances each were selected as reflections of different sentence/clause types:

Extract 11

I am humbled by the enormous task ahead of me, by the daunting responsibilities that the Secretary-General is called upon to shoulder. [EnS]

Extract 12

But I also feel greatly honoured. Not only personally but, most of all, as a fellow member of the Secretariat for so many years— as one of you. [EnS]

Extract 13

The selection of a career staff member for the position of Secretary-General carries with it a recognition of all of you, the staff of the Organization. [EnS]

Extract 14

For we are above all a team. [EnS]

Extract 15

I do not think anyone who achieves success in the Secretariat can rightfully claim that he or she has done it alone. [EnS]

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Extract 16

I have always believed that success is possible only when it is built on the support and cooperation of others. [EnS]

Extract 17

I once read that the worst thing that can happen to you in your career is to get to the top of the ladder only to find that it has been placed against the wrong wall. [EnS]

Extracts 11 to 17 are representations of the speaker's choice of Declarative Mood in EnS. In these choices the speaker made, it can be noted that they were from simple, compound to complex Declarative choices. For example, whereas Extracts 13 and 14 are simple; 11, 12, 15, 16 and 17 are complex structures. These Extracts demonstrate variations in the speaker's choice of sentences/clauses. The next set of Extracts are from ExS:

Extract 18

When I first spoke to you from this podium, in 1997, it seemed to me that humanity faced three great challenges. [ExS]

Extract 19

One was to ensure that globalization would benefit the human race as a whole, not only its more fortune members. [ExS]

Extract 20

Another was to heal the disorder of the post-cold-war world, replacing it with a genuinely new world order of peace and freedom, as envisaged in our Charter. [ExS]

Extract 21

And the third was to protect the rights and dignity of individuals, particularly women, which were so widely trampled underfoot. [ExS]

Extract 22

As the second African to serve as Secretary-General, I felt that all three of these challenges— the security challenge; the development challenge; the challenge of human rights and the rule of law— concerned me directly. [ExS]

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Extract 23

And many of Africa's people felt they were unjustly condemned to be exploited and oppressed, generation after generation, since colonial rule had been replaced by an inequitable economic order on the global level, and sometimes by corrupt rulers and warlords at the local level. [ExS]

Extract 24

Much has been achieved, but events have also presented us with new challenges— or rather, have given the old ones new form, or a sharper bite. [ExS]

Extracts 18-24 are instances of Declarative Mood choices in ExS. They indicate choices in Mood from simple, compound to complex sentences/clauses choices. For instance, Extracts 18 presents a Declarative in a complex structure whereas Extracts 19, 20, 21 and 22 are in simple structures; Extract 24 is a compounded structure; however, Extract 23 is a compound-complex structure. In Systemic Functional Linguistics, complex and compound, compound-complex structures are considered as clause complexes whereas simple structures are simply simple clauses. From all these instances of Declarative Mood choices (Extracts 18 to 24), the speaker's intentions, views, and opinions about issues were vividly expressed and communicated in these choices and choices were made from simple clauses to clause complexes.

For easy appreciation of these Extracts in Declarative Mood choices, I present a systemic view of these Extracts in figures. Figure 6 presents a clausal analytical view, a systemic approach in perceiving and appreciating Declarative Mood choices. The Figures (6 &7) indicate how Declarative Mood choices were used in both EnS and ExS:

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	Others	Subject	Finite	Others
1.	As	1	Speak	here to United Nations staff around the world
2		My feelings	Are	both of humility and pride.
3		I	am humbled	by the enormous task ahead of me, by the daunting responsibilities that…
4	But	I	(also) feel	greatly honoured.
5	For	We	Are	above all a team.
6		I	do not think	…
7		Anyone who	Achieves	success in the Secretariat ..
8		I	have (always) believed	that success.
9		We	have worked	together successfully for many years
10.	Today ,	I	am counting	on your continued support…
		Mood		**Residue**

Figure 6: A Systemic View of Declarative Mood in EnS

	Others	Subject	Finite	Others
1.	When	I	(first) spoke	to you from this podium
2		it	Seemed	to me that humanity…
3		One	Was	to ensure that globalization…
4		Another	was	to heal the disorder of the post-cold-war world,…
5	And	the third	Was	to protect the rights and dignity of individuals, particularly women…
6	As the second African to serve as Secretary-General	I	Felt	that all three of these challenges…
7		Africa	Was	in great danger of being excluded from the benefits of globalization…
8	And	many of Africa's people	Felt	
9		They	Were	unjustly condemned to be exploited and oppressed..
10.	In the decade since then,	many people	have	been struggling to confront these three global challenges.
		Mood		**Residue**

Figure 7: A Systemic View of Declarative Mood in ExS

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From these two Figures (6 & 7), it can be noted that the Subject component of the Declarative Mood choice is made up of nouns, pronouns, and noun phrases. In Figure 6, first person pronouns *I*, and *We* (singular and plural), and noun phrases like *my feelings*, *anyone who* and in Figure 7, similar first person personal pronouns such as *I*, *It*, *They* and nouns like *Africa*; nominals like *many people*, *many of Africa's people* are used as the subjects in the Declarative Mood; whereas the Finiteness which is realised by the verbal element had choices such as s*peak*, *are*, *am humbled*, *do not think*, *have always believed*, *have worked*, and *am coming* in EnS are formed to indicate tense and aspect. In ExS, verbs like *spoke*, *seemed*, *was*, *felt*, *were*, *have been struggling* were used accordingly.

In both speeches, the choices of verbs indicated tenses in (present and past) and aspect (progressive and perfective). However, in EnS, verbs like *speak*, *are*, *do not think*, indicated present tense— present action, contrary to verbs like *spoke*, *seemed*, *was*, *felt* in ExS which indicate past tense; an indication of past act/event. The perfective which shows the completion of an act were indicated with choices like *have always believed*, *have worked*, in EnS and *have been struggling* in ExS. On the other hand, *am coming* in EnS is in the progressive aspect, a realisation of a continuous act. The finite situations in both speeches indicated the relevance of time and how events unfolded from the speaker's sense of perception. Whilst in the Entry Speech (EnS), the present tense and present progressive aspect dominated—an indication of the currency of events and an intended or anticipated plans to be carried out in the future— in the Exit Speech (ExS), past tense, and the perfective aspect are

used to indicate completion of events, significantly signalling the end of his tenure in office.

To sum up, the Subject and Finite ordering makes the mood Declarative. As I have already established, Declarative Mood realises the clause as a statement and in an interpersonal exchange, Declaratives are propositions (Butt et al., 2003; Halliday, 1994; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014). As propositions, Declaratives usually provide information rather than demand information. The two key speeches of Kofi Annan were information-based texts aimed at achieving a diplomatic cause. Precisely, the speeches projected the diplomatic agenda by providing information relevant to that effect. Whilst in EnS, the message was clearly that of appreciation for being given the diplomatic mandate to lead; it further sought the recognition and acknowledgement of team-spirit to make the UN agenda possible.

In ExS, on the other hand, a similar appreciation was shown to the UN and the world for the opportunity to lead the UN for a ten-year period. Challenges facing the world at the time were enumerated as a reminder to the UN of its core mandate to fulfil, in order to make the world a better place. These chunks of information were better expressed in the Declarative Mood choices. This is in accordance with political, apolitical and other institutional (academic, religious and legal) discourse studies such as Chefor (2019), Chen and Shuo (2018), Sinar et al. (2020), Yang (2017) and Ye (2010). Chen and Shuo showed that political speeches are information based hence the dominant use of Declaratives. A similar view is expressed in Yang, which revealed that the dominant use of Declarative Mood and other interpersonal features like modality, personal pronouns help listener/reader understanding and their

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evaluation of the presidential inaugural speeches. Ye, on the other, concluded that the frequent use of Declarative Mood in presidential victory speeches is to express appreciation and usually those speeches are informative. Also, Sinar, Zein, and Nurlela revealed the dominant use of Declaratives in courtroom discourse for the purposes of high demand for information. In effect, Declarative Mood choices are frequently used in political, sermonic, academic and courtroom speeches to achieve specific purposes such as inform, persuade, argue and entice the audience within the discourse space. However, the difference in the choice of Declarative Mood in the diplomatic space is mostly to inform and promote diplomatic agenda.

Interrogative Mood

In this study, 204 Indicative forms were employed in both speeches; out of which, two hundred and one (201) were in Declarative Mood and three (3) in Interrogative Mood. The study recorded two (2) Interrogatives for EnS and only one (1) Interrogative in ExS. This represented 1.5 % out of the total Indicative system network. The subsequent Extracts are Interrogative Mood choices used in the data sets:

Extract 25

Why should we be concerned? [EnS]

Extract 26

After your experience with the United Nations, if you could go back in time, would you join it again? [EnS]

Extract 27

Are we any more secure against the second challenge— the ravages of war? [ExS]

Extracts 25 and 26 are instances of Interrogative Mood choices in EnS and as indicated in the Frequency Table 1 above, there were only three Interrogatives

in the data sets. Extract 27 indicates the only Interrogative choice in ExS. Whereas in Extract 25 the Interrogative is a typical WH- type; Extracts 26 and 27 are cases of Yes/No type of Interrogatives.

These Extracts are represented systemically in Figures 8 and 9 below:

	Others	WH-Element	Finite	Subject	Other
25	-	Why	Should	we	be concerned ?
26	After you experience with the United Nations, if you should go back in time	-	Would	you	join it again?
			Mood	**Residue**	

Figure 8: A Systemic View of the Interrogative Mood in EnS

	Others	WH-Element	Finite	Subject	Other
27	-	-	Are	We	anymore secure against the second challenge— the ravages of war?
			Mood	**Residue**	

Figure 9: A Systemic View of the Interrogative Mood in ExS

Figures 8 and 9 present the systemic view of the Interrogative Mood in both EnS and ExS. This is intended to represent the clausal analysis of the Interrogative Mood choices. The Finite followed by Subject ordering apparently became the determinant of this Mood type. The ordering, in which WH- element acts as the Subject is realised as WH- Interrogative whilst the ordering (Finite followed by Subject) without WH- element renders it 'Yes/No' Interrogative.

The Interrogative in Extract 25 is a typical WH- Interrogative (question) whereas Extracts 26 and 27 are typical case of Yes/No Interrogative (question). In Extract 25, the speaker made the audience understand that the question was from a survey and that the response to this survey question was "An overwhelming majority of those surveyed answered yes, they would". This direct response confirmed the Interrogative type from the text. Nonetheless, in Extract 27, the Interrogative though demanded a *yes* or *no* as a response, it rather was posed to the audience as a reflective kind of question which required little or no answer from them (target audience). There was a similar effect to the question in Extract 26 and both can be considered to have rhetorical effects than just a demand for direct responses from the audience. This style of choice allowed the speaker to get the listeners involved in the speech event, in that, the questions did not only call for their attentions but also gave them the opportunity to reflect on what was said. Though little or no direct answer is required from the audience, these questions call for brain-work to be done by them (audience), an important tool in interpersonal event. However, in sermonic discourse, Taiwo (2005) intimated that interrogation has illocutionary functions of eliciting both verbal and non-verbal responses. This claim is contrary to diplomatic discourse where the Interrogatives basically have non-verbal functions.

Also, in courtroom discourses, especially cross-examination of witnesses/defendants by counsels, Interrogative Mood is used to elicit responses (Ahialey, 2011; Logogye, 2016); the effect which is distinct from diplomatic speeches as the present study has established. For instance, Ahialey (2011) revealed that the interrogative strategies of counsels

(experts/professionals) promote power imbalance in the courtroom during cross-examination through the use of embedded complex and coercive question types. Also, the general observation is that witnesses who are less strong and ill-coached by their counsels tend to get intimidated by the nature of cross-examination questions (Logogye, 2016). This is in sharp contrast with the present study where Interrogative Mood was basically used for rhetorical purposes.

To sum up, the Declarative and Interrogative Mood choices are used in both speeches. These Mood choices are within the Indicative system network. The Indicative systems allow information to be exchanged. The study affirmed from the analysis of Mood that the Declarative Mood choice which dominated the study sought to disseminate information to the audience, which agrees with political, apolitical and other institutional discourse studies such as Butt et al. (2003), Chefor (2019), Chen and Shuo (2018), Koussouhon and Dossoumou (2015) and Ye (2010). On the other hand, Interrogatives generally seek information, but in this study, the purpose of the Interrogatives has rhetorical effect rather than a call for direct response, which is contrary to courtroom discourses like cross-examination (Ahialey, 2011; Logogye, 2016). Since this study is a typical case of written-to be-spoken text, the main aim is information dissemination rather than information demanding. These choices of Mood achieve the purpose for which such diplomatics speeches were delivered.

Modality and Polarity

This second section presents the analysis and discussion based on the second research question, which seeks to investigate modality and polarity

choices in both the Entry and Exit speeches— that is, EnS and ExS. Modality and polarity are a feature of Mood. Usually within the mood structure (Subject + Finite), the Finite part is used to express not only tense but modality and polarity. Butt et al. (2003) affirm that the Finite has two main interpersonal roles in the verbal group— it can either be a sign of time in relation to the speaker or a modal sign of the speaker's opinion. In other words, modality can be identified or expressed in the Finite part of the clause. Modality can be realised by the use of modal verbs (for example, *can*, *could*, *will*, and *would*), modal adverbs (for example, *probably*, *certainly*), predicate verbs such as 'to be supposed to', to be obliged to', and 'to be urged to.'

On the other hand, polarity is considered to be either positive or negative. Whereas positive polarity is unmarked, negative polarity is. Negative polarity is marked with the negative marker, 'Not' in most cases. However, words such as 'never', 'no more', and 'seldom' also express negativity. The negative marker can be attached to the finite element (modal verb, finite operator) and in some cases, the negative marker can be found outside the finite element (before a clause). As a feature of mood, therefore, polarity will mark the clause as either positive or negative and modality system will show the speaker's judgement of what is said within the mood. In this study, the modality system was usually realised with mostly modal verbs. The Table below presents the modality systems and the frequency of occurrence in both data sets:

Table 2: Distribution of Modality in the Data Sets

Modal Verbs	Entry Speech (EnS)	Exit Speech (ExS)	Total Modal Verbs in EnS ExS	Percentage (%)
Will	10	5	15	28.3%
Would	-	2	2	3.7%
Can	7	-	7	13.2%
Could	-	1	1	1.8%
Shall	-	3	3	5.6%
Should	4	1	5	9.4%
May	3	1	4	7.5%
Might	-	1	1	1.8%
Must	12	2	14	26.4%
Have to	1	-	1	1.8%
Total	**37**	**16**	**53**	**99.5%**

In total, the number of modal verbs used as expression of Modality were Ten (10). These were *Will*/*Would*, *Can* /*Could*, *May*/*Might*, *Must*, *Shall*/ *Should*, and *Have to*. From the Frequency Table, *Will* represented the highest in the total frequency, with 28. 3% followed by *Must* with 26.4% representation; *Can* had 13.2% ; *Should* had 9.4% representation; *May* was represented with 7.5% frequency; *Shall* had 5.6% representation ; *Would* with 3.7% frequency whilst *Could*, *Might* and *Have to* had the least representation with 1.8% frequency total each. The Table gives a general view of the Modality choices realised in the study; thereby, providing a good sense of appreciating modality system and a guide for the analysis and discussion.

The next Figure Ten (10) provides a guide into the categorisation of modal verbs into modality type and the value of commitment to the truth of a proposition. This Figure Ten (10) provides a clear picture of the modal verbs

used in their expressions in terms of commitment value scale to a proposition

or proposal and determination of their obligation or necessity of value.

Modal Verbs in EnS and ExS	Value	MODALITY TYPE			
		Modalization		Modulation	
		Probability	Usuality	Obligation	Inclination
Will	Low	Possible	Sometimes	Allowed	Willing
Would	Medium	Probable	Usually	Supposed	Keen
Can	Low	Possible	Sometimes	Allowed	Willing
Could	Low	Possible	Sometimes	Allowed	Willing
Shall	Medium	Probable	Usually	Supposed	Keen
Should	Medium	Probable	Usually	Supposed	Keen
May	Low	Possible	Sometimes	Allowed	Willing
Might	Low	Possible	Sometimes	Allowed	Willing
Must	High	Certain	Always	Required	Determined
Have to	High	Certain	Always	Required	Determined

Figure 10: Modal Verbs used to express Modality, their Scale of Commitment Value   and Modality type in the data sets

In propositions (Indicatives—Declaratives or Interrogatives), modality

signals the knowledge of the speaker whilst in proposals (Imperatives—

commands, orders), modality marks the speaker's attitude to social factors of

obligation, responsibility and permission. In systemic perspective, the former

is considered as modalization and the latter as modulation. A modalized

proposition is epistemic modality, in the sense that the speaker's attitude

towards factuality or reality is determined; on the other hand, a modulated

proposal is expressed with a deontic modality in that the actualisation to

commit to do things or get others to do things is expressed. With this argument

established, it is important to state that modality (modalization or modulation)

can be realised in modal adverbs (for example, *certainly, possibly, probably,*);

modal verbs (for example, *can/could*, *may/might*, *shall/should*,); or both,

especially within the clause. From this premise, I now provide details on how

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the various modals were used in the speeches and based on this I made the analysis and discussion of the modal verbs in pairs.

First, *Will* and its past counterpart, *Would*, convey the willingness to do something or willingness to a given proposition. In terms of formality, *will* is considered less formal than *would*; hence, preference is given to *would* more than *will* in formal setting/environment. In the current study both *will* and *would* were used by the speaker in either epistemic (modalization) or deontic (modulation) sense. In systemic sense, *will* has a low value whilst *would* is medium as seen in Figure 10 (p.106). In that case, in a modalized clause, *will* has the sense of possibility whilst *would* indicates probability. On the other hand, in modulated clause, *will* expresses obligation and *would* inclination. The instances of *will/would* in the data sets demonstrate the different modality type used in the various speech situations by the speaker. These instances equally present the speaker's commitment to propositions. Modality type and choice present different perspectives of the speaker to a given proposition. The modulated *will/would* and modalized *will/would* present different perspective about the speaker's reality. Though morphologically the same in form, semantically and pragmatically they may function differently in different contexts. These factors were taken into consideration in choosing the Extracts in the data sets for the analysis and discussion. The Extracts indicate how the speaker used *will* and *would* in both data sets:

> **Extract 28**
> This means that we **will** need to reform. (Modulation) [EnS]
> **Extract 29**
> Real reform requires an ongoing search for excellence— in our structures, in our procedures, in our methods, and above all, in the

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performance of our staff. In this I **will** not compromise. (Modulation) [EnS]

Extract 30

As we reshape and rebuild for the future, it is quite possible that some units, functions or occupations in the Secretariat **will** be lost. (Modalization) [EnS]

Extracts 31

One was to ensure that globalization **would** benefit the human race as a whole, not only its fortunate members. (Modalization) [EnS]

Extract 32

As long as the Palestinians live under occupation, exposed to daily frustration and humiliation; and as long as Israelis are blown up in buses and in dance-halls: so long **will** passions everywhere be inflamed. (Modalization)[ExS]

Extract 33

As long as the Security Council is unable to end this conflict, and the now nearly 40-year-old occupation, by bringing both sides to accept and implement its resolution, so long **will** respect for the United Nations continue to decline. So long, too **will** our impartiality be questioned. So long **will** our best efforts to resolve other conflicts be resisted, including those in Iraq and Afghanistan, whose people need our help just as badly, and are entitled to it. And so long **will** our devoted and courageous staff, instead of being protected by the blue flag, find themselves exposed to rage and violence, provoked by policies they neither control nor support. (Modalization) [ExS]

These are instances of *will/would* and how they were used in the various speech situations. As indicated earlier, these instances exemplify the different types of modality and the perspectives they convey in the given speech situations. The speaker used them in either modulation or modalization. The selection of these instances demonstrates the same modal forms used in different contexts to express different truths or realities of the user.

From the data, it can be inferred from Extracts 28 and 29 that *will* was modulated to mean an obligation binding the speaker and the listeners. However, in Extract 29, *will* is modulated to mean an inclination. Also, Extracts 30 through to 33 are modalized to mean possibility. The modulated clauses conveyed commitment on the speaker and the listeners into doing something, or not to do something (inclination) whilst the modalized clauses presented factual information of the speaker's reality. In effect, the speaker used modulated clause to convey obligation to a given proposition or assertion. Where there was inclination, there was a strong denial against committing to the proposition and the speaker did that, using a modal verb and a negative marker (polarity). Also, the speaker used modalization to express his truth or reality about a proposition. This observation agrees with Bashir, Yunus and Al-Jarrah (2018) who state that 'will' is used in courtroom discourse by counsels to achieve precision in their arguments so as to persuade the court and equally to demonstrate commitment to the true value of propositions. Again, this modal verb used as a hedging device has epistemic meanings such as politeness, obligation, precision, duty, intention, and permission, among others, as indicated by Bashir, Yunus and Al-Jarrah (2018).

Must conveys the speaker's confidence in the truth value of what is being said. From Figure 10 (p.106), the value of *Must* is high in both modalization and modulation. In modalization, *must* conveys probability which is certain and in modulation, *must* conveys obligation which is required. This means that *must* in a modalized clause conveys a probable cause which is certain, hence factual; on the other hand, in a modulated clause, *must* conveys

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an obligatory cause which is required and needs to be fulfilled (necessity). The following Extracts explicate how *Must* was used epistemically or deontically. As indicated earlier, the choice of modal verb projects different modality metafunction at the backdrop of context. Extracts 34 through to 36 are instances of *Must* from EnS, and 37 to 39 are from ExS; and the speaker used *Must* differently to have different impact on the audience. The following sets are Extracts which equally exemplify the variation in the use of *Must*:

Extract 34

Today, I repeat the pledge I made in the General Assembly, that the next five years **must** be, above all, a time for healing. (Modalization)[EnS]

Extract 35

We **must** heal relations between the Secretariat and the Member States, and put an end to the acrimony that has characterized some recent exchanges in this house. Every staff member has a part to play in this effort, above all by performing your functions to the very best of your ability. (Modulation)[EnS]

Extract 36

In this process, we **must** heal the morale of the Secretariat. You have all been living with the spectre of downsizing and job insecurity. I know that these have been difficult and challenging. We **must**, however, carry on, secure in our ideals, moved by the strength of our convictions. (Modulation)[EnS]

Extract 37

So many of the challenges we face are global. They demand a global response, in which all peoples **must** play their part. (Modulation)[ExS]

Extract 38

Yes, I remain convinced that the only answer to this divided world **must** be a truly United Nations. (Modalization)[ExS]

Extract 39

Each of us **must** earn the trust of his fellow men and women, no matter what their race, colour or creed, and learn to trust them in turn. (Modulation)[ExS]

In Extracts 34 and 38, for instance, the speaker showed commitment to the fact. However, *must* in Extracts 35, 36, 37, and 39 conveys a sense of directives to be taken or done; hence, indicating obligation or responsibility on both the speaker and the addressees (we/us). In this sense, *must* was used both epistemically (modalized) in Extract 34 and deontically (modulated) in Extracts 35, 36 , 37, and 39, expressing an obligation to be fulfilled. Here in Extracts 34 and 38, *mus*t is epistemic modality (modalization) whilst in Extracts 35, 36, 37, and 39, *must* is deontic (modulation) conveying responsibility/obligation on the speaker and the listeners. By interpretation, the epistemic *must* indicates the view or attitude of the speaker based on evidence or observation. In that case, in Extract 34, for example, the speaker believed by either evidence or observation that 'the next five years must be a healing time' and in Extract 38, the speaker is expressing the truth value of what he said based on conviction. *Must* is considered in all the cases to have high truth value and the commitment level to the proposition is either certain or necessary. Epistemically, the speaker is certain about what is said, but deontically, commitment to obligation in a proposition is necessary and binding. The truth value is high; hence, commitment to doing something in the case of *must* is necessary. Similarly, since the truth value is high in *must*, the speaker's judgement on what is said is also factual. As confirmed in El-Faharaty and Elewa (2020) on deontic, 'must' denotes forcible procedural obligation on the speakers.

Similarly, *have to* has an equal deontic value like *must*, which expresses obligation and binds the proposition. In the study, the modulated (deontic) *have to* was used once. The speaker used this only in EnS, '*What we have to do now is not to undertake more half-measures or rush to embrace new changes*…' which by extension meant high commitment to the proposition, which was certainly required. This can be interpreted in two ways: "(a) …what we are obliged to do now is … or (b) what we are certainly required to do is …." The truth value of *have to* is high as demonstrated in Figure 10 (p.106); hence, in the modulation context in which it was used, the obligation was required.

Furthermore, *Shall/Should* played a major role in the speaker's bid to express modality. Both *shall/should* express volition or willingness on the part of the speaker. They are also used to show expressions of the speaker's intention. From Figure 10(p.106), both *shall/should* have median value; and in modalization *shall/should* conveys probability and usuality. In a modalized clause, *shall/should* indicates probable or usuality. In a modulated context, *shall/should* conveys obligation or inclination, which by extension implies supposition or keen to inclination. The following Extracts provide instances of *shall/should* in the data sets. Extracts 40, 41, and 42 are instances used in EnS and 43 to 45 are instances from ExS:

Extract 40

This means that we will need to reform. Too many of our critics, reform just means more cuts, and so I understand that talk of reform may be viewed with concern by some of you. That reminds me of a wise person who was once asked whether we **should** be concerned, or even be fearful, about the future. The reply was: Why **should** we be

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concerned? We have had so much experience with the future, by now it is familiar to us.(Modulation)[EnS]

Extract 41

One principle **should** be of overriding importance. Reform is not an end in itself. It is a tool to create a more relevant and more effective Organization. (Modalization)[EnS]

Extract 42

Reform **should** not simply mean change for its own sake— that is the path of disruption rather than to meaningful and long-lasting progress. (Modulation) [EnS]

Extract 43

This is the last time I **shall** have the honour of presenting my annual report to this Assembly. Let me conclude by thanking you all for allowing me to serve as Secretary-General during this remarkable decade. (Modulation)[ExS]

Extract 44

It's been difficult and challenging, but at times thrillingly rewarding. And while I look forward to resting my shoulder from those stubborn rocks in the next phase of my life, I know I s**hall** miss the mountain. Yes, I **shal**l miss what is, when all is said and done, the world's most exalting job. (Modulation)[ExS]

Extract 45

Here too, I am proud of the United Nations' role in this. And I am proud of what my fellow Africans have achieved in ending many of the conflicts that disfigured our continent. But here too, we **should** be under no illusion. (Modulation/inclined)[ExS]

Extracts 40 to 45 show the choice of *shall/should* and how they have been used to project different perspectives of the propositions of the speaker. In some instances, the speaker significantly used *should*; however, there are variations in the speaker's intended purposes. In the sets of Extracts, the speaker used *shall/should*; however, *shall* was frequently used as compared to

should. As it has been established earlier in this study, the choice between the present and the past forms of modal verbs communicates formality and the state of futurity of events. These instances were carefully selected to reflect these variations.

Here, the speaker used *shall/should* to express his emotions especially in his exit speech and also as commitment to a proposition. In Extract 41, the speaker used *should* in a modalized sense to convey the factuality of the position; however, in Extracts 40, 42, 43, 44 and 45, s*hould* indicated modulation. The speaker used *shall* as an obligation on himself especially in Extracts 43 and 44 to express his last responsibility to the UN and his emotional obligation of missing what he used to do. Also, in the other instances of modulation, the speaker took an inclined position with his choice (Extract 45). However, in legal discourse, 'shall' is considered to be one of the most frequently used modal verbs by the legal practitioners to achieve precision in their arguments by showing commitment to the truth value of the proposition (Bashir, Yunus & Al-Jarrah, 2018). This ordinarily is not the case with diplomatic discourse where 'shall' is used to show the speaker's commitment to the proposition without necessarily seeking to achieve any precision in arguments.

The next modal pairs used were *may/might*. As can be seen from Figure 10(p.106), *may/might* has low value and in terms of modalization, both are either used to indicate probability or usuality. On the contrary, for modulation, *may/might* indicates either obligation or inclination. By probability, it means 'it is possible' (possibility); and with usuality in modalization it means 'sometimes'. In a modulated obligation, the obligation

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is **allowed** but modulated inclination conveys **willingness**. The following Extracts demonstrate how *may/might* was used in the data sets:

Extract 46

The views of staff at all levels— expressed both individually and through elected staff representatives— are of abiding interest to me. It **may** not always be possible to meet all of the expectations of staff, but I pledge to you today that your Secretary-General and his senior management team will listen carefully to your concerns and aspirations. (Modalization) [EnS]

Extract 47

Moreover, just as some who benefit from globalization **may** feel threatened by it, so, many who are statistically safer from conflict do not feel safe.(Modalization) [EnS]

Extract 48

We **might** like to think of the Arab-Israeli conflict as just one regional conflict amongst many. But it is not. No other conflict carries such a powerful symbolic and emotional charge among people far removed from the battlefield. (Modulation) [ExS]

The Extracts are the only instances of *may/might* in the data sets and in all the cases, the speaker demonstrates a level of understanding of his reality. Extracts 46 and 47, *may* was used in EnS whilst in 48, *might* was in ExS. In Extract 46, *may* was modalized in the negative sense, conveying the idea of possibility in the negative sense (impossibility), an indication of the speaker's judgement which could either be based on observation or conviction. Similarly, in Extract 47, *may* was modalized to show possibility and by interpretation, *may* meant "… *it is possible* that some who benefit from globalization feel threatened by it...". The use of *may* in the context of the Entry Speech (EnS) here presents the speaker's perception of the possibilities

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of the proposition. This was the speaker's judgement on the benefit of globalization for some people.

However in Extract 48, *might* was modulated obligation which meant 'allowed to'; and by extension the speaker's expression meant "We *are allowed* to think…" which equally was not a binding obligation on anyone. But rather it gave room for the listeners to have their thoughts or opinions of the proposal in that context. In that regard, the choice of modalized *may* expressed judgement of possibility of a given assertion whilst a modulated *may/might* expressed obligation which meant 'allowed to'.

Last but not least, *Can* and *Could* were used to express modality in the study. *Can/Could* when used in either proposition or proposal conveys the sense of ability, willingness or permission. *Can* is usually used as present time reference and *could* past time reference. In systemic perspective, *Can* and *Could* are valued as low as presented in Figure 10 (p.106) and in modalization, they will either express probability or usuality. When they express probability, then it means whatever they express is possible (possibility). But when used to express usuality, it means whatever is expressed is sometimes possible. On the other hand, in obligated modulation, the expression is allowed and inclined modulation expresses willingness. The following Extracts show how *can/could* was utilized in the data sets:

> **Extract 49**
> If I remember correctly, one of the questions in a recent Staff Union survey was: "After your experience with the United Nations, if you **could** go back in time, would you join it again?" (Modulation)[EnS]
> **Extract 50**
> As one who has spent more than three decades with the Organization. I **can** understand that response very well. (Modalization)[EnS]

Extract 51

We know that much of the criticism of the Secretariat has been arbitrary and unfair; but we must remain open to honest and constructive criticism. We also know that we **can** do more to restore the confidence of the international community in us. (Modulation) [EnS]

Extract 52

I expect the Secretariat to work together and at all times to function properly as a global team. I expect staff members to be flexible and mobile, and willing to serve wherever they **can** best contribute to the Organization's tasks. (Modulation)[EnS]

Extract 53

Each individual **can** make a difference. If everyone contributes fully, the result will be far greater than the sum of the parts. (Modulation)[EnS]

Extract 54

It is shameful that last year's Summit Outcome does not contain even one word about non-proliferation and disarmament— basically because states **could not** agree which of the two should be given priority. (Modalization) [ExS]

In Extracts 49 to 54 are instances of *can/could*. These Extracts demonstrate the variations in the speaker's expression of the truth value of the propositions. These particular modal verbs were minimally (once) used in the Exit Speech (ExS). In Extract 49, *could* was used to express conditionality in willingness to do something. Since it is not binding on the listener or the speaker, it cannot be considered as modulation. In Extracts 50 and 54 *can* and *could* were used as modalization which conveyed the idea of capability (interpreted to mean 'to be able to'). However, the willingness 'to be able' was denied, especially in the case of Extract 54, with the negative particle, *no*t. In other words, the will to do something is possible but was not made possible. In Extracts 51, 52, and

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53, the speaker's choice was that of modulation conveying obligation. The obligation is allowed; hence, it was binding on the participant(s). What this means is that the participant(s) are able and capable; hence, they are allowed the responsibility to undertake the cause in the proposition. Thus, *can/could* communicated the speaker's willingness and capabilities to the proposition or proposal.

To sum up, the instances of modality choices in the speeches communicated the speaker's judgement to the truth value of a proposition, his commitment to obligation, the possibilities, and impossibilities of the assertions. For instance, *will/would* conveyed willingness to do, *must* and *have to* conveyed high value of commitment to the proposition or proposal/obligation; *can/could* communicated capabilities, *may/might* conveyed possibilities there was in an obligation, *shall/should* communicated the speaker's emotional obligation to the UN, especially, in the Exit Speech (ExS). The present study noticed the blend from high, medium and low values of modality choices in the diplomatic speeches. However, the choices between low value (*will*) and high value (*must*) recorded high values in terms of frequency, 28.3% and 26.4% respectively. A different view was expressed in other institutional discourse studies (for example, political, religious, and legal). For instance, Ramadhani, Amalia, Mahdi, and Indrayani's (2019) claim that utterances of professionals or experts, especially lawyers, contain high and median value of modality system, which suggests that lawyers as experts are more objective; hence, they avoid the use of personal attitude to facts. On the other hand, witnesses (non-experts) employ median and low values of modality suggesting subjectiveness and being personal with facts. Also in

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sermonic discourse, low to medium value modal verbs are preferred in the expression of modality in order to avoid being too subjective or authoritative (Obeng-Appiah, 2015; Wang, 2014). On the contrary, Zeng and Wang (2019) claimed that male speakers tend to employ high degree modal verbs to establish authority while the female counterparts avoid using those (high degree modals) in political discourse. It is clear from these studies and the present study that modality choices vary from one discourse community to the other. In diplomatic context, the blend of high, median and low modal values reveal the nature of the speaker as one who is conscious of his environment and therefore, makes language choices which equally reflect his character and the agenda of the discourse community he belongs to. The choices between low value (*will*) and high value (*must*) recorded high values in terms of frequency, an indication of a blend between the speaker's sense of humility and high sense of responsibility at the same time.

On the other hand, the choice between *Yes* or *No* is an expression of polarity. It can be negative or positive. However, positive polarity is unmarked, but negative polarity is marked (Halliday, 1994; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004). Negative polarity is marked with the negator/negative marker, *Not*. However, it should be noted that negative markers like *never*, *no*, *seldom, no more*, among others, can be used to indicate polarity in the negative. Usually, within the clause, negative polarity can be a feature in the Finite element or the Residue. In that regard, polarity is considered a feature of Finiteness, and could be found in the verbal operator or modal operators in the clause. Equally, polarity expresses the speaker's judgement (modality) of a

proposition. The following Extracts indicate the use of polarity (negative) in both data sets and, in all instances, polarity manifests itself differently:

Extract 55

I am humbled by the enormous task ahead of me, by the daunting responsibilities that the Secretary-General is called upon my shoulder. But I also feel greatly honoured. **Not** only personally but, most of all as a fellow member of the Secretariat for so many years— as one of you. [EnS]

Extract 56

The selection of a career staff member for the position of Secretary-General carries with it a recognition of all of you, the staff of the Organization. For we are above all a team. I do **not** think anyone who achieves success in the Secretariat can rightfully claim that he or she has done it alone. [EnS]

Extract 57

What we have to do now is **not** undertake more half-measures or rush to embrace new changes. [EnS]

Extract 58

Reform should **not** simply mean change for its own sake— that is the path to disruption rather than to meaningful and long-lasting progress. [EnS]

Extract 59

Neither do I see reform simply in terms of dollars and cents. Of course, the Organization has to be efficient, but not to the point of threatening our effectiveness in fulfilling important mandates. I do **not** believe the disjointed incrementalism of the past, with its baggage of duplications and overlaps; was a positive evolution. [EnS]

Extract 60

Equally I have **never** believed that disjointed downsizing, with arbitrary staff cuts that weaken essential capabilities, can bring real improvement. [EnS]

Extract 61

No more must Government vote to limit salaries and benefits of United Nations staff while subsidizing their own nationals in the Secretariat. [EnS]

In this context (EnS), the speaker's choice of polarity was variably made among negative markers like *not*, *never*, *no more* to express his disapproval or strong disagreement to a proposition. The various Extracts 55 to 61 demonstrate these varied choices and the impact on the proposition or assertion. However, the same cannot been seen in ExS, where the negator *not* became the speaker's only choice for polarity. The set of instances demonstrates the speaker's polarity choice in ExS:

Extract 62

One was to ensure that globalization would benefit the human race as a whole, **not** only its more fortunate members. [ExS]

Extract 63

But let's **not** delude ourselves the Asian miracle is yet to be replicated in other parts of the world. [ExS]

Extract 64

My friends, globalization is **not** a tide that lifts all boats. [ExS]

Extract 65

It is shameful that last year's Summit Outcome does **not** contain even one word about non-proliferation and disarmament—basically because states could **not** agree which of the two should be given priority. [ExS]

Extract 66

We might like to think of the Arab-Israeli conflict as just one regional conflict amongst many. But it is **not**. [ExS]

These are instances of polarity in ExS, the speaker showed his disagreement to a given assertion or his denial of a proposition, using the negator 'not'. However, the impacts created are not the same. The various choices project

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polarity in a different sense, depending on how the negator affects the finite element of the clause or the entirety of the clause.

From these Extracts, it can be noted that the speaker used varied negative markers like *not, no*, *never*, and *no more* to express polarity in his propositions. Polarity, like modality, expresses the speaker's commitment to what is being said. Negative polarity will show or convey renunciation to a proposition or proposal. In cases of propositions, the negative marker can be within the finite element. For instance, modal verb + negative (-not) — for example, *cannot/can't, would not/ wouldn't, shall not/shan't*); a form of 'be'+ not— for example, *is not/isn't*; *was not/wasn't, are not/aren't, am not*). In some cases, the negative markers like *never*, *no more*, *no*, can precede the finite verb as an expression of polarity. For instance, never + finite verb (for example, *believe*, *agree*, *accept*). Notably, negative polarity can also be used in non-finite clauses and, in that case, the negative marker can be within the clause or outside the clause. In the study, the speaker used negative polarity to strongly denounce or deny claims in an assertion or proposition.

In most cases, the commitment to the truth value of a proposition or proposal cannot be underestimated with polarity. For instance, in Extracts 58 and 65, a *modal operator* and *not* were used to express the speaker's commitment to the proposition:

(a) Reform should **not** simply mean change for its own sake— that is the path to disruption rather than to meaningful and long-lasting progress. (Extract 58)

(b) It is shameful that last year's Summit Outcome does **not** contain even one word about non-proliferation and disarmament—basically

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because states <u>could</u> **<u>not</u>** agree which of the two should be given priority. (Extract 65)

The speaker used modal verbs (*should + not*) and (*could + not*) respectively to express strong conviction about the proposition. By implication, the speaker was convinced that the validity of the proposition cannot be denied or overemphasized. Modal verbs and the negative particle, *not* (modalized negative polarity), have equal value just like the positive view. With an instance of modalized or modulated polarity, the impact or effect is similar to that of the positive. Polarized modality confirms a strong renunciation of a proposition. The speaker showed his disagreement to a proposition by the choice of modalized polarity.

It should be noted that the speaker explored other verb forms and the negative marker, *not*, to express his judgment or truth. In such situations, *not* was used with a form of 'be' (for example, *is*) and a form of 'do' (for example, *do*, *does*) to show opposition to a proposition, as in the following:

(c) I **<u>do not</u>** think there are many of us here today who are in any danger of facing that frustration. (Extract 56)

(d) What we have to do now **<u>is not</u>** undertake more half-measures or rush to embrace new changes. (Extract 57)

(e) My friends, globalization **<u>is not</u>** a tide that lifts all boats. (Extract 64)

(f) It is shameful that last year's Summit Outcome **<u>does not</u>** contain even one word about non-proliferation and disarmament… (Extract 65)

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(g) We might like to think of the Arab-Israeli conflict as just one regional conflict. But it **is not.** (Extract 66)

In all these cases (Extracts 56-66), the speaker's judgement on the propositions showed his disagreement with his choice of the negative marker, *not* and the finite operators (a form of the verb, 'to be' and 'to do'), which are not modal verbs but conveyed modality. Clearly, a strong denial or denunciation of assertions to the validity or truth value was made by these choices of polarity.

Finally, *never* and *no more* were used to also show polarity. In this case, the negative marker either comes before (*no more+ must*) or after the finite verb (*have +never*) as in Extracts 60 and 61 respectively:

(i)   Equally I have **never** believed that disjointed downsizing, with arbitrary staff cuts that weaken essential capabilities, can bring real improvement.

(ii)   **No more** must Government vote to limit salaries and benefits of United Nations staff while subsidizing their own nationals in the Secretariat.

The speaker's judgement is seen in the use of *never* and *no more* to negate the claims in the proposition. The expression of disbelief and disagreement with the content of the proposition is clearly seen in the negation.

To conclude, the speaker's choice of modality and polarity system conveys his judgement, his truth, and commitment to the truth values of the propositions. From the choices of modal verbs such as *can/could*, *shall/should*/, *may/might*, *will/would*, *must*, and *have to* commitment and willingness to obligations were established. The modal systems equally

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showed the possibilities and impossibilities of given assertions. The higher the values of the modal verb, the higher the commitment to the truth value or commitment to obligations and the vice versa. Similarly, the choice of polarity conveyed the speaker's judgement on a given proposition either as denial or disagreement. This assertion is in tandem with Halliday (1994) and Halliday and Matthiessen's (2004) proposition that polarity can assign negative or positive value to the clause. In the present study, the polarity choice conveys either strong denial or disagreement to given assertions, especially when the polarity markers form part of the modal verbs or the entire clause structure.

Personal Pronouns and Vocative Address Systems

This section presents pronouns and vocative address systems used in the study; and it seeks to answer the third research question on what pronoun and vocative choices were made as an interpersonal feature in the two data sets.

Pronouns are words that are used as reference to specific names of persons and things in sentences or in communication. They help to avoid unnecessary repetitions of those names (nouns). This use of pronouns makes it easier to identify the analogous (analogue) relationship between the subject and its antecedent in communication. Again, personal pronouns, especially, evoke the sense of persons (the speaker/addresser, listener/addressee and the spoken about) relationship that are referred to in speeches or utterances. Personal pronouns generally play important roles in distinguishing speaker-listener roles in communication. In communication, these pronouns are words that are usually used to refer to participants that are judged to be present or active or otherwise in the mind of the audience and the speaker. Hlioui (2020)

concluded that the choice of certain personal pronouns and of certain participant roles assigned to them is genre specific and the genre of the corpus dictates preferences of reference density and of processes and participant roles.

In the diplomatic speeches delivered by Kofi Annan during his entry and exit as the UN Secretary General, personal pronouns were predominantly used to serve different purposes in the speeches. Tables (3-5) summarise the personal pronouns in the nominative/subjective, objective, and possessive, as were used in both speeches.

Table 3: Distribution of Personal Pronouns in Nominative/Subjective Case

Personal Pronouns in Singular & Plural forms		Frequency in EnS	Frequency in ExS	Total Frequency	Percentage (%)
1ST PERSON	I	32	19	51	40
	We	37	7	44	35
2ND PERSON	You	-	-	-	0
	You	8	-	8	6
3RD PERSON	He	1	-	1	1
	She	1	-	1	1
	It	14	-	14	11
	They	3	5	8	6
Total Frequency of all Pronouns				**127**	**100%**

This Table (3) presents the distribution of personal pronouns in the subjective case. From the table, the first person singular, (I) and plural, (We) recorded 40% and 35% respectively; the highest frequency. This was followed by the third person singular, (It) with 11% frequency. The next to this is the second person plural, (You) and third person plural, (They) with 6%

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frequency. The third person singular, (She/He) recorded 1% whilst the second

person singular, (You) had no frequency in both data.

Table 4: Distribution of Personal Pronouns in Objective Case (in Singular and Plural forms)

Personal Pronouns in Singular & Plural forms		Frequency in EnS	Frequency in ExS	Total Frequency	Percentage (%)
1ST PERSON	Me	3	3	6	15
	Us	12	10	22	56
2ND PERSON	You	-	-	-	0
	You	7	3	10	26
3RD PERSON	Him	-	-	-	0
	Her	-	-	-	0
	It	-	-	-	0
	Them	-	1	1	3
Total Frequency of all Pronouns				**39**	**100%**

This Table (4) presents the distribution of personal pronouns in the

objective case. The first person plural, (Us) recorded 56%, which is the

highest; followed by the second person plural, (You) which recorded 26%

frequency. The first person singular, (Me) recorded 15% whilst the third

person plural, (Them) recorded 3% and no frequency was recorded for second

person singular (You), and third person singular and plural,(Him/Her/It/

Them).

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Table 5: Distribution of Possessive Personal Pronouns in the Subjective Form

Personal Pronouns in Singular & Plural forms		Frequency in EnS	Frequency in ExS	Total Frequency	Percentage (%)
1STPERSON	My	7	5	12	22
	Our	22	3	25	45
2NDPERSON	Your	-	-	-	0
	Your	7	-	7	13
3RDPERSON	His	-	-	-	0
	Hers	-	-	-	0
	Its	-	-	-	0
	Their	9	2	11	20
Total Frequency of all Pronouns				**55**	**100%**

Table 5 presents the distribution of personal pronouns in the possessive case. The first person plural, (Our) recorded 45%, followed by first person singular, (My) which recorded 22% and the third person plural,(Their) recorded 20%. The second person plural, (Your) recorded 13% whilst the second person singular and the third person singular recorded nil.

First Person Personal Pronoun and Its Variants

Both data sets (Entry and Exit Speeches), made effective use of the first person singular personal pronoun— *I*, *Me*, and *My* in the subjective, objective and possessive (adjectival) cases respectively. Whereas *I* occurred 32 times in EnS, it occurred 19 times in ExS. Also, *My* appeared 9 and 5 times in EnS and ExS respectively. However, *Me* was used 3 times in both speech situations. In all cases in which these pronouns were used, the impact and intentions were communicated to the audience (listeners) and the speech roles were assigned through the use of these pronouns. The following Extracts

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indicate the use of *I* and its variants in the speeches and three instances were

selected from both data sets:

Extract 67

As *I* speak here today to United Nations staff around the world, *my*

feelings are both of humility and of pride.[EnS]

Extract 68

I am humbled by the enormous task ahead of *me*, by the daunting

responsibilities that the Secretary General is called upon to

shoulder.[EnS]

Extract 69

But *I* also feel greatly honoured.[EnS]

Extract 70

When *I* first spoke to you from this podium, in 1997, it seemed to *me*

that humanity faced three challenges.[ExS]

Extract 71

As the second African to serve as Secretary-General, *I* felt that all three

of these challenges— the security challenge; the development

challenge; the challenge of human rights and the rule of law—

concerned me directly.[ExS]

Extract 72

My friends, globalization is not a tide that lifts all boats.[ExS]

In these Extracts (67-72), the speaker used *I* as the subjects of the

propositions. However, the only clear difference is seen in Extract 69, where

the *I* subject has a connective, *bu*t preceding it. This shows a connection or

link to a previously made assertion. The sets of Extracts from ExS (Extracts

70 and 72), the choice of the objective case, *me* and the possessive, *my* were

used to make reference to the speaker.

These instances of *I, Me* and *My* were a projection of the speaker's

acknowledgement of himself as an honoured individual to receive an

endorsement to solely lead the UN. However, his choice of these pronouns did not only arrogate power in his sole hands. The choice of these pronouns did not only validate his role in the UN but also his readiness in taking responsibilities for the mandate given him. Again, the use of these pronouns indicates assurance to the staff (audience) and the world as a whole regarding the speaker's readiness to work. For instance, in Extract 67, the speaker used *I* and *My* to describe how humble he was to be given such an opportunity in his diplomatic career and in Extract 68, he acknowledged the tasks the mandate given him comes with and his willingness to work despite the challenges that come up with his role as SG. The choice of this pronoun singled him out and gave him the power to inform and assign roles to his audience/listeners. Similarly, the speaker used possessive case, *my* in Extract 72 to indicate the connection and sense of collegiality he shared with the addressees ('friends', as he referred to them). The objective *me* also made him assume the receiver role instead of the doer role. By the receiver role in the speech situation, it is either the action is performed directly on it (affected) or it is the one, the action is done or performed on.

That notwithstanding, the first person plural, *We* and its variants, *us*, *our* and *ourselves* in the subjective, objective, possessive and reflexive case respectively were also used in both speeches. In all the cases, the first person plural pronoun suggested inclusivity, possessiveness, and belongingness. The following are Extracts from the data sets on how *we* and its variants were carefully selected and used:

Extract 73

No one joins the Secretariat to become rich and famous, to be appreciated and applauded, to live a life of ease and comfort. *We* join the United Nations because *we* want to serve the world community; because *we* believe this planet can be a better and more secure place; and because above all, *we* want to devote *ou*r time, *our* intellect and *our* energies to making it so.[EnS]

Extract 74

We must, however, carry on, secure in *our* ideals, moved by the strength of *our* convictions. The next five years are not going to be a period of convalescence but of resurgence. This is the time when *we*— all of *us* together— face the exciting prospect of carrying *our* Organization into the twenty-first century.[EnS]

Extract 75

Are *we* any more secure against the second challenge— the ravages of war?[ExS]

Extract 76

Yes, I remain convinced that the only answer to this divided world must be a truly United Nations. Climate change, HIV/AIDS, fair trade, migration, human rights— all these issues, and many more, bring *us* back to that point. Addressing each is indispensable for each of *us* in *our* village, in *our* neighbourhood, and in *our* country. [ExS]

In EnS, the subjective case *we* was used as a referent for the speaker himself and his colleague staff members of the UN; however, in ExS, *we* was used as referent for the speaker, the staff of the UN and the audience present and respectively so was the objective and possessive cases. In both speech situations, the subjective, *we* and objective, *us* and the possessive, *our* were used to express the sense of inclusivity, team-spiritedness, and collective responsibility expected of them as a body belonging to the same community with same aim and agenda. For instance, Extract 73, structures such as '*We*

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join the United Nations because *we* want to serve the world community; because *we* believe this planet can be a better and more secure place; and because above all, *we* want to devote *our* time, *our* intellect and *our* energies to making it so'— all these are a demonstration of togetherness and sense of collectivism and shared responsibility.

Similarly, the use of *our* indicates owning up to whatever is being said in a collective sense. For example, in Extract 76 , structures like '*our* village', 'in *our* neighbourhood', 'in *our* country' suggested ownership/possessive/ belongingness to a community (village, neighbourhood, country) ; whereas Extract 73 had structures such as '*ou*r time', '*our* intellect' and '*our* energies' to indicate collective efforts in important aspects (time, intellect, and energies). In effect, the first person personal pronoun, *I* and its variants (singular) usually showed individuality, exclusivity, and a sense of responsibility instituted in the speaker the sole responsibility to inform and assign roles to the listeners. The plural, *we* and its variants significantly projected inclusivity, togetherness, a sense of belongingness and collective responsibility involving both the speaker and the target audience. Similarly, in Koussouhon and Dossoumou (2015), Yang (2017), and Ye (2010), the choice of inclusive first person plural, 'we' suggests a binding obligation on both the speakers and the listeners, and exclusive first person singular, 'I' projects an exclusive right or authority to only the speaker. In all these institutional discourse situations, the choice of the inclusive first person singular pronouns dominates and is preceded by the exclusive first person and with the second and third persons minimally used in their respective order. This shows the relevance of first person pronouns in public speaking because they simply

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bring out the speaker/listener roles easily and effectively, as affirmed by Hlioui (2020) and Guo, Rahman and Hadi (2020).

In all, whereas the first person singular personal pronouns in the subjective, objective and possessive cases institute mandatory authority to the speaker solely, the plural form in all other cases (subjective, objective, possessive) confer a shared-role in both the informant (speaker) and recipients (listeners) alike. Obeng-Appiah (2015), and Guo, Rahman and Hadi (2020) intimated that first person *I/we/our* and the second person, *you* shorten the distance between the addresser and the audience. In the academic lectures, the *I-We* referent is either for lecturer, students and student + lecturer, depending on contextual and co-textual clues (Akoto & Afful, 2022).

Second Person Pronoun and Its Variants

The second person personal pronoun, *You* refers to/represents the spoken to or the addressee in an interaction or a communicative exchange. It, therefore, plays a major role in communication (spoken or written). This pronoun assigns the speaker/listener distinctive roles in the communicative event. *You,* in both subjective and objective cases, either singular or plural institutes a specific or an assigned role for the listener in the event of communication. Whereas the subjective case, *You*, assigns the 'doer role' to the listener; the objective, *You*, gives the listener the recipient role or receiver of information in the speech/communication event.

In the events of the two principal speeches by Kofi Annan, *You* was used 16 times in EnS and just 2 times in ExS. The variant, *Your* appeared 7 times in EnS but it was never used in ExS. This frequency analysis revealed that the speaker's reliance level on the listeners was higher in his entry speech

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than in his exit speech. It is obvious that in his assumption into office, his dependency on working with the '*you*' audience (staff of the UN) was unavoidable as compared to his exiting office where he was left with nothing to do with the staff anymore; hence, his counting on the '*you*' audience was expected to be minimal. Here are instances to prove the use of *you* and its variant *your* in EnS and ExS:

Extract 77

The selection of a career staff member for the position of Secretary-General carries with it a recognition of all of *you*, the Staff of the organization. [EnS]

Extract 78

Today, I am counting on *your* continued support, *your* commitment and *your* dedication to the essential work for the organization. [EnS]

Extract 79

You have all been living with the spectre of downsizing job insecurity. [EnS]

Extract 80

When I first spoke to *you* from this podium, in 1997... [ExS]

Extract 81

Let me conclude by thanking *you* for allowing me to serve as Secretary-General during this remarkable decade. [ExS]

Extracts 77, 78 and 79 (EnS) and Extracts 80 and 81(ExS) are selected to demonstrate the use of 'you' and its variants. In EnS, *you and* its variants were used as reference to the Staff of the UN; in ExS, this pronoun type was used as a referent to audience which included the UN staff and other dignitaries present.

The speaker emphasised his choice of the pronoun *you* by referring to the category of audience in question. In Extract 77 , the speaker established whom his target audience or addressees were, using the pronoun *you*; and he

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stressed on that with his choice of the noun phrase antecedent— *the Staff of the organization*—an attempt to show appreciation to them. He also expressed his expectation of reliance on them (the Staff of the UN) in playing a great role by making his mandate a success in Extract 78. In Extract 80, *you* was used as a referent to the audience present which included excellencies (presidents and leaders) from the rest of the world, the members of the UN, and the staff of the UN present during the speech event. *You* in all the cases (subjective, objective, and possessive) referred to these addressees in the speech situation. In the context of this study, the choice of *you* was not only to identify the addressee(s) but was also inherently to assign them with specific roles in whichever context they were required to act.

Third Person Pronoun and Its Variants

The third person personal pronoun usually is used to indicate distance between the speaker from who or what is being said or spoken about. This is what Halliday and Matthiessen (2014) refer to as the *other roles* in the speech exchange. The singular, *He* or *She* is gender-specific; they are used for masculine and feminine genders being spoken about. However, *It* is neuter or neutral to gender. In the study, *He* and *She* were each used only once in EnS but they never occurred in ExS. *It* appeared 14 times in EnS and 5times in ExS. The plural form, *they* in the subjective case was used 3 and 5 times in EnS and ExS respectively. Also, the objective *them* in plural form was used only once in ExS and none was recorded for EnS. The possessive form in plural, *their* occurred 9 times in EnS and 2 times in ExS. The following are Extracts of the third person and its variants as used in the speeches:

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Extract 82

I do not think anyone who achieves success in the Secretariat can rightfully claim that *he* or *she* has done it alone. [EnS]

Extract 83

It is up to us to prove to the Member States that *their* contributions are used wisely and efficiently for the implementations of programmes which *they* have mandated. [EnS]

Extract 84

I deliberately say "all peoples", echoing the preamble of our Charter, and not "all states". It was clear to me ten years ago, and is even clearer now, that international relations are not a matter of States alone. [EnS]

They are relations between peoples, in which so-called "non-states actors" play a vital role, and can make a vital contribution. All must play t*heir* part in a true multilateral world order, with a renewed, dynamic United Nations at *its* centre. [ExS]

Extract 85

We might like to think of the Arab-Israeli conflict as just one regional conflict amongst many. But *it* is not so. No other conflict carries such powerful symbolic and emotional charge among people far removed from the battlefield. [ExS]

Extract 86

Each of us must earn the trust of his fellow men and women, no matter what t*heir* race, colour or creed, and learn to trust *them* in turn. That is what the founders of this Organization believed in it is what I believe in. *It* is what the vast majority of people in this world believe in. [ExS]

These Extracts (82-86) show how the third person personal pronoun and its variants were used in the speeches. Five instances were selected to represent how the speaker varied his choice of these pronouns and what the choice depicted in the contexts of use. The first two were taken from EnS and the

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next three sets taken from ExS, to represent all instances of the usage of the third person pronoun.

He and *She*, as used in Extract 82, refer to imaginary character(s) who had worked with the Secretariat, just like himself. The use of *It* in most of the cases in the data sets was either as a dummy 'it' or anaphoric referent. For example, in 'It is up to us to prove to the Member States…' (Extract 83). *It* was used as the subject of the clause, and not as an anaphoric reference. However, in some cases, *it* was used as an anaphoric reference. In Extract 85, the *it* makes an anaphoric reference to Arab-Israeli conflict as one regional conflict. Also, *they*, *them* and *thei*r are also used anaphorically:

(a) *It* is up to us to prove to the Member States that *their* contributions are used wisely and efficiently for the implementations of programmes which *they* have mandated.(Extract 83)

(b) Each of us must earn the trust of his fellow men and women, no matter what t*heir* race, colour or creed, and learn to trust *them* in turn. That is what the founders of this Organization believed in it is what I believe in. *It* is what the vast majority of people in this world believe in.(Extract 86)

In these two Extracts (83 and 86), *they* and *their* make back reference to Member States as used in Extract 83 whilst *their and them* referred back to the antecedent, 'fellow men and women'. The possessive, *its* (Extract 84), "…, dynamic United Nations at *its* centre" also referred to the United Nations.

A different worldview on vocative address was projected in Zeng and Wang (2019) where the choice of personal pronouns as subjects are considered to have vocative function in political speeches. It argues that,

generally, the first personal pronoun "we" reflects two meanings, inclusive and exclusive. Also, the choice of the second person "you" connects the speaker and the audience by making them feel the face-to-face interaction which tends to trigger their emotional resonance easily. This allows the speaker to gain the attention of the listeners as well. This explains the reasons for the absence of the focus on third person pronoun in most institutional discourse studies on interpersonality (Akoto et al, 2021; Akoto & Afful, 2022; Guo, Rahman & Hadi, 2020). On the contrary, Ilie (2009) intimated that as far as the parliamentary use of pronominal form of address is concerned, the third person is officially acknowledged pronominal form of address in the House of Commons (U. K), and counts as the default form of address. There is, however, a switch from the third to the second person or vice versa in the Swedish parliament.

To sum up, personal pronouns were used to establish interpersonality by spelling out speaker-listener roles in the speech events. In the case of this study, the first person personal pronoun, *I* and its variants, *me*, and *my* referred to the speaker. This choice indicated individuality in role, a sense of responsibility and authority solely invested in the speaker. The plural forms of the first person, *we*, *us*, *our*, and *ourselves*, were used to show inclusivity in role, a sense of team-spirit and a shared responsibility. In this context, both the speaker and the listener(s) roles were integrated. Also, the second person personal pronoun, *you*, and its variant, *your* were used as referent for the listeners, and in the context of the speeches, the listeners involved the staff of the UN (in EnS), the staff, and other dignitaries present at the time (in ExS). The third person, *He*/*She*/ *It*, *they*, *them*, and *their* were used since they

projected the sense of distance from the speaker and the spoken about. In the study, *he*, *she*, *they*, t*hem* and *their* were minimally used; however, *it* was either used as dummy in most of the cases or as references to an idea previously stated by the speaker.

Vocative Address

On vocative address, the study recorded minimal use. In the instances that they were used, vocative addresses were seen as a form of greeting and acknowledgement of the target audience. Aside being used as a form of greeting and acknowledgement, vocative address terms in these two key speeches call for the attention of key personalities present when the speeches were delivered. Halliday and Matthiessen (2014) confirm that this function of vocative is the speaker's way of eliciting the participation of the addressee(s) in a speech exchange. The following Table presents distribution of vocative addresses in the data sets:

Table 6: Distribution of Vocative Address in the Data Sets

Vocative Address	Entry Speech(EnS)	Exit Speech(ExS)	Total Frequency	Percentage (%)
Friends and Colleagues	1	-	1	**14.2%**
Madam President	-	3	3	**43%**
Excellencies	-	1	1	**14.2%**
Ladies and Gentlemen	-	1	1	**14.2%**
Dear friends	**-**	1	1	**14.2%**
Total	**1**	**6**	**7**	**100%**

Table 6 presents the distribution of vocative address. The highest on the distribution is the term, 'Madam President', which recorded 43% whilst 14.2% was recorded for the others— 'Friends and Colleagues', 'Excellencies', 'Ladies and Gentlemen', and 'Dear friends'. In all, a total of five vocative address terms characterised both data sets.

In EnS, only one vocative address term was used as a call out for attention. The speaker used 'Friends and Colleagues' as an introductory expression in his speech to call for the attention of the audience present. By that reference, the speaker presupposed the idea of inclusivity in the tasks ahead. One uses *friends* only when they see they can count on them to accomplish a task. By adding the noun, c*olleagues*, not only was the speaker looking up to the target audience for support but also saw himself as part of whatever was expected from them even though he was the Secretary-General elect. In effect, the idea of inclusivity and team-spirit is inherent in the noun phrase, 'Friends and Colleagues'.

In ExS, the speaker used four vocatives— 'Madam President', 'Excellencies', 'Ladies and Gentlemen', and 'dear friends' to express order of importance and respect for protocol, especially, at such a platform full of diplomats. Just as in EnS, the address terms were similarly used as a form of greeting and acknowledgement of the most important personalities present at the time the speech was delivered. The role of the addressee(s) by the addresser/speaker cannot be neglected in such circumstances where vocatives are ordered. Typically, in ExS, *Madam President's* role was made distinct by the speaker's consistent reference to her from time to time, and the gender (female) was not overlooked. This suggests that the President was equally the

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chairperson for the programme or event and by extension, respect had to be accorded her. Significantly, it could be inferred from the ordering of the address terms that the power of the President of the Organisation supersedes that of any other dignitary (such as presidents of nations and other diplomats) present. In effect, the concept of power play in the ordering of the vocative address terms cannot be overlooked. However, in the closing remarks of ExS, the speaker recognised the President and the staff of the UN as a way of extending his appreciation and recognition of them amongst the rest of the audience. Attention was drawn to these personalities to distinguish them from the rest of the audience. The purpose was to make them stand tall and further make their roles in the Organisation stand out. This is in agreement with Brown and Gilman's (1960) T-V binary model.

To conclude, the speaker used vocatives as an interpersonal feature for a number of purposes. In EnS, the use of *Friends and Colleagues*, not only called for the attention of the audience but it also affirmed the speaker's perception of inclusivity in the Organisation. In ExS, choices like *Madam President*, *Excellencies*, and *Ladies and Gentlemen* clearly spelt out the listener/ receptor roles in the speech event. Whereas these vocatives were used as a form of greeting and attention getter, they further inherently presented the power status of the group of audience at the time the speeches were delivered. For instance, the reference to the *President* assumes the superior status followed by *Excellencies* present and the rest of the audience considered as *Ladies and Gentlemen*. Finally, the use of *Dear Friends* presupposed the speaker's sense of cordiality with the listeners. The speaker's sense of cordiality was realised in such choices.

Nonetheless, in the religious discourse— biblical context (Wang, 2014), vocatives like names (God, Moses) created an exchange in a dialogue identifying both the addresser and addressee, and that reinforces "you-me" dimension of meaning. In the academic discourse community, address forms such as personal names, titles, descriptive terms and catch phrase are used to construct the individual and social identity of students (Afful, 2006; Afful, 2007). Awoonor-Aziaku (2021) agrees with this and reveals that students use title plus last names, honorifics, and zero address in addressing lecturers while lecturers use first names, nicknames and avoidance strategies in addressing students— these strategies are dependent on two factors (culture and relationship). In the parliamentary set-up, Ilie (2009) concluded that through the use of alternative addressing strategies, MPs' multiple roles are instantiated in terms of their relationships with the Speaker of the House, with interlocutors and with the multi-voiced audience of fellow MPs. The shifting use of address-oriented, speaker-oriented and audience-oriented forms of address is dependent on in-group positioning, institutionally hierarchical status, interpersonal relations and political goals. Accordingly for Davies (1986), these noun vocatives play expressive function in English. In effect, the use of these terms projected the interpersonal meaning— of inclusivity, cordiality, power in the speech events; and each discourse community and its practices determine the choice of vocatives.

The context of the present study agrees to the fact that vocatives in the diplomatic setting are employed based on factors like inclusivity and cordiality principles (in-group), formality rules (high rank within the group to the lower

of ranks); these factors are influenced by the practices and culture of the diplomatic discourse environment.

Chapter Summary

This chapter presented the analysis and discussion guided by three research questions which aimed at investigating interpersonality in Kofi Annan's entry and exit speeches to the UN. I adopted a qualitative approach to this study and specifically used Halliday's interpersonal theory in SFL for my analysis and discussion. The study investigated interpersonal features like mood, modality and polarity, personal pronoun and vocative address choices in the data sets.

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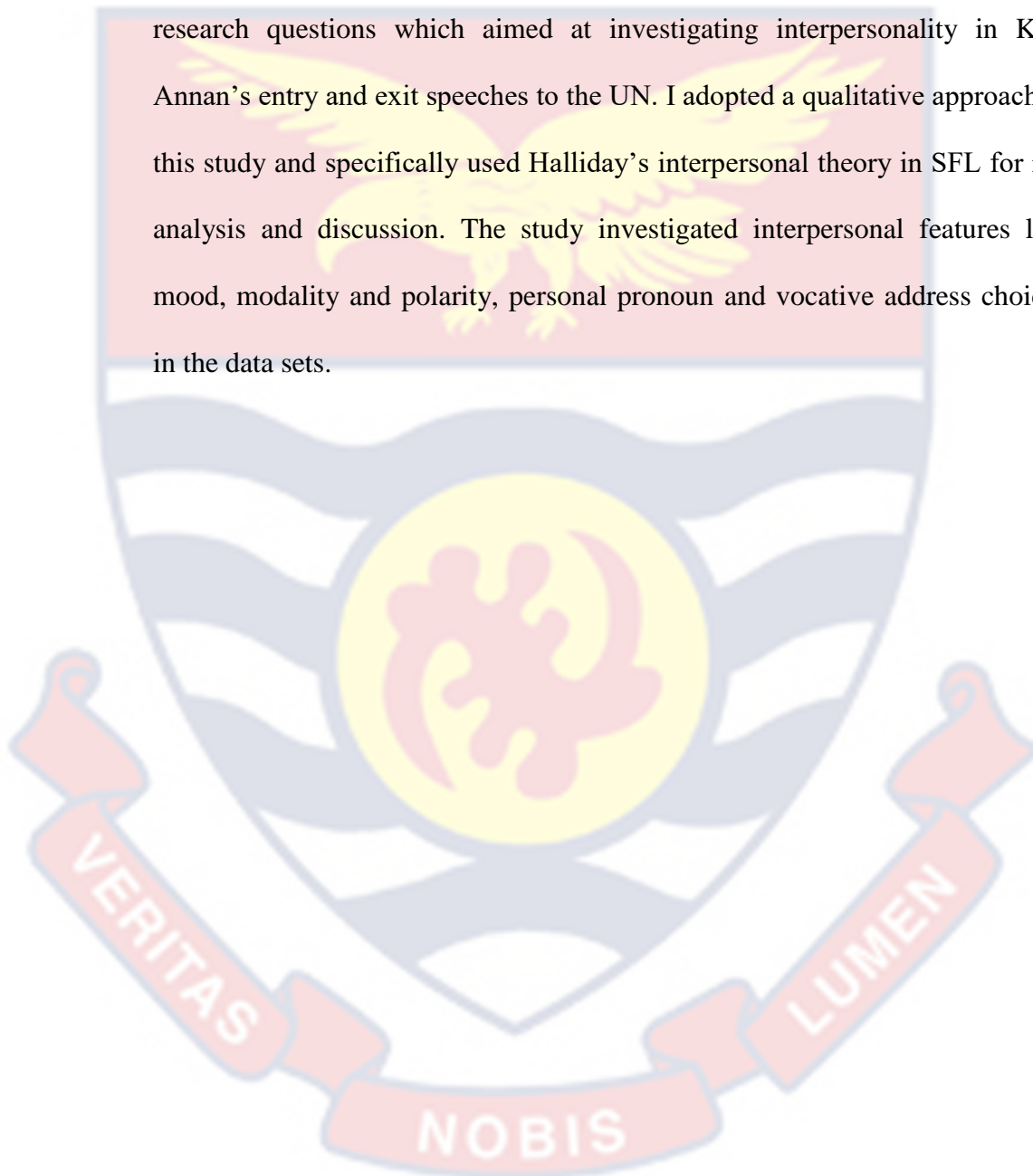
CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

In the previous chapter, I presented the analysis and discussion of the study, based on three research questions. This Chapter presents the key findings emanating from the analysis of the data from an interpersonal perspective. The chapter, therefore, provides four specific issues: the summary of the study, the key findings, followed by implications of the study, and recommendations. I end the chapter with a chapter summary.

Summary of the Study

As this study aimed at finding out the interpersonality established in diplomatic language, Kofi Annan, a career diplomat, was used as a case for the study. Two key speeches he delivered during his entry into office and exit of office as UN Secretary-General were used. This study was underpinned by three main objectives: (a) the mood choices in the two key speeches (Entry and Exit speeches to the UN) — that is, EnS and ExS; (b) modality and polarity systems in these two speeches; and (c) personal pronouns and vocative address terms in the speeches.

The study was largely qualitative, employing directed and summative approaches of content/document analysis, based on Halliday's language theory; specific to the study was the interpersonal meaning (metafunctional) theory (Bloor & Bloor, 2004; Eggins, 2004; Halliday, 1994; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004) and Fontaine's (2013) three-strand English clausal analysis. Since interpersonality was the prime objective of this study, I focused on Mood, modality and polarity, personal pronouns and vocative

address terms used in the data sets. In other words, I was guided by Bloor and Bloor (2004), Eggins (2004), Halliday (1994), Halliday and Matthiessen (2004) and Thompson (2004) in the identification of interpersonal features in the data sets, as Fontaine (2013) became helpful in setting clausal demarcations.

Key Findings

The study focused on three key interpersonal elements— Mood, modality and polarity, personal pronouns and vocative address terms. The following are key findings of the study:

In the first research question targeted at Mood choices, I observed the use of two Mood choices (Declarative and Interrogative) in the two key speeches. The Declarative Mood, however, dominated the study as compared to the Interrogative Mood. This is similar in most of the public speeches within the political, apolitical, and other institutional discourses (for example, legal and religious discourse) [as in Bankole & Ayoola, 2014; Guo & Rahman Hadi, 2020; Ye, 2010; Zeng & Wang, 2019] where Declarative Mood dominates other Mood choices. These two Mood choices (Declarative and Interrogative) relate to the Indicative network system which usually is used to exchange information. In the study, these two Mood choices enabled the speaker to assume the role of informant whilst the target audience assumed the recipient/receiver role. In both choices, the speaker was able to blend the role of disseminating information to the audience through the use of Declarative and Interrogative Mood choices. Though, generally, Interrogative choices are meant to question and seek information, in this study, the speaker used them (Interrogatives) to attract the attention of the audience. Also, the speaker used

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that approach to sustain the attention of the audience members by making them reflect on the question at hand. This finding is in sharp contrast to courtroom discourse (for example, cross examination) where Interrogative Mood demands verbal responses (Ahialey, 2011).

The second research question was to investigate modality and polarity used in the data sets. The study affirmed that modality choices were made from high, medium to low commitment of truth value. The speaker used modality and polarity systems to express his judgement, commitment and worldview of propositions. Modality system choices were mostly modal verbs which conveyed willingness, possibilities, and commitment to obligations. For instance, the speaker's use of *will/would* (modulated) conveyed binding obligations on the participants (speaker/listeners) to the propositions; modalized *will/would* were used to express the speaker's commitment to the truth of the propositions. Also, *must* and *have to* conveyed high commitment to obligation and the truth value of a proposition. *Can/could*; *shall/should* and *may/might* communicated ability, willingness and possibilities that existed in his assertions. Last, his polarity choices equally revealed his judgement and commitment to whatever he said. Usually, the negative particle *not* was either attached to the modal verb or a finite verb operator (for example, 'should', 'is', 'do',) and other times negative particles like *never*, *no more* were used as polarity markers. The modalized polarity choices conveyed commitment to denouncing or disagreeing with a claim or assertion.

Thirdly, personal pronouns and vocatives which are features in interpersonal language were interrogated and the study confirmed that personal pronouns in the first, second, third persons (singular and plural)

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cases— subjective, objective and possessive variants were used. Both EnS and ExS, made good use of the first person personal pronoun— *I* /*Me*/*My* and *We*/ *Ours*/*Ourselves*, and second person, *You* and its variants in the subjective, objective and possessive (adjectival) cases respectively. In all cases these pronouns were used, the impact and intentions were communicated to the audience (listeners) and the speech roles were assigned through the use of pronouns.

Also, the plural of the first person was used to show inclusivity in roles and responsibility towards the agenda of the UN. While the second person personal pronoun, *You* and its variants were used to make reference to the listening audience usually. In EnS, 'you' was used in reference to the Staff of the UN and in ExS, 'you' was used as referent to the audience present which included excellencies (presidents and leaders) from the rest of the world present, the members of the UN present and the staff of the UN. As indicated by Akoto (2020), Akoto et al. (2021) and Akoto et al. (2021), these triumvirate pronouns (*I*/*We* and *You*) can either have metadiscursive and non-metadiscursive referent, especially in the classroom lecture situation, and three referents— lecturer, students and lecturer + students. The *I* and *we*-lecturer referents project lecturers' authorial visibility in the classroom discourse and the *you*-lecturer referent is employed to a depersonalised stance. The *I* and *we*-student referent shows rhetorical transfer of status from novices to the position of high power. Additionally, the third person (*he*, *she*, *it*) and the plural, *they* and its variants were sparingly used in the speeches. In effect, the speaker used personal pronouns to spell out speaker-listener roles in the communication event.

Further, vocative address played an important role in expressing interpersonality. In using vocatives, the speaker enacts the participation of the listener(s) in the speech event. In the study, the vocatives were used to call for the attention of the listeners; they equally served identification purposes where particular individuals amongst the audience were specially set apart from the rest of the audience. Also, the idea of power play came to light with the use of vocatives and their order of arrangement. For instance, the use of *friends* as an address to the audience reveals the cordial nature of the speaker. The idea of inclusivity and team-spirit is inherent in the use of vocative, *Friends and Colleagues*. Also, the order of arrangement of these vocatives— *Madam President*, *Excellencies* and *Ladies and Gentlemen*— is used to express order of importance and respect for protocol. This ordering also projected the concept of power, especially, at such a platform full of diplomats. It could be inferred from the ordering that the President of the Organisation wields more power than any other personality present.

These address terms were similarly used as a form of greeting and acknowledgement of the most important personalities present at the time the speeches were delivered. As indicated in Afful (2006), the use of honorific titles (for example, *Sir* and *Madam*) shows the addressee's 'dignified deportment', significant age difference and the possibility of the addresser having been taught by the addressee. Similarly, Awoonor-Aziaku (2021) focused on address and reference terms in the classroom discourse at the University of Cape Coast. It revealed that students use title plus last names (TLN), honorifics (Hon) and avoidance strategies in addressing lecturers. It established that the address and reference terms employed in the academic

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setting are dependent on two factors—culture and relationship. In relation to the current study, address forms are minimally used and factors such as respect of institutional hierarchical status, interpersonal relation and in-group factors play a major role. Unlike the parliamentary setting where addressing and referring forms are abused to pursue political agendas— undermining political opponents, challenging institutional role distribution and hierarchy of status (Ilie, 2009), the opposite is the case in diplomatic contexts.

Implications of the Study

As far as I know, this is the first study of its kind in diplomatic discourse from the Ghanaian context, with its emphasis on the practicality of diplomacy as much as possible, using concrete texts in diplomatic environment. The study, therefore, has implications for theory, scholarship, and practice.

First, the study has contributed to the theory of interpersonality in a significant way. Halliday and Matthiessen (2014) considered, in a more general sense, an aspect of meaning of the clause, its interpersonal meaning as an exchange particularly postulating the principal grammatical system as MOOD. However, this study has demonstrated the practicality of interpersonality in a specified institutionalised discourse, particularly diplomatic discourse. The study pointed out interpersonal systems have the potential of revealing aspects of discourses and other sociolinguistic elements in such specialised discourses.

Secondly, this study contributes to diplomatic discourse studies. As a study of its kind in the Ghanaian context, it has great impact on the knowledge pool of the language of diplomacy in Ghana and the rest of the world. The

study provides an empirical view on diplomacy. This study makes it empirically possible to understand the concepts of diplomatic discourse and practices from the perspective of interpersonality. Diplomatic discourse production and translation are interpersonally prominent (Zhang, 2015), and quintessence of personal contact remains its substance (Kamel, 2001; Nick, 2001).

These two main aforementioned contributions of the study have implications for the practice of diplomacy. The study, to a great extent, demystifies diplomatic practices as the study is concerned with the conduct of diplomats and how this is reflected in their language choices. Diplomats are seen as responsible and take active part in the crafting and production of their discourses; thereby, reflecting their personality and what they stand for (ideological) implications. For the practice, representatives of diplomatic communities in countries can be made to understand the community and the appropriate language use to reflect the norms, values and beliefs of the community (Berridge & James, 2003; Freeman & Marks, 2019). Significantly, the theoretical view helped in unravelling the diplomatic use of language. This has the potency of building the lexicology of diplomacy.

Finally, the study has an equal value for International Relations (IRs) and foreign policies. The impact of the present study on International Relations is in its nature of unveiling how language can be used to minimise typical crisis situations. Thus, the influence and impact this work has on IRs is the conceptualisation and practice of language use to resolve and avert catastrophic situations in the world. Foreign representatives (for example, diplomats, high commissioners, ambassadors) could, therefore, be educated

on the need for mitigated language choices to avoid crisis and the relevance of language that seeks to promote peace and drive home foreign policies and agenda to help make the world a better place.

Recommendations for Further Research

The following are recommendations for further research, based on the key findings:

First, since my study only paid attention to a written- to be -spoken text, I recommend a study to be conducted using spoken data where attention would be devoted to prosodic features of the spoken texts such as intonation, tonality, stress, volume, pitch , pauses and tempo. These features will help uncover other linguistic features beyond interpersonality in diplomatic context.

Second, my study focused on interpersonal metafunction of the language in diplomatic context. I recommend, therefore, different theoretical approaches in that other features like transitivity and interpersonal metaphors can be thoroughly investigated. For instance, a further investigation into extensive metaphors in modality systems either in this same study or a similar study can be undertaken. This will uncover the choices beyond modal verbs and pay attention to other modality systems like modal adverbs, and verbs that convey modality. Significant revelation could show the reason behind the choice of modalization and modulation.

Finally, I recommend that more studies in the area of diplomacy and International Relations be given needed attention by evolving researchers. Studies in these important areas can be conducted either in a synchronic or a diachronic way. For instance, diplomatic discourse analysis on crisis situations

or in war torn environment and the resultant effect of the discourse can be studied.

Chapter Summary

This chapter presented a summary, key findings, implications of the study, and suggestions for further research. In this concluding chapter, I highlighted the findings based on three research questions which sought to investigate interpersonality in diplomatic discourse. Guided by the research questions, the key findings made it possible for logical speculations and contributions, and suggestions for further research to be made.

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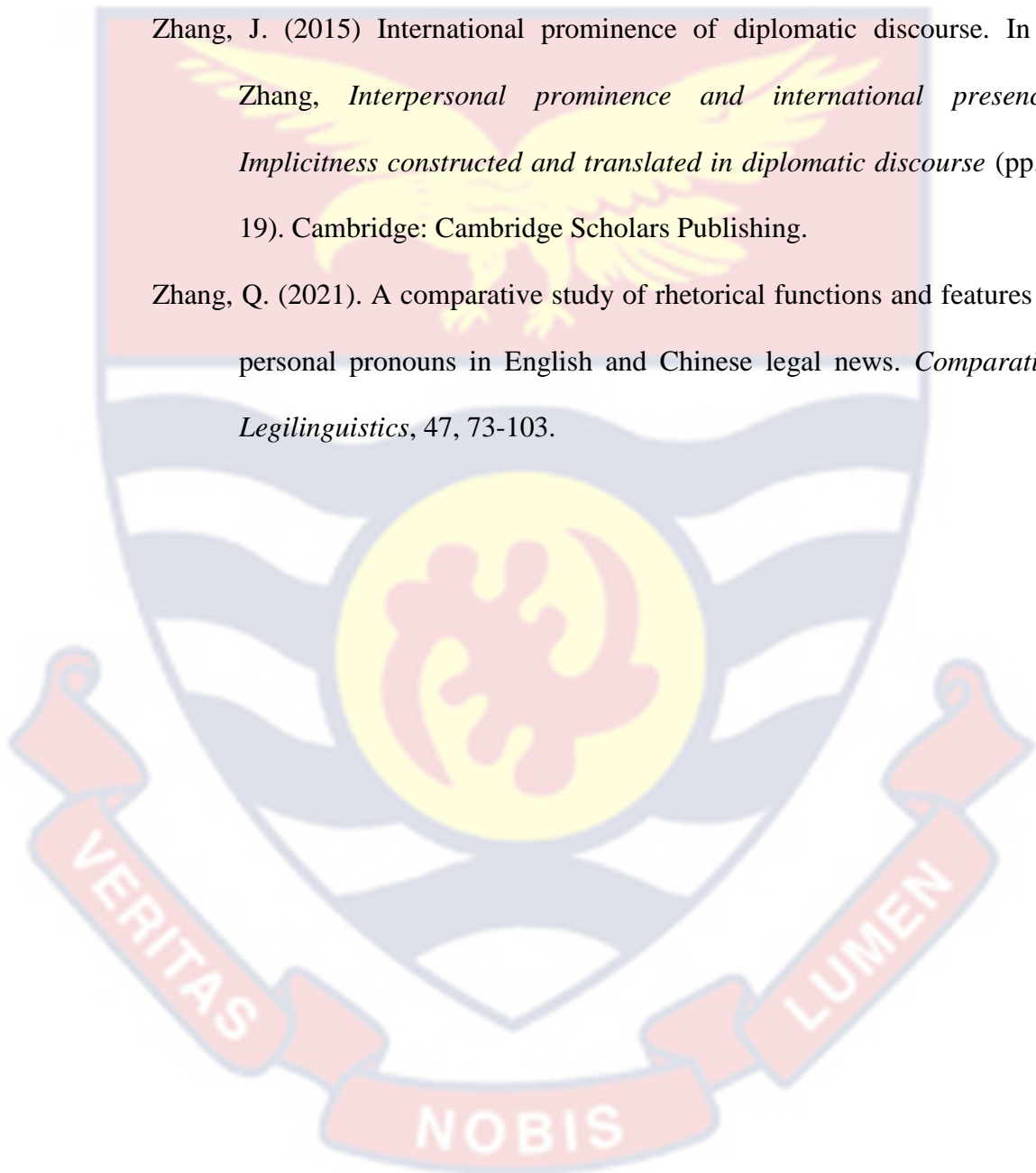
APPENDICES

Appendix A: Fontaine's (2013) Three-strand Analysis
8.3 THE THREE-STRAND ANALYSIS

The three-strand analysis refers to the analysis of the clause with respect to each main metafunction (strand of meaning). Grammatical analysis, when envisaged in this way, forms the basis of a functional investigation into language use and as such it is a critically important step in any interpretation of the functions of language.

8.3.1 Overview of the ten steps

The grammatical analysis is applied to individual clauses and the segmentation stage involves identifying possible clauses, restoring any ellipsed items, identifying verbal groups, locating the Finite element, and verifying clause boundaries based on number of verb groups and the recognition of embedded clauses. The ten steps in the grammatical analysis, as presented below, assume that the initial segmentations stage has been completed.

Step 1: Identifying the process and expected participants

Step 2: Verify boundaries of internal structures

Step 3: Determine the process type and participant roles

Step 4: Identify any circumstance roles

Step 5: Identify the Finite

Step 6: Identify the Subject

Step 7: Determine the mood of the clause

Step 8: Identify all the markers of modality and polarity

Step 9: Locate the experiential Theme of the clause

Step 10: Check for any another thematic elements

(Fontaine 2013, pp. 192-194)

Appendix B: EnS

DESCRIPTION

`Nobody Argues with Success', Says Kofi Annan In Address to Staff; `My Mission, However Impossible, Is Your Mission Too'

The following is Secretary-General Kofi Annan's address to United Nations staff today:

Friends and colleagues, As I speak here today to United Nations staff around the world, my feelings are both of humility and of pride. I am humbled by the enormous task ahead of me, by the daunting responsibilities that the Secretary-General is called upon to shoulder. But I also feel greatly honoured. Not only personally but, most of all, as a fellow member of the Secretariat for so many years -- as one of you.

The selection of a career staff member for the position of Secretary- General carries with it a recognition of all of you, the staff of the Organization. For we are above all a team. I do not think anyone who achieves success in the Secretariat can rightfully claim that he or she has done it alone. I have always believed that success is possible only when it is built on the support and cooperation of others. We have worked together successfully for many years. Today, I am counting on your continued support, your commitment and your dedication to the essential work of the Organization.

I once read that the worst thing that can happen to you in your career is to get to the top of the ladder only to find that it has been placed against the wrong wall. I do not think there are many of us here today who are in any danger of facing that frustration. Quite the reverse. If I remember correctly, one of the questions in a recent Staff Union survey was: "After your experience with the United Nations, if you could go back in time, would you join it again?". An overwhelming majority of those surveyed answered that yes, they would. As one who has spent more than three decades with the Organization, I can understand that response very well. Service with the United Nations is more than just a job. It is a calling. No one joins the Secretariat to become rich and famous, to be appreciated and applauded, to live a life of ease and comfort.

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We join the United Nations because we want to serve the world community; because we believe this planet can be a better and more secure place; and because above all, we want to devote our time, our intellect and our energies to making it so.

Wherever we are -- in New York, Geneva, Vienna and Nairobi, in the regional commissions, the information centres and every mission, programme and operation -- and whatever task we may have, political, technical, military or clerical, we are there because we want to ensure a brighter future for all the human race.

Since my election, I have received an overwhelming outpouring of confidence, encouragement and goodwill from colleagues all around the world. That has been both comforting and inspiring. All of you want to see the creation of a more efficient and responsive Organization. All of you want an Organization which works together more effectively in the pursuit of common goals. All of you want a United Nations better able to meet and address the immense challenges facing the international community.

Today, I repeat the pledge I made in the General Assembly, that the next five years must be, above all, a time for healing.

We must heal the financial crisis of the Organization, which cannot be expected to move forward if it is dragged down by the burden of unpaid dues. But at bottom the financial crisis is a political crisis -- a crisis of faith in the Organization. It is up to us to prove to the Member States that their contributions are used wisely and efficiently for the implementation of programmes which they have mandated.

We must heal relations between the Secretariat and the Member States, and put an end to the acrimony that has characterized some recent exchanges in this house. Every staff member has a part to play in this effort, above all by performing your functions to the very best of your ability. We know that much of the criticism of the Secretariat has been arbitrary and unfair; but we must remain open to honest and constructive criticism. We also know that we can do more to restore the confidence of the international community in us.

In this process, we must heal the morale of the Secretariat. You have all been living with the spectre of downsizing and job insecurity. I know that these have been difficult and challenging times. We must, however, carry on, secure

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in our ideals, moved by the strength of our convictions. The next five years are not going to be a period of convalescence but of resurgence. This is the time when we -- all of us together -- face the exciting prospect of carrying our Organization into the twenty-first century.

The challenge of this new adventure is formidable, for the Member States and for us. It is up to the Member States to define what they want the United Nations to be and to do -- to outline their vision of the goals they want us to attain, and to set new priorities. But it is up to us to shape this instrument of peace and progress to fit that new identity, to chart a route towards those goals, to develop the skills required to meet these challenges.

This means that we will need to reform. To many of our critics, reform just means more cuts, and so I understand that talk of reform may be viewed with concern by some of you. That reminds me of a wise person who was once asked whether we should be concerned, or even fearful, about the future. The reply was: Why should we be concerned? We have had so much experience with the future, by now it is familiar to us.

It is the same with reform. Sometimes, it must seem that the United Nations does nothing but reform. What we have to do now is not undertake more half-measures or rush to embrace new changes. We must take stock. We must look at ourselves from top to bottom, so that this time we can use reform as a tool to make this Organization more effective and successful. One principle should be of overriding importance. Reform is not an end in itself. It is a tool to create a more relevant and a more effective Organization. Reform should not simply mean change for its own sake -- that is the path to disruption rather than to meaningful and long-lasting progress.

Neither do I see reform simply in terms of dollars and cents. Of course, the Organization has to be efficient, but not to the point of threatening our effectiveness in fulfilling important mandates. I do not believe the disjointed incrementalism of the past, with its baggage of duplications and overlaps, was a positive evolution. Equally, I have never believed that disjointed downsizing, with arbitrary staff cuts that weaken essential capabilities, can bring real improvement.

It is not reform when, for lack of funds, we have to turn our backs on massacres and suffering and the collapse of civil society. Real reform will

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enable us to put in place new mechanisms for confronting the world's political and economic crises promptly, courageously and efficiently.

Real reform requires an ongoing search for excellence -- in our structures, in our procedures, in our methods, and above all, in the performance of our staff. In this I will not compromise. I expect from each and every staff member, at all levels, a total commitment to excellence. I expect the Secretariat to work together and at all times to function properly as a global team. I expect staff members to be flexible and mobile, and willing to serve wherever they can best contribute to the Organization's tasks.

As we reshape and rebuild for the future, it is quite possible that some units, functions or occupations in the Secretariat will be lost. Our task is to see this not as some unforeseen disaster but as a normal development in a constantly evolving Organization, and deal with it through procedures that are fair, transparent and humane.

In turn, for those serving the world in the last years of the twentieth century and preparing it for a new millennium, I will strive to ensure that Member States recognize your efforts and grant you the best conditions of service possible. No more must Governments vote to limit the salaries and benefits of United Nations staff while subsidizing their own nationals in the Secretariat. We must have one international civil service, with competitive conditions of service and practices for all of you irrespective of where you are from. I pledge to you today that we will develop a new management culture in the Organization. Our senior managers across the world must understand their obligation to properly manage the staff -- the human resources -- entrusted to their care. It is my intention to hold my managers accountable for providing the full range of career support to their staff in their day-to-day work. We can do more to enhance overall performance by ensuring greater opportunities for growth including promotion and mobility. In my view, managing people is about enabling staff members to "make a difference" -- contribute their best - - to the unique work of the Organization.

Already, I have taken a number of important steps to empower Heads of Departments to take more decisions in their fields of work. I remain strongly committed to delegation of authority and I intend to ensure that senior United Nations managers exercise appropriately and responsibly the authority that is delegated to them.

As a former Assistant Secretary-General for Human Resources Management, I know the value of open and frank communication between staff and management. I have already met yesterday with your Staff Committee. The views of staff at all levels -- expressed both individually and through elected staff representatives -- are of abiding interest to me. It may not always be possible to meet all of the expectations of staff, but I pledge to you today that your Secretary-General and his senior management team will listen carefully to your concerns and aspirations. My decisions will always be taken with the best interests of the United Nations -- and therefore of its staff -- at heart. The staff of this Organization are its most precious asset. You have suffered from misinformation and even disinformation for long enough. We can always do more to tell our story, but in the long term, there is really only one

guaranteed prescription for dealing with unjustified criticism. It is for each and every one of us to keep giving of his or her very best.

At this time, let us recall the great sacrifices that many of our staff have made in the cause of the United Nations around the world. Each year, some have made the ultimate sacrifice. In tribute to those of our colleagues who have lost their lives in the service of the Organization, I call upon you all to rise and stand for a moment's silence.

We are the United Nations, and we believe our Organization can fulfil the vision of our Charter, of a world where "we the peoples" strive together for peace, freedom, economic and social justice and human rights. But the burden of proof is on us. The strength of our convictions will lead others to believe. The excellence of our performance will turn our detractors into supporters. We all know, nobody argues with success.

One of my distinguished predecessors spoke of the post of Secretary- General as "the most impossible job in the world". But my mission, however impossible, is your mission too. We are nothing if not a team. And in this team, every member has a vital role to play. Each individual can make a difference. If everyone contributes fully, the result will be far greater than the sum of the parts.

I appeal today to every staff member in every duty station to work with me to make our impossible job possible -- to fulfill the enormous expectations the world has of us. There is no alternative to the United Nations. It is still the last best hope of humanity.

That is our collective challenge. Now let us get on with the job

Appendix C: ExS

10 years after – a farewell statement to the General Assembly

Kofi Annan

I remain convinced that the only answer to this divided world must be a truly United Nations.

Madam President,

Excellencies,

Ladies and Gentlemen,

When I first spoke to you from this podium, in 1997, it seemed to me that humanity faced three great challenges.

One was to ensure that globalization would benefit the human race as a whole, not only its more fortunate members.

Another was to heal the disorder of the post-cold-war world, replacing it with a genuinely new world order of peace and freedom, as envisaged in our Charter.

And the third was to protect the rights and dignity of individuals, particularly women, which were so widely trampled underfoot.

As the second African to serve as Secretary-General, I felt that all three of these challenges – the security challenge; the development challenge; the challenge of human rights and the rule of law – concerned me directly.

Africa was in great danger of being excluded from the benefits of globalization – indeed, of being left to rot on the margins of the world economy.

Africa was also the scene of some of the most protracted and brutal conflicts.

And many of Africa's people felt they were unjustly condemned to be exploited and oppressed, generation after generation, since colonial rule had been replaced by an inequitable economic order on the global level, and sometimes by corrupt rulers and warlords at the local level.

In the decade since then, many people have been struggling to confront these three global challenges. Much has been achieved, but events have also presented us with new challenges – or rather, have given the old ones new form, or a sharper bite.

In the economic arena, both globalization and growth have continued apace.

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Some developing countries, notably in Asia, have played a major role in this growth. Many millions of their people have thereby been released from the prison of perpetual poverty.

Meanwhile, at the level of development policy, the debate has advanced, moving from rival models to agreed targets. And the world has now recognized HIV/AIDS as a major challenge to development, and begun to confront it. I am proud of the role the United Nations has played in this. Development, and the Millennium Development Goals, now take pride of place in all our work.

But let's not delude ourselves. The Asian miracle is yet to be replicated in other parts of the world. And even within the most dynamic Asian countries, its benefits are far from equally shared.

By the same token, the Millennium Goals are unlikely to be achieved everywhere by 2015.

True, in many developing countries there is now a much better understanding of what good governance is, and why it's important. But many still fall short of it in practice.

True, there is progress on debt relief, as well as encouraging promises on aid and investment. But the "global partnership for development" is still more phrase than fact – especially in the all-important area of trade.

My friends, globalization is not a tide that lifts all boats. Even among those who the statistics tell us are benefiting, many are deeply insecure, and strongly resent the apparent complacency of those more fortunate than themselves.

So globalization, which in theory brings us all closer together, in practice risks driving us further apart.

Are we any more secure against the second challenge – the ravages of war?

Again, some statistics would tell us so. There are fewer inter-state conflicts than there used to be; and many civil wars have ended.

Here too, I am proud of the United Nations' role in this. And I am proud of what my fellow Africans have achieved in ending many of the conflicts that disfigured our continent.

But here too, we should be under no illusion.

In far too many parts of the world – especially the developing world – people are still exposed to brutal conflicts, fought with small but deadly weapons.

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And people in all parts of the world are threatened – though some are more aware of it than others – by the spread of weapons of mass destruction. It is shameful that last year's Summit Outcome does not contain even one word about non-proliferation and disarmament – basically because states could not agree which of the two should be given priority. It is high time to end this dispute, and tackle both tasks with the urgency they demand.

Moreover, just as some who benefit from globalization may feel threatened by it, so, many who are statistically safer from conflict do not feel safe.

For that, we have terrorism to thank. It kills and maims relatively few people, compared to other forms of violence and conflict. But it spreads fear and insecurity. And that in turn drives people to huddle together with those who share their beliefs or their way of life, while shunning those who appear "alien".

Thus, at the very time when international migration has brought millions of people of different creed or culture to live as fellow-citizens, the misconceptions and stereotypes underlying the idea of a "clash of civilizations" have come to be more and more widely shared; and insensitivity towards other people's beliefs or sacred symbols – intentional or otherwise – is seized upon by those who seem eager to foment a new war of religion, this time on a global scale.

Moreover, this climate of fear and suspicion is constantly refuelled by the violence in the Middle East.

We might like to think of the Arab-Israeli conflict as just one regional conflict amongst many. But it is not. No other conflict carries such a powerful symbolic and emotional charge among people far removed from the battlefield.

As long as the Palestinians live under occupation, exposed to daily frustration and humiliation; and as long as Israelis are blown up in buses and in dance-halls: so long will passions everywhere be inflamed.

On one side, supporters of Israel feel that it is harshly judged, by standards that are not applied to its enemies – and too often this is true, particularly in some UN bodies.

On the other side, people are outraged by the disproportionate use of force against the Palestinians, and by Israel's continued occupation and confiscation of Arab land.

As long as the Security Council is unable to end this conflict, and the now nearly 40-year-old occupation, by bringing both sides to accept and implement its resolutions, so long will respect for the United Nations continue to decline. So long, too, will our impartiality be questioned. So long will our best efforts to resolve other conflicts be resisted, including those in Iraq and Afghanistan, whose peoples need our help just as badly, and are entitled to it. And so long will our devoted and courageous staff, instead of being protected by the blue flag, find themselves exposed to rage and violence, provoked by policies they neither control nor support.

But what about the third great challenge facing humanity – the challenge of the rule of law, and our rights and dignity as human beings? Here, too, there has been significant progress.

More rights have been enshrined in international treaties – and this Assembly is now about to codify the rights of a group who particularly need it: people who suffer from handicaps and disabilities.

More governments today are elected by, and are accountable to, those whom they govern.

Humanity has actually brought to justice some of those who committed the most heinous crimes against it.

And this Assembly, meeting last year at the highest level, has solemnly proclaimed the responsibility – of each individual State in the first instance, but ultimately of the whole international community, acting through the United Nations – to "protect populations from genocide, war crimes, ethnic cleansing and crimes against humanity".

And yet. And yet.

Every day, reports reach us of new laws broken; of new bestial crimes to which individuals and minority groups are subjected.

Even the necessary and legitimate struggle around the world against terrorism is used as a pretext to abridge or abrogate fundamental human rights, thereby ceding moral ground to the terrorists and helping them find new recruits.

Sadly, once again the biggest challenge comes from Africa – from Darfur, where the continued spectacle of men, women and children driven from their homes by murder, rape and the burning of their villages makes a mockery of our claim, as an international community, to shield people from the worst abuses.

In short, Madam President, the events of the last ten years have not resolved, but sharpened, the three great challenges I spoke of – an unjust world economy, world disorder, and widespread contempt for human rights and the rule of law. As a result, we face a world whose divisions threaten the very notion of an international community, upon which this institution stands.

And this is happening at the very time when, more than ever before, human beings throughout the world form a single society. So many of the challenges we face are global. They demand a global response, in which all peoples must play their part.

I deliberately say "all peoples", echoing the preamble of our Charter, and not "all states". It was clear to me ten years ago, and is even clearer now, that international relations are not a matter of States alone. They are relations between peoples, in which so-called "non-state actors" play a vital role, and can make a vital contribution. All must play their part in a true multilateral world order, with a renewed, dynamic United Nations at its centre.

Yes, I remain convinced that the only answer to this divided world must be a truly United Nations. Climate change, HIV/AIDS, fair trade, migration, human rights – all these issues, and many more, bring us back to that point. Addressing each is indispensable for each of us in our village, in our neighbourhood, and in our country. Yet each has acquired a global dimension that can only be reached by global action, agreed and coordinated through this most universal of institutions.

What matters is that the strong, as well as the weak, agree to be bound by the same rules, to treat each other with the same respect.

What matters is that all peoples accept the need to listen; to compromise; to take each other's views into account.

What matters is that they come together, not at cross purposes but with a common purpose: a common purpose - to shape their common destiny.

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And that can only happen if peoples are bound together by something more than just a global market, or even a set of global rules.

Each of us must share the pain of all who suffer, and the joy of all who hope, wherever in the world they may live.

Each of us must earn the trust of his fellow men and women, no matter what their race, colour or creed, and learn to trust them in turn.

That is what the founders of this Organization believed in. It is what I believe in. It is what the vast majority of people in this world want to believe in.

And that is what has spurred the reforms and new ideas of the United Nations over the last frenetic decade. From peacekeeping to peacebuilding, from human rights to development and humanitarian relief, I have been lucky enough to preside over the Secretariat – and its wonderful, devoted staff – at a time when your ambitions for the Organization have sometimes seemed limitless – although your pocket books less so.

These last few weeks, especially, as I travelled through the Middle East, I saw again the legitimacy and the reach of the United Nations. Its indispensable role in securing the peace in Lebanon has reminded us all how powerful this Organization can be, when everyone wants it to succeed.

Madam President, dear friends:

This is the last time I shall have the honour of presenting my annual report to this Assembly. Let me conclude by thanking you all for allowing me to serve as Secretary-General during this remarkable decade.

Together we have pushed some big rocks to the top of the mountain, even if others have slipped from our grasp and rolled back. But this mountain with its bracing winds and global views is the best place on earth to be.

It's been difficult and challenging, but at times thrillingly rewarding. And while I look forward to resting my shoulder from those stubborn rocks in the next phase of my life, I know I shall miss the mountain. Yes, I shall miss what is, when all is said and done, the world's most exalting job. I yield my place to others with an obstinate feeling, a real obstinate feeling of hope for our common future.

Thank you very much.