AN EXPLORATORY STUDY OF PRAGMATIC INFERENCES IN JOURNALISTIC TEXTS

BY:
MUSTAFA SHAZALI MUSTAFA AHMED

A THESIS SUBMITTED TO THE DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH IN FULFILLMENT FOR REQUIREMENT OF PH. D DEGREE IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE

SUPERVISED BY:
DR. M. AL. BUSIARI
To my dear children.
To their mother

With love and respect
# TABLE OF CONTENTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Acknowledgements</th>
<th>III</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Abstract (English)</td>
<td>IV</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abstract (Arabic)</td>
<td>V</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1. Introduction ................................................................................................. 1

1. Statement of Problems .................................................................................. 3

2. The purpose of the Study .............................................................................. 4

3. Rationale for the Study .................................................................................. 5

1.4. The Significance of the Study ................................................................... 6

1.5. Scope and Limitation of the Study ............................................................ 7

1.6. Research Hypotheses and Questions ......................................................... 8

## CHAPTER TWO: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

1. The Scope of Pragmatics ................................................................................. 11

2. Is pragmatics prior to Semantics................................................................. 18

3. Pragmatics and Sociolinguistics ................................................................. 22

5. Pragmatics Interpretation and Discourse Analysis ...................................... 25
1. Relations Between Pragmatics and Psycholinguistics

6. Pragmatic References

6.1. Deixis

6.1.1. Time Deixis

6.1.2. Erspective Deixis

2.6. Tim Deixis

...
CHAPTER THREE: LITERATURE REVIEW

6.1.5. Discourse Analysis

6.2. Speech Acts Theory

6.2.1. Speech Acts Theory

6.3. Implicature

6.4. Presupposition

7. The Language and Style of Journalism

7.1. Reporting the News as a Process of Communication

7.2. Technicalities of Writing Feature Headlines

7.3. Writing Feature

7.4. Communication Problems
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Chapter</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Pages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Deixis</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Speech Act Studies</td>
<td>93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Implicature Studies</td>
<td>102</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Presupposition</td>
<td>106</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Chamtary</td>
<td>111</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**CHAPTER FOUR: METHODOLOGY AND TEXTUAL ANALYSIS**

1. Deixis and Journalistic Referents
   - 1.1. Time Deixis Category | 1
   - 1.2. Person Deixis category | 2
   - 1.3. Place Deixis Category | 1
   - 1.4. Discourse Deixis Category | 1
   - 1.5. Social Deixis Category | 1
   - 1.6. Speech Acts in Newstories | 1
   
<p>| | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### 1.7. Speech Acts and Advertisements

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subsection</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 2.8. Types of Illocutionary Act and Writing in Journalism

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subsection</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### 2.8.A.
- request', 5
- advice', 9
- question'  
- advertise'  

#### 2.8.B.
- Thank for' 6
- Congratul' 3
- : Human
- stories...

#### 2.8.C.
- assert', 6
- State tha 5
- firm ar
- writing
- values...

### 4.2.9. ‘Manner’ and ‘Quality’ implicature Maxims and Writing Headlines

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subsection</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 4.2.10. Presupposition and New-Stories

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subsection</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## CHAPTER FIVE: RESULTS AND CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

1. Introduction ........................................................................................................... 0
   .............................................................................................................................. 2

2. Summary .................................................................................................................. 0
   .............................................................................................................................. 5

3. The Findings of the Study ....................................................................................... 0
   .............................................................................................................................. 7

4. Recommendation ................................................................................................... 0
   .............................................................................................................................. 9

References .................................................................................................................. 2
................................................................................................................................. 9

Appendix I. Definition of Key Terms ........................................................................ 2
................................................................................................................................. 5
Appendix II. Speech Acts and Advertisements ........................................ 2
3
0
Appendix III. Presupposition and Comment ........................................... 2
3
3
Appendix IV. Maxims of ‘Manner’, ‘Quality’, and Headlines .................... 2
3
9
Appendix V. Illocutionary Acts And Reporting The News ....................... 2
4
2
Appendix VI. Conversational Implicature and Political Writing ............... 2
4
3
Appendix VII. Definition of Culture ...................................................... 2
4
9
Appendix VIII. Types of Newstories ..................................................... 2
5
4
LIST OF TABLES

Table 4.1. Speech Acts and Advertisement…………………………………139

Table 4.2. Searle’s Illocutionary Act advertisement…………………144

Table 4.3. Indirect Acts of Advertisement and New Writing……………152

Table 4.4. ‘Manner’ and ‘Quality’ Maxims and Headlines and Political realities………………………………………156

Table 4.5. Metaphor and Type of Organization…………………………170

Table 4.6. Idiom and Journalistic Meanings………………………………171
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I am grateful to all those people who have given generously of their time to read the manuscript of this study.

I am also grateful to my supervisor Dr. Muhammad Al-Busairi, Faculty of Arts, University of Khartoum who guided my thinking over the years by pertinent observation and critical comment. Without his help and encouragement, this work would not have been done.

I would like to express my appreciation, too, to Dr. Jubara Abdalla Al-Hassan who helped me to find my way during the
struggle with the proposal and the questions of the study. I am also deeply indebted to the British Council, and Khartoum University, Faculty of Arts, and the Library Services of Internet for providing me with many valuable books and helped me with many abstracts.

I thank them all for their valuable comments, and apologize if I have not done their comments justice in my revisions. The responsibility for those that may be left is mine.

And thanks to Nile Valley University who released me partially, and financed this study.

Thanks to Nada Ahmed Mohammed who typed the manuscript and printed out the thesis.
ABSTRACT

In order to deal competently with the process of communication, one must be able to calculate highly detailed inferences about the nature of assumptions speaker and addressee are making. One should also understand the purposes for which utterances are being used. The ability to calculate these inferences in both production and interpretation is called ‘pragmatics’. The study has tried to explain this theory within the context of journalism so that its assigned role in linguistic theory can clearly be identified.

Chapter two provides insights into the four pragmatic inferences (deixis, speech act, implicature, presupposition); it also draws boundaries between pragmatics, and other fields like
sociolinguistics, psycholinguistic, and semantics. The chapter also provides the reader with some stylistic features of writing in journalism.

Chapter three is a review of twenty-two empirical studies on these inferences. Its main aim is to familiarize the reader with the nature of these inferences.

An investigation and textual analysis have been undertaken in Chapter four to explore the influence and constraints of pragmatic inferences on the meanings of journalistic language.

Results of this textual analysis have displayed pragmatic categories like deixis, speech acts, implicature, and presupposition in various kinds of journalistic texts. The first part of this chapter shows deixis as an important element in calculating journalistic referents. The second part of the chapter illustrates categories of speech act in journalistic advertisement and in the process of reporting the news. Implicature is seen in the flouting of Grice’s
maxim of ‘manner’ and ‘quality’ in writing feature headlines. Presupposition and honorific, figure of speech are shown in the process of reporting the news.

The study also according to what has been hypothesized, arrives at that many issues concerning ‘thesis journalism’ are pragmatic ones. Consequently, this supports the claim, which assumes that pragmatics is prior to semantics, and it is considered as a prerequisite for linguistic communication.
تختص

من أجل المشاركة الإيجابية في الاستعمالات اللغوية كان لا بد للشخص أن يفهم تلك التفاصيل الاستدلالية أو الاستنتاجية طبيعة الأذواق بين المتحدث والمستمع أو الكاتب والقارئ كما يجب مراعاة الأعراض التي من أجلها تستخدم اللغة.

وهذه المقدرة لفهم هذه التفاصيل في حالة التحدث والكتابة أو في حالة الاستماع والقراءة تسمى بالظاهرة البرمجامية. اهتمت هذه الدراسة بتوضيح هذه الظاهرة البرمجامية من خلال دراسة نظرية الصحافة وذلك حتى يسهل فهم هذه الظاهرة والدور المنوط بها في النظرية العامة لعلم اللغة.

حوى الفصل الثاني الفروق بين هذه النظرية الفلسفية اللغوية والتيارات الأخرى مثل علم اللغة الاجتماعي وعلم اللغة النفسي ونظرية علم الدلالة. وأوضح بعض القوانين التي تتصل بنظرية الكتابة في الصحافة.

وقارن الفصل الثالث بعض الدراسات التطبيقية مع طبيعة الدراسة الحالية، وذلك حتى يستطيع القارئ فهم هذه التفاصيل الاستنتاجية والبرمجامية ويستطيع أيضا التمييز بين هذه التفاصيل وبين ما يعرف بعلم الدلالة.

أوضح الفصل الرابع بالوصف التحليلي تلك التفاصيل الاستدلالية في نظرية الكتابة في الصحافة.

توصلت الدراسة على وجود هذه التفاصيل في لغة الصحافة وهي أولا العبارات الإشارية، وثانياً اللفظ الذي يحمل معنى مخالفا لما هو مكتوب وذلك نتيجة للموقف الكلامي المعين، وثالثاً التعريض، ورابعا الإفتراض المسبق. وما دام أن لغة الصحافة مليئة بهذه العبارات البرمجامية الاستدلالية فإنه يمكن القول بأن هذه النظرية أسبق من نظرية علم الدلالة - وأنها هي المرتكز الأساسي لاستدراك كل المعاني الناتجة من الموقف الإتصالي المعين.
CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION


MORRIS (1938: 6), CITED IN LEVINSON (1983: 1), ILLUSTRATES THREE FIELDS IN ORDER TO

MORRIS’ DEFINITION OF ‘PRAGMATICS’ ASSOCIATES THE TERM FROM ITS FIRST BEGINNING WITH PHILOSOPHICAL AND PSYCHOLOGICAL
APPROACHES.

PRAGMATICS AS WE WILL SEE COMES AS A REACTION AGAINST THE PHILOSOPHY OF LOGICAL POSITIVISM. ONE BASIC AIM OF THIS PHILOSOPHY IS THAT IT RECOMMENDS THAT SCIENCE SHOULD ADOPT SOCIAL PHENOMENON AS ITS BASIC TOPIC, "THEN SCIENCE SHOULD STUDY THE RELATION BETWEEN PHENOMENA. PHENOMENA IN THIS PHILOSOPHY IS PHYSICALLY SEEN AND EMPIRICALLY JUDGED. THUS, THERE ARE NO HIDDEN AGENDAS OR CAUSES WHICH ARE
TAKEN TO INTERPRET ANY KIND OF PHENOMENON. REAL KNOWLEDGE IS SCIENTIFIC, AND LOGICAL KNOWLEDGE WHICH ENTIRELY DEPENDS ON PHYSICALLY AFFORDED DATA.

THE ABOVE MENTIONED NOTES ON THE PHILOSOPHY OF LOGICAL POSITIVISM MAKE LINGUISTS LIKE LEVINSON (1983) TO INDICATE THAT WITHIN THE HISTORY OF LINGUISTICS, PRAGMATICS IS CONSIDERED AS A RE-BORN DISCIPLINE OF THE LIMITED SCOPE OF CHOMSKYAN LINGUISTICS. WHILE IN PHILOSOPHY
LANGUAGE USE CAN BE SEEN IN PART AS A REACTION AGAINST THE EXTREMES OF THE PHILOSOPHY OF LOGICAL POSITIVISM AND LANGUAGE REFROMISM. THEREFORE, PRAGMATIC PHENOMENON CAN DULY BE EXPLICATED BY SOME LINGUISTIC FEATURES WHICH ARE MOTIVATED BY PRINCIPLES OUTSIDE THE SCOPE OF LINGUISTIC THEORY, AND MAINLY DESCRIBED BY RE Course TO CONTEXTUAL CONCEPTS.

PRAGMATIC PRINCIPLES OF LANGUAGE USAGE,
HOWEVER, CAN BE IDENTIFIED SYSTEMATICALLY TO ‘READ IN’ UTTERANCES MORE THAN THEY CONVENTIONALLY, LITERALLY MEAN. SO PRAGMATICS IS CONSIDERED AS A NEW MECHANISM WHICH CATERS FOR CURRENT LINGUISTIC THEORIES OF LANGUAGE, AND MAINLY ACCOUNTS FOR LINGUISTIC COMMUNICATION. THUS, PRAGMATIC THEORY CAN BE EXPECTED TO STUDY CONTEXT DEPENDENT IMPLICATIONS TOGETHER WITH TROUBLESOME
PHENOMENA WHICH HAVE NO SCIENTIFIC INTERPRETATIONS IN SEMANTICS LIKE HONORIFICS, DISCOURSE PARTICLES, AND THE NATURE OF THE LEXICON I.

E. HOW ONE MIGHT CONSTRUCT A PREDICTION CONCEPT OF POSSIBLE LEXICAL ITEM (FOR DETAILS SEE LEVINSON’S 1983 INTRODUCTORY CHAPTER).

1. 1. Statement of the problem:

THE MOST CONTROVERSIAL ISSUE IN LINGUISTIC PRAGMATICS IS HOW ONE CAN SAY ONE THING AND ACTUALLY
MEAN SOMETHING ELSE (WATSON & HILL, 1997: 207), LYON (1977) ADOPTS THE TWO-SIDED DISTINCTIONS BETWEEN SENTENCE MEANING AND UTTERANCE MEANING. HE DESCRIBES THE former AS DIRECTLY RELATED TO WORDS AND GRAMMAR, WHILE UTTERANCE MEANING INCLUDES ALL ASPECTS OF MEANING RELATED TO THE CONTEXT IN WHICH A LINGUISTIC EXCHANGE TAKES PLACE. THEREFORE, UTTERANCE MEANING CAN BE TAKEN TO INCLUDE ALL ASPECTS OF THE NATION AND ITS CULTURE WHICH IS
IDENTIFIED BY WATSON & HILL (1997: 55) AS LANGUAGE, HISTORY, TRADITION, CLIMATE, GEOGRAPHY, ARTS, SOCIAL, ECONOMIC AND POLITICAL NORMS AND ITS SYSTEM OF VALUES AND ITS SIZE, ITS NEIGHBOURS AND ITS CURRENT PROSPERITY. HOWEVER, IT IS IMPORTANT TO KNOW THAT A JOURNALISTIC’S PROPOSITIONS WILL DULY DEPEND ON HIS/HER ATTITUDES TOWARDS THAT CATEGORY OF UTTERANCE MEANING. BUT THE PROBLEM AS OBSERVED IS THAT NON-NATIVES CAN NOT
COMPETENTLY DEAL WITH
THE LANGUAGE OF
JOURNALISM IN ITS
COSMOPOLITE CHANNELS.

THAT IS THE
ISSUE OF READING
NEWSTORIES AND
MAGAZINES HAS BEEN
IMPORTUNING ONE TO
THOSE NON-NATIVE
SPEAKERS. IN ORDER TO
UNDERSTAND THE
IDIOSYNCRASY OF THIS
TYPE OF STYLE OF
WRITING, A NEED FOR
‘PRAGMATICS’ IS DEEMED
TO BE IMPORTANT. THE
RESEARCH ALSO SEEKS
TO PROVIDE USEFUL
LIGHTS ON THE ISSUE OF
‘PRAGMATICS’. 
PRAGMATICS is considered as a problem by itself because it is simply a sufficiently unfamiliar term, and there are some authors who seem to suggest that there is no coherent field at all (Levinson, 1983: 6).

1.2. The Purpose of the study:

The purpose of the present study is to attempt to solving Levinson’s (1983: 30) questions about (I) the goals of pragmatic theory? (II) what is it that we expect a
PRAGMATIC THEORY TO DO?, (III) WHAT IS THE THEORY MEANT TO PREDICT, GIVEN WHAT PARTICULAR INFORMATION?’. IN THIS CASE THE STUDY USES CHANNELL’S (1994: 58) RECOMMENDATION OF SELECTING REAL OCCURRENCES OF TALK, RATHER THAN ACCOUNTING FOR INVESTED DECONTEXTUALIZED SENTENCES IN DISCUSSING THE ISSUE OF MEANING. THEREFORE, THE STUDY RESPONDS TO THE PREVIOUS QUESTIONS WITH HELPFUL
EXEMPLIFICATION FROM THE
LANGUAGE OF
JOURNALISM.

YET, ALTHOUGH
LEVINSON (1983: 32) IN HIS
INTRODUCTORY CHAPTER
SHOWS MANY POSSIBLE
FORMULATIONS OF
PRAGMATIC THEORY HE
ALSO EXPECTS
RESEARCHERS TO BE
MORE EXPLICIT ABOUT
EXACTLY HOW THEY
EXPECT A PRAGMATIC
THEORY TO BE
FORMULATED.

THEREFORE, BY
ATTEMPTING TO EXPLORE
PRAGMATIC INFERENCE IN
JOURNALISTIC LANGUAGE,
THE RESEARCHER HOPES THAT ESSENTIAL CONTRIBUTIONS ON THE SUBJECT WILL BE MADE.

1. 3. Rationale for the Study:

THE FUNDAMENTAL REASON FOR THIS STUDY IS TO SUPPORT ON LEVINSON’S (1983) THEORY OF PRAGMATICS. SO A DETAILED STUDY TO THE PERVERSIVE NATURE OF PRAGMATIC EXPRESSIONS AND THEIR BACKGROUND ASSUMPTIONS AND PURPOSES WILL BE GIVEN TO THE MEANING OF JOURNALISTIC NEWS VALUES. THE STUDY WILL
Also specify the circumstances under which these expressions would be used. That is to say the study will explore how far pragmatic features: like deixis, speech acts, implicatures and presupposition are revealing themselves in journalistic style of writing.

It is to note that journalistic domain here is not chosen randomly. But it is observed this domain is very rich of these pragmatic
FEATURES SUCH AS HINTS, IMPLICIT PURPOSE, ASSUMPTIONS, SOCIAL ATTITUDE, FIGURES OF SPEECH (E. G. METAPHORS, IRONY, RHETORICAL QUESTIONS AND UNDERSTATEMENTS).

1.4. The Significance of the Study:

THE RESEARCHER’S IDEA IS TO CONVEY SPECIAL INSIGHTS IN PRAGMATICS AND ANALYZE A THEORY OF PRAGMATICS WITHIN THE THEORY OF WRITING IN JOURNALISM. THAT IS TO SAY THERE ARE HIGHLY PRAGMATIC INFERENCES THAT CAN BE IDENTIFIED
FROM THE NATURE OF ASSUMPTIONS, AND PURPOSES FOR WHICH PROPOSITIONS IN JOURNALISM ARE BEING USED. SO PARTICIPANTS’ POLITICAL, ECONOMICAL, SOCIAL SPEECHES IN THE LANGUAGE OF JOURNALISM ARE ISSUES IN WHICH THESE PRAGMATIC INFERENCE CAN EASILY BE CAPTURED. HENCE IN ORDER TO FULLY UNDERSTAND JOURNALISTIC LANGUAGE, THE RESEARCHER SEEMS THAT PRAGMATIC PROCESSES MUST BE CALCUALTED BOTH IN PRODUCTION AND
INTERPRETATION OF JOURNALISTIC
PROPOSITION. THAT IS TO SAY A REPORTER (WRITER), OR READER (AUDIENCE).

1. 5. Scope and Limitation of Study:

THE STUDY DEALS WITH THREE CONCEPTS (MEANING, CONTEXT, COMMUNICATION) IN THE LANGUAGE OF JOURNALISM. OF THESE THREE CATEGORIES WHICH ARE CONSIDERED AS THE ANCHORAGE POINTS OF PRAGMATICS THEORY (SEE SCHIFFEIN, 1994: 1990) SPECIAL
Emphasis is given to meaning.

The study also provides culture-specific images in the propositional content of journalistic language. Here it is important to mention Gondon’s (1966: 37) assumption that learning a language usually includes learning something of the culture, that has produced that language and the attitudes and purpose of that culture. Fisher (1978: 282) also indicates that communication is
THE OUTPUT OF SOCIAL
INTERACTION. THEREFORE,
COMMUNICATION IN THIS
STUDY IS CONCEIVED AS
SENDING A MESSAGE OR A
WRITTEN CODE (JOURNAL)
TO AUDIENCE OF
DIFFERENT CULTURES AND
IDEOLOGIES TO FREELY
INTERPRET IT. AND THIS
INTERPRETATION MAY EITHER
OPPOSE THE INTENTION OF
THE WRITER (IN THIS CASE
THE REPORTER) , OR MAY
CONFORM TO IT. THIS
OPPOSITION OF THE
SENDER’S INTENTION, AND
WHICH REVEALS ONE OF
THE PRAGMATIC
INFERENCES IS
EXEMPLIFIED BY
CHANNELL (1994: 125) IN THE FOLLOWING EXAMPLE.

WIFE TO HUSBAND AT 6.30 P. M. ON AN EVENING IN CHRISTMAS WEEK.

A\ (WIFE):
WOULD YOU LIKE TO HAVE A BATH. THE WATER'S HOT.

B\ (HUSBAND):
WHY, WHERE ARE WE GOING.

YET, THE WIFE IN HER PROPOSITION WANTED TO BE KIND, BUT, HER HUSBAND RESPONDED ADVERSELY IN HIS PROPOSITION AND NEVER CAUGHT HIS WIFES INTENTIONS. THUS
UTTERANCES LIKE THESE CAN BE SEEN IN THE PROPOSITIONAL CONTENTS OF POLITICAL, SOCIAL AND CULTURAL ASPECTS OF THE PRESS.

1. 6. Research Hypotheses and Questions:

THE CENTRAL HYPOTHESIS OF THE PRESENT STUDY IS THAT MOST OF THE THEORIES CONCERNING WRITING IN JOURNALISM ARE CONSIDERED PRAGMATIC ONES. THAT IS TO SAY ALL PRAGMATIC INFERENCES ARE EMPLOYED TO SERVE WHAT IS CALLED “THESIS JOURNALISM”. THERE ARE, HOWEVER, A NUMBER OF
SUB-HYPOTHESES
RELATED TO THE CENTRAL
HYPOTHESIS WHICH CAN
BE STATED AS FollowS:

THERE ARE STRONG
CONNECTIONS BETWEEN
LINGUISTIC PRAGMATIC
INFERENCES LIKE DEIXIS,
IMPLICATURE, SPEECH ACT
THEORY PRESUPPOSITION,
AND THE PROPOSITIONAL
CONTENT OF WRITING IN
THE PRESS. THIS CAN BE
SEEN IN THE FOLLOWING:-

DEIXIS IN
JOURNALISTIC
REFERENTS.

IMPLICATURE IN
WRITING HEADLINES.
SPEECH ACTS IN JOURNALISTIC ADVERTISEMENTS.

PRESUPPOSITION IN WRITING NEWSTORIES.

AND THESE HYPOTHESES RAISE THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS:

CAN DEIXIS CATEGORY BE WELL SHOWN IN JOURNALISTIC STYLE OF REFERENCES?

DO JOURNALISTIC HEADLINES USUALLY IMPLICATE FOR SOMETHING ELSE?

WHY IS IT IMPORTANT FOR THE ADVERTISER AS WELL AS THE
1- 7 Structure of the Research

One major way in which this work is sequentially structured is using reasoning, analysis, rationale, judgment, induction, deduction, discourse completion tests and evidence. That is we are approaching the problem logically. The concepts of pragmatic inferences therein such as deixis, speech act theory, implicatures and presupposition has been described as reaction against the limited scope of Chomskyan linguistics, and the extremes of the logical positivism philosophy.
In chapter one questions have been posed, and a claim has been made that pragmatic inferences can well be identified in journalistic language. The assumption that strong relation between deixis (linguistic pointing) and journalistic referents has been made. Speech act theory is conjoined with journalistic advertisements and political writing. Implicatures are drawn from writing headlines and the conflict between the different ideologies in the world of politics. Presupposition theory has been explored in technicality of reporting the news.
Chapter Two is a review of analysis of work pertaining to philosophical aspect of pragmatic inferences. To prove that the form is the vehicle providing distinction or differentiation the key to the structure of meaning. Thus each distinction, via the form necessarily yields reference (Brown: 1969). We quoted from previous studies. Moreover the chapter has reviewed empirical studies which dealt with these inferences. A summary also has been given to the technicalities of writing in journalism. However, technicalities and writing English for media, are never entitled as pragmatic inferences as far as thesis journalism is concerned. The explicit rules of writing thesis journalism, I thinks, have not been considered as pragmatic inferences because linguistic theorists and logicians had not offered a precise definition and complete description of pragmatic inferences. Readers should have standard of comparison between how meaning was elaborated and conceived in last two decades, and how it was sadly neglected by American structuralists and by Chomsky's theory of Transformational Generative Grammar. Chomsky (1955) argues that meaning can hardly be accessed, studied and described. However, he attests to the importance of meaning and its relevance to linguistic analysis. In the last two decades meaning has been proved to be of importance to
communication and linguistics by sociologist, psychologist and communication pathologist and by conversational and analysis theorists.

Synonyms, particles, rhetorical questions, social honorifics have been regarded by the present researcher as conventional implicatures. The chapter also shows that conventional implicatures arise from the conventional meanings of words and discourse they occur in. Moreover, the chapter shows how conversational implicatures arise via flouting Grice's maxims of quantity, quality relevance and manner. That is in metaphors, proverbs, idiomatic expressions, we are not speaking the truth. That is we are knowingly violating the maxim of quality in order to implicate for something in a highly rhetorical way. For example, one might say a sentence like “the shopkeeper is a shark” to mean that he or she is greedy. In the above example the speaker conveys the greediness of that man by likening him/her to a shark. By doing so the speaker is really violating the maxim of quality which orders the speaker to speak the truth. Quantity maxim which orders the speaker to be appropriately informative, and to provide as required information, is flouted in linguistic phenomena such as irony, euphemism, ellipsis, rhetorical questions. An example for ellipsis is that in our acknowledgment we
have written the sentences “thanks to those who have given from their time”. In this sentences we knowingly omit the pronoun “me”. By doing so we are not providing the required information in order to make our sentence highly rhetorical. Moreover, many alternatives might replace the pronoun “me” such as “knowledge” or “topic” etc. In ironic expressions we are saying the opposite of what is meant, so we are not appropriately informative. The same thing of not being appropriately informative is applied to ellipsis and rhetorical questions. Thus implictures may arise via flouting quantity maxim. Keenan (1975:274) states that without implicature it would take us a long time indeed to say anything at all. Moreover what is conventionally implicated is part of the meaning force of the utterance. The chapter also provides an arrangement of deixis (time, place, person, social, discourse) and show how deictic transfers are important to the addressee, reader in fully grasp what is really intended by the message in question. Thus, deictic structures such as verbal tense and personal pronoun are seen within the field of logic. Speech act theory is also thoroughly reviewed with its principles of the locution, illocution and perlocution. Presupposition theory which has agelong time that extends to the beginning of the last century is also reviewed.
In Chapter Three I explain the rationale behind my choice of the qualitative approach. All researchers are unanimously agreed upon a qualitative approach at least in the analysis of the background of the problem. Without this qualitative approach, interpretation of results would be difficult. The chapter also provides justifications for not using the quantitative approach because meaning as indicated therein can hardly be accessible if the problem is approached quantitatively. However, in the first part of Chapter Four of textual analysis, frequencies of occurrences are numerically counted in analyzing deixis category.

Chapter Four deals further with the analysis of the previous issues mentioned in Chapter Two hoping that innovations and contributions to the topic can be obtained. Textual analysis has been undertaken in journalistic language. That is deictic usage has been explored in journalistic referents. Illocutionary acts have been studied in journalistic advertisement, human interest stories and reporting the news. Implicatures are sought in the way of writing headlines and how headlines normally violate Grice's maxim of Manner which orders the speaker of avoiding vagueness and ambiguity. It has been observed, however, that headlines are intentionally written ambiguously to draw the attention of the reader to the article in question. Quality maxim is investigated in this stage in the context of conflict between different political standpoints and ideologies. Presupposition theory is investigated in the mechanism of reporting the news also.

Chapter five attempts to arrive at the conclusion that pragmatic inferences are clearly found in most types of journalistic language. It concludes by conceiving meaning as combination of semantics and pragmatics.

Synthetic/heuristic research and logic are used as a method which consists of reasoning from self-evident propositions and principles to arrive by a series of deductions at what we seek to
establish in the theory of pragmatics. Every proposition is carrying an idea and concept that completely adheres another concept. All the ideas and concepts evolve around generating and testing our hypotheses to develop the theory of pragmatics. Moreover the study also seeks to confirm that the linguistic study of pragmatics falls within the purview of linguistic theories of deixis, speech act, implicatures and presupposition. This attempt of studying these inferences under the rubric of pragmatic is considered to best of my knowledge the first one after Levinson's (1983). Other attempts are too dispersed to support a complete theory. However, many linguists afforded at least a smattering of the subject under the title of semantics.
# TABLE OF CONTENTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table of Contents</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Acknowledgements</td>
<td>IX</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abstract (English)</td>
<td>xi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abstract (Arabic)</td>
<td>xiii</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

- Introduction                                                                 | 1    |
- 1.1. Statement of Problems                                                     | 3    |
- 1.2. The Purpose of the Study                                                  | 4    |
- 1.3. Rationale for the Study                                                   | 5    |
- 1.4. The Significance of the Study                                             | 6    |
- 1.5. Scope and Limitation of the Study                                          | 7    |
- 1.6. Research Hypotheses and Questions                                          | 8    |
- 1.7. Structure of the Research                                                 | 10   |

## CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

- 2.1. The Scope of Pragmatics                                                   | 17   |
- 2.2. Is pragmatics prior to Semantics                                           | 24   |
- 2.3. Pragmatics and Sociolinguistics                                           | 28   |
- 2.4. Pragmatics Interpretation and Discourse Analysis                          | 31   |
- 2.5. Relations Between Pragmatics and Psycholinguistics                        | 33   |
- 2.6 Pragmatic Inferences                                                       | 34   |
CHAPTER FOUR: METHODOLOGY AND TEXTUAL ANALYSIS

4.1. Deixis and Journalistic Referents.................................................. 128
  4.1.1. Time Deixis Category.......................................................... 129
  4.1.2. Person Deixis Category....................................................... 133
  4.1.3. Place Deixis Category.......................................................... 139
  4.1.4. Discourse Deixis Category.................................................... 142
  4.1.5. Social Deixis Category.......................................................... 148
  4.1.6. Speech Acts in Newstories................................................... 164
  4.1.7. Speech Acts and Advertisements.......................................... 166
  4.2.8. Types of Illocutionary Act and Writing in Journalism........... 170
    4.2.8.A. ‘Request’, ‘Advice’, ‘Question’ and ‘Advertisement’…. 170
    4.2.8.B. ‘Thank for’ and ‘Congratulate’: Human interest stories 174
    4.2.8.C. ‘Assert’, ‘State that’, Affirm and Writing News Values.. 177
  4.2.9. ‘Manner’ and ‘Quality’ implicature Maxims and Writing      182
        Headlines and Articles....................................................... 182
  4.2.10. Presupposition and Stories............................................. 186
  4.2.11. What Kind of Negation Does Journalistic Language Presppose? 193
  4.2.12. Figures of Speech and Writing in Journalism..................... 196
CHAPTER FIVE: RESULTS AND CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1. Introduction.................................................................................................................. 212
5.2. Summary....................................................................................................................... 215
5.3. The Findings of The Study.......................................................................................... 216
5.4. Recommendations....................................................................................................... 218

References............................................................................................................................. 221

Appendix I. Definition of Key Terms................................................................................. 230
Appendix II. Speech Acts and advertisements ................................................................. 235
Appendix III. Presupposition and Comment..................................................................... 238
Appendix IV. Maxims of ‘Manner’, ‘Quality’, and Headlines........................................... 244
Appendix V. Illocutionary Acts And Reporting The News............................................... 247
Appendix VI. Conversational Implicature and Political Writing....................................... 248
Appendix VII. Definition of Culture.................................................................................... 254
Appendix VIII. Types of Newstories.................................................................................... 259
CHAPTER TWO

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

THE PURPOSE OF THIS CHAPTER IS TO PROVIDE SOME INDICATION OF THE SCOPE OF LINGUISTIC PRAGMATICS. FIRST, SOME DEFINITIONS OF THE TERM ‘PRAGMATICS’ WILL BE BRIEFLY SUMMARIZED. SECOND, ISSUES OF PRAGMATICS, SOCIOLINGUISTICS, PSYSCHOLINGUISTICS, SEMANTICS AND WHAT IS CALLED DISCOURSE
ANALYSIS ARE ILLUSTRATED. THIRDLY, EACH INERENCE OF PRAGMATICS (DEIXIS, SPEECH ACT, IMPLICATURE AND PRESUPPOSITION) IS THOROUGHLY REVIEWED, WHILE A FINAL SECTION ILLUSTRATES SOME PRAGMATIC ISSUES IN THE LANGUAGE OF JOURNALISM.

2-1. The Scope of Pragmatics:

pragmatic can be taken to describe the ability to infer the purpose beyond using sequence of utterances. It identifies the nature of the assumption participants are making out of these utterances. Thus, in order to fully participate in language use,
this ability should be considered either in production or interpretation of utterances. However, some linguists like Levinson (1983: 53) consider ‘pragmatics’ as ‘the study of language from the viewpoint of the user’. Special emphasis is given here to the user’s selection of language choices, and the constraints which encounter him/her when using language in social situations, and the effects which are caused by the language upon others in the communicative situation, (see also Watson& Hill, 1997: 177; Crystal, 1991: 120).

Other linguists relate pragmatics to situation, participants, and the topic of discourse. Vince (1993: 84), for instance, in an answer to the question of how do we choose what to say, advocates that what we say depends entirely on how we feel. What we say, he says, can be influenced by the situation we are in, the participants, and the topic of discourse. Nevertheless, how we feel, as Hartouni (1997: 14) says: is a notion which points out epistemological, ontological, philosophical assumptions. Such assumptions to use Hartouni’s (1997) words “sustain and are themselves sustained by it”. This notion incorporates ways of seeing, of decoding, deciphering, translating, and interpreting. ‘These of course are sorts of things that we are not simply born with, but are constituted by particular ways of life’.

The above views of linguists brought the image of pragmatics to philosophy over the course of the two last decades. In linguistics, ‘pragmatics’, is considered as a reaction against Chomskyan limited scope of linguistics which has been shown by Hockett (1968) as algebraic grammar dissociable from language use.

But its philosophical roots may go to the extremes of logical positivism and language reformism which claims that
unless a sentence can be verified for its truth or falsity, it would be speaking meaningless. It also goes back to embrace Grice’s (1957) theory of meaning which mainly addresses the notion of intentional communication. That is, how can there be interesting discrepancies between speaker meaning (meaning nn), and sentence meaning.

Pragmatics as such has several conflicting definitions in the academic fields, and there is no a satisfactory one. So, in order to study pragmatics one has to study pragmatic concepts or inferences such as relevance implicature or discourse structure (Levinson, 1983: 31). Again, ‘pragmatics’, as Crystal (1996: 120) points out, has several main areas which overlap with semantics, sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics and discourse analysis.

In Levinson’s (1983) we are never told or given complete definition to the term ‘pragmatics’. The whole area is reduced to a number of different factors, ‘to matters of presupposition and implicature on the one hand, and to discourse functions of utterance - initial (and other position) on the other’.

Furthermore, Intonation, stress and prosody as important factors in pragmatics are never explicated in Levinson’s (1983). He adds that this ‘area’ is understudied.

Levinson states that ‘pragmatic’ is simply a sufficiently unfamiliar term and other linguists such as Lyons even suggest that there is no coherent field as such at all (Levinson, 1983: 6). One of the definition of pragmatic is that:

> pragmatic is the study of those principles that will account for why a certain set of sentences are anomalous, or not possible utterances.
That set might include:

- come there, please.
- Aristole was Greek, but I don’t believe it.
- As anyone knows, the earth please revolves around the sun.

It is impossible to imagine contexts in which the alleged anomalies are quite usable. Here Levinson states that the ‘set of pragmatic anomalies are presupposed, rather than explained’.

Another kind of definition fails to distinguish ‘pragmatics’ from other disciplines, because similarly it is interested in functional approaches of language. Levinson says that:

*Pragmatic should be concerned solely with principles of language usage, and have nothing to do with the description of linguistic structure*


The problem with the above definition as Levinson indicates is that it becomes impossible to draw a boundary between context independent grammar (competence), and context dependent interpretation (performance).
A definition of ‘pragmatics’ which excludes conversational implicatures, language use, and interpretation runs as follows.

*Pragmatic is the study of those relations between language and context that are grammaticalized, or encoded in the structure of language.*

Another definition considers “pragmatics as the study of all those aspects of meaning not captured in a semantic theory”. It is criticized by Levinson by saying that although semantics is the study of the meaning in its entirety, then how there can be any residue to constitute the topic of pragmatics (Levinson, 1983: 12).

Another definition restricts pragmatics to understand the relation between language and context. However understanding an utterance is a process which involves a great deal more than knowing the meaning of the words and the grammatical relations between them. The definition runs as follows.

*pragmatics is the study of the relations between language and context that are basic to an account of language understanding.*

Understanding an utterance also involves the making of inferences. Inferences are drawn from the connection of what is said and what is mutually assumed, or what has been said before.
There is a definition of pragmatics which combines context and the appropriate situations in which they are used. Such definition requires a fundamental idealization of the construction of culture – specific restrictions of subcommunities, and it has many drawbacks (Levinson, 1983: 27). The definition runs as follows:

`.pragmatic is the study of the ability of language users to pair sentences with contexts in which they would appropriate.`

A definition which provides a list of the phenomena for which a pragmatic theory must be counted runs as follows:

`pragmatic is the study of deixis (at least in part), implicature, speech act, and aspect of discourse structure.`

Below are two definitions which the present researcher considers as relevant to the present study which tackles the topic of pragmatics in the language of media. The first is Katz (1977: 19) and the second is Gazdar (1979: 4- 5). Both definitions are cited in Levinson, 1983: 30).
“Katz (1977: 19) suggests that the input should be the full grammatical (including semantical) description of a sentence, together with information about the context in which it was uttered, while the output is a set of representation (or proposition) which capture the full meaning of the utterance in the context specified. Since a sentence plus its context of use can be called on utterance plus its context of use can be called an utterance, Katz’s suggestion amounts to the ideas that a pragmatic theory is a function whose domain is the set of utterances and whose range is the set of propositions.

“Gazdar (1979: 4-5) wishes to capture the ways in which utterances change the context in which they are uttered; the idea here is that the shift from the context prior to an utterance to the context post utterance itself constitutes the communicational contents of the utterance. It suggests that pragmatic theory as a whole should be based on the notion of context change.

(Levinson, 1983: 30)

2-2. Is Pragmatic Prior to Semantics?

Both pragmatics and semantics share the notions such as intention of the speaker; the effects and implication of an utterance
on listeners; knowledge, beliefs and presuppositions about the world in which participants are interacting as indicated by Crystal (1996). But, development in semantics have shown its need for ‘pragmatics’ to decipher phenomena such as presupposition, speech act and other context dependent implications like honorifics, and discourse particle and the nature of lexicon (Levinson, 1983: 37).

How one might construct inferences of possible lexical items appears in Widdowson’s (1990: 79 – 98). He gives the example of indexical meaning of a surgeon who utters words like ‘scalpel’, ‘swab’, ‘clamp’, while performing a surgical operation. He comments that the doctor’s time does not allow him to give a complete sentence. Yet, his intentions and meaning are perfectly understood. He also indicates that in such a situation the context complements the words. This leads him to identify two approaches of describing language. The first one is a semantical account of how language contains within itself, within its grammar and lexis, the essential resources for meaning. The second is a pragmatic approach, which
shows how these resources can be exploited by the language user to achieve meaning. Further, he claims that sentences are only meaningful if they are used in communicative situations, and in this case they would be ‘utterances’.

Especially interesting, here is Widdowson’s (1990) claim that the greater the contribution of context in the sense of shared experiences and knowledge, the less is the need for grammar. He supports this notion by the example ‘farmer kill ducking’. He illustrates that if the order of these words is changed, the meaning remains as it is, and this accounts for our knowledge of the world, and our knowledge of the English meaning of these words. A linear arrangement of the example can be exemplified as follows.

- farmer ducking kill.
- Ducking farmer kill.
- Kill ducking farmer.

Yet, Widdowson (1990) shows that this linear arrangement cannot be applied in such an example as ‘Hunter kill lion’, unless grammar acts upon lexis, because both agents ‘hunter’, and ‘lion’
have the ability of killing. Accordingly, the present researcher believes what is filtered by ‘pragmatics’ here is the importance of grammar as a prerequisite to clarify such utterance.

In the following sections, we will attempt to show how the notion of filtering out which is assigned to pragmatics can be exploited in the writing of headlines in the industry of journalism.

Furthermore, Widdowson shows that grammar in the previous examples should be included to clarify the appropriate usage of verbs, determiners and auxiliaries.

Levinson (1983: 34) draws slight boundary between pragmatics and semantics. He uses logic to assign pragmatics as prior to truth conditional semantics. He shows that truth conditional semantics can only be interpreted through utterances, not sentences and he quotes Wilson’s (1974: 151) following example:

1- Getting married and having a child is better than having a child and getting married.
2- Having a child and getting married is better than getting married and having a child.

As can be seen from the above example, semantically there is no difference between (1) and (2). but if pragmatic interpretation is inserted in the connector ‘and’, which can be glossed as (and then), before doing semantics, it will appear that (1) does not mean the same as (2).

To sum up, ‘pragmatics’ can be conceived as the provider of the necessary input to semantic theory, and is logically considered as prior to semantics. Though, having asserted that pragmatics is prior to semantics, concepts such as cultural metaphors, irony, implicit communication, understatement and all figures of speech have convincingly shown the truth of Levinson’s assumption.

Yet, despite these mentioned elements can semantically be interpreted within the conventional usage of language. They, nevertheless, can be exploited by the user of the language to
implement meaning or ‘read in’ to utterances more than what is contained within themselves.

2-3. Pragmatics and Sociolinguistics:
Both Pragmatics and Sociolinguistics share the study of
the way extra linguistic elements can restrict the choice of linguistic varieties. They also focus on the participants and their relationships and interactions (Crystal, 1996: 120).

For instance, Elaine and Yule (1989: 88) indicate that language has changed its focus from an abstract study of language to the acts of language use. This leads ethnographers to study social interactions in specific cultures. Also this perspective of language in use leads sociolinguistics to look at aspects like countries, regions, cities and relate social groups to language, and its varieties which is used in the society (Stern, 1983: 230). This notion of language in use also assists linguists like Hyme (1972) to define competence as when to speak, when not, what to talk about, with whom, when, where, in what matter. It also makes important contributions to studying how language can be taught through functions, and speech acts in new curricula which are now being called communicative syllabuses. For details, see Elaine & Yule, (1989: 89).

De Devittiis et.al (1989: 89) adopt different concepts and functions that can be understood in different ways through different situations. They indicate that an affirmative sentence may mean something more than simply affirmation. And the same thing with
interrogative is not always simply a question, and this appears in the following examples:

3. The window’s open.

   It may be understood as a request depending on a particular situation such as (can you close it?).

4. are you using the typewriter?

   It also can be understood as a way of asking for permission (can I borrow it).

   More specifically, in the movement of generative semantics, which mainly came as reaction against the conceptions of the standard theory, there are many interactions between semantics and linguistics. These interactions are now reclassified as pragmatic cadres (Levinson: 1989).
Most important is that both sociolinguistics and pragmatics assist each other in pragmatic inferences such as social deixis and speech acts. But, pragmatics has assisted sociolinguistics in the motivations which lie beyond the use and location of address form, because it glosses the usage of language as a pattern of socially different significances (Levinson: 1989: 374).

2-4. Pragmatic Interpretation and Discourse Analysis:

It is important to note here that speech act theory which is considered as one of the important figures in pragmatics, assumes that there are three layers of intention, and therefore interpretation to any kind of discourse. The first layer is the locution which can be represented by the formal literal meaning of words. The second is the illocution which underlies the act that is performed. The third one is the perlocution or the overall aim of the discourse (Cook, 1989: 39). Cook illustrates that language in use is called discourse, and what is given that discourse coherence is entitled discourse analysis.

Therefore, both discourse and pragmatics deal with grammar as a resource which conforms to them when it needs to, but it
disappears from them when it does not, as in Cook’s following example:

5. Which of you people is the fish?

So, what matters in the above example is not grammar conformity to rules, but the fact that it has achieved it communicative import (as preferred by Widdowson, 1979), and it is recognized by its receivers (people in a restaurant), as being coherent. Thus pragmatics has this tendency of explaining how people reason their ways from the form to the function, and however they construct coherent discourse from the input of language they receive (Cook, 1989: 2-3).

Also in speech act theory, sentences are analyzed as discourse. An example of this is the following:

6. I wish you ‘d stop doing that.

Here, this above sentence can be reclassified not as merely statement, but as a speech act of request (Stubb, 1983: 11).
Both ‘discourse’ and ‘text’ are always used to describe all language units which have a recognizable communicative function, whether written or spoken as identified by Crystal, (1996: 116).

Therefore, a writer should anticipate about his reader by deciding which point needs to be written; and which one needs not to be mentioned at all, but it can be inferred (Widdowson, 1990). This process of testing and weighing up of every word is of great value in the work of editing (Ferguson: 1980).

However, it can be claimed that the act of editing is simply considered as an attempt that accounts for appropriate linguistic communication. That is it caters greatly for pragmatic concepts like hint, implicit purposes, assumptions, social attitudes and so on which are regarded by linguists as standpoints in pragmatic theory, and linguistic communication (Levinson: 1989: 38).

All the previous notions, and current thinking handle language away from idealization, a process which dominates sentence
linguistics from 1930 to 1760, and which entirely eliminates context, circumstances of the language usage, to language that is not idealized that is to language in use, or to discourse analysis. For details Cook, (1989: 10 – 13).

It is worth noting that Cook (1989) rejects the concept of discourse type, and this supports the issue of language function and acts of speech which are considered as pivotal features of pragmatics. Example of discourse types is drawn by Jolly (1984), ‘personal letters’, telegraph, and instructions descriptions, reporting experiences, writing to companies etc.

2-5. Relations between Pragmatics and Psycholinguistics:

Both Pragmatics and Psycholinguistics investigate the participants’ psychological state and abilities that affect their performance. Therefore, they place special emphasis on factors like attention, memory and personality (Crystal, 1996: 120).

Yet, many studies of cognitive psychology have shown that, this branch develops concepts like implicature, presupposition and
Illocutionary force which are now considered as important inferences of pragmatics. Therefore, pragmatics in this domain of cognitive psychology is represented as the provider, and psycholinguistics as the refiner.

There are also internal cognitive processes like pauses, hesitations and self editing which help interactional purposes. Pragmatics as well is mainly concerned with language acquisition (Levinson, 1989: 375).

2-6. Pragmatic Inferences:

2-6.1. Deixis:

One of the most important features of pragmatics, and certainly the most striking is whether the relationship between language structure and contexts is primarily influenced by a deictic category or a non-deictic one.

Deictic expressions are always related to the text. Unlike non – deicitec usages which always look for the situation of utterance. Deixis catogery will therefore be an essential part in
pragmatics, since it glosses the relation of language structure and the context in which these structures are used.

Deixis, in English is represented by person pronouns, demonstratives, tense, specific time and place adverbs like ‘now’, ‘here’, and other features of grammar held tightly to the circumstances of utterance.

Deixis or ‘indexical expressions’ lie within the border of pragmatics and semantics. To put it another way, ‘pragmatics’ main function is to catch the evasive meaning of language which can not be traced in a truth – conditional semantics as pointed out by Levinson’s (1983: 58). The following are the examples: -

7. John Henry Mc Tavitty is six feet tall and weighs 200 pounds.

8. John Henry Mc Tavity is six feet tall.

9. I am six feet tall and weigh 200 pounds.
10. I am six feet tall.

   It is clear from the above examples that if (8), and (10) are valid inferences from (7), and (9), they must be said by the same speaker, that is to say the speaker who describes ‘John’ and the speaker ‘I’.

   Here Levinson (1983) relativizes ‘logic’ to contexts of utterance. Because sentences as Francis & Dinneen (1967: 360) advocate always underline different propositions on different occasions.

   Levinson (1983) also indicates that the reference in the above sentences will be valid only if the speaker index and the time index are tied together.

   Another way of relating logic to context is to think of the content of utterance in two ways. That is the meaning of an utterance which functions from a set of indices (context) to
propositions which in turn are considered as functions from possible words to truth values.

It becomes clear, from this approach that sentences in their abstract can be glossed as vague and meaningless, and do not express specific propositions at all. But, only their utterances in specific contexts negotiate definite states of affairs. This supports Levinson’s notion and the analysis thus far which shows that pragmatics is logically prior to semantics.

One of the aspects by which Levinson (1983), draws a clear cut boundary between sociolinguistics and pragmatics is the category of social deixis. To put it another way he restricts this category of deixis to the study of facts that lie in the scope of structural studies of linguistic systems. He also shows that it disambiguates the social identities and the relation between participants. Here also it is important to note that the most essential contribution of Anglo American linguistics and philosophy is in pragmatic issues. Example of central figures of
the idealist – pragmatic epistemology are Royce, Dewey, Emerson and Pierce Mc Dermott, (1986: 34).

Levinson (1983) states that such following examples can be true only if they are indeed identical to the individual who is the mother of Napolean, and false otherwise.

1- I am a mother of Napolean.

2- Letiza de Ramolino was the mother of Napolean.

3- You are the mother of Napolean.

It can be said that deixis category is classified in five pivotal categories that anchored upon the role of participant in a speech event in which the utterance in question is delivered. These categories are glossed as person, place, time, discourse, and social deixis.

2.6.1.1. Person Deixis:

It looks for the encoding of the role of participants or pronouns and their associated predicate agreements in the speech event. That is speaker’s reference to himself (first person), speaker’s reference to one or more addressees (second person); and the encoding of reference to persons
and entities which are neither speakers nor addressees of the utterance in question (third person).

Levinson (1983) symbolizes for first person (+s) which means speaker’s inclusion; and for second person (+A), which indicates addressee’s inclusion. And for third person (-S, -A) which means speaker’s and addressee’s exclusion, since this third type does not refer to any participant role in the speech event.

Levinson (1983) further states that deictic usage of this centre appears in pronoun, vocatives and greetings. But although pronouns are commonly used non deictically, there are some natural uses which can not easily be captured. Example of that is provided by Fillmore (1971) of the editorial ‘we’ of the New Yorker. That is although it takes plural verb agreements (thus we are not we am), it appears in the proceeding text of the same editorial with reflexive singularity in phrases like ‘for ourself’. Another example is given by Levinson (1983) of the hostess who announces in an air – flight something like the following:

4- You are to fasten your seat-belts:

He indicates that in order for someone to understand such utterance, there must be a distinction of speaker from source of information, and the addressee from the target.

Levinson further shows that person role is marked in many ways. He shows that title and proper names
often come in two sets. One is used in address as vocative in second person usage. Example of this is the following:

15- Hey you, you just scratched my car with your frisbee:

And the other way is used in reference (i.e. referring to individuals in third person role). Example of this type is the following.

16- The truth is, Madam, nothing is as good nowadays.

He also provides an example of proper names in a situation of a mother who says to the father in the presence of the little Billie something like the following.

17- Can Billie have an ice-cream Daddy?

In the above example, he notes that there must be clear-cut distinction between addressee and hearer. He further states that where face to face is lost i.e. ‘I am
Joe Blogg's, language instead tend to introduce itself e.g. in a phone conversation ‘this is Joe Bloggs.’

2.6.1.2. Time Deixis:

The time deixis encodes point and spans relative to the time at which an utterance was spoken. An essential point to be mentioned here is Fillmore’s (1971) classification of time into coding time ‘CT’ (the time at which the speaker produces in his/her utterance). And receiving time ‘RT’ of the addressee to the particular code or message. It is important to note that time deixis is central for texts to be meaningful, since ‘language always wears its time’. Therefore, the word ‘now’, for example, can be glossed as the time at which the speaker is producing the utterance containing it, or Coding Time ‘CT’.

Time deixis can also interact with cultural measurements of time in non deictic way. For instance
'today' can be considered as ‘the diurnal span including CT, Yesterday’, however, can be conceived as ‘the diurnal span preceding the diurnal span that includes CT Levinson, (1983: 75).

But such deictic words sometimes pre-empt the absolute ways of referring to the relevant days as in the following example.

18- I’ll see you on Thursday.

He proceeds to show that in the application of ‘next’ to calendrical names of days, an ambiguity may arise. For instance ‘next Thursday’, can either be referred to as the Thursday of the week that succeeds the week that includes ‘CT’, or that Thursday that first follows ‘CT’ Fillmore:(1971).
Complexities also may arise in this deictic centre of time in the usages of tense, time adverbs, and other time deictic morphemes. For instance Levinson (1983) states that in letter writing, or pre-recording of media programme that a decision has to be made of the time, whether Coding Time ‘CT’, or receiving one (to be projected in the addressee RT). Fillmore’s (1975) examples quoting Levinson (1983) illustrate this phenomenon.

19- This programme is being recorded today Wednesday April 1st, to be relayed next Thursday.

20- This programme was recorded last Wednesday April 1st, to be relayed today.

As noted above, deictic time adverbs like ‘now’, ‘then’, ‘soon’, ‘recently’ so on, can be conceived pragmatically by the given span including CT. Whereas
this span may be the instance associated with the production of the morpheme itself as in the gestural usage in (21), or perhaps in the interminable period indicated in (22).

21- Pull the Trigger now.

22- I'm now working on a ph. D.

2.6.1.3. Place Deixis:

Place deixis is concerned with the encoding of spatial locations relative to the location of the participants in the speech event. Example of this proximal deictic place, and distal one which can be conceived in demonstratives ‘this’ and ‘that’, and deictic adverbs ‘here’ and ‘there’. This category of deixis always incorporates a covert time deixis element, while the converse is not true (Levinson, 1983: 58).
Deictically, places can be identified in relation to the location of the participants at the time of speaking as in the following example.

23- It’s two hundred yards away.

24- Kabul is four hundred miles west of here.

Levinson (1983) shows two deictic usages to the English adverb ‘here’. Symbolic usage which includes the location of the speaker at CT, and gestural usage which pragmatically shows the given space, proximal to speaker’s location at CT as in the following instances.

25- I’m writing to say I’m having a marvellous time here.

26- Place it here.

He also indicates that the English adverbs ‘there’ can have a meaning distal from speaker's location at CT,
(gestural usage). It also can have a sense of proximity to addressee at RT as in the following:

27-  How are things there.

   Levinson also distinguishes deictic expression, from non-deictic ones as in the following examples:

28-  Bob is the man to the left of Mark.

   This may show that ‘Bob’ is to Mark’s own left (non-deictic), or to the left from the speaker’s point of view (deictic). Levinson also proceeds to gloss the verb ‘come’ as moving towards the speaker’s location at ‘CT’, or towards the addressee at ‘CT’ as illustrated in these examples:

29-  He ‘s coming

30-  I am coming.

2.6.1.4. Discourse Deixis:
Discourse (or text) deixis primarily concerns the expressions within some utterance to refer to some portion of the discourse that contains that utterance. Therefore, discourse deixis has a sense of reference, being anchored to its location of the current utterance. For instance, utterance initial ‘anyway’ seems to indicate that the utterance which contains it is not addressed to the immediate preceding discourse, but to one or more steps back Levinson, (1983: 85).

Time and place deictic words can also be used to refer to forthcoming portion of the discourse, whereas ‘that’ always refers to a preceding portion.

31- I bet you haven’t heard this story.

32- That was the funniest story I’ve ever heard.

Levinson also made a clear-cut distinction between discourse deixis and what is called ‘anaphora’. He relates
a pronoun in the former to a linguistic expression (or chunk of discourse). And it is known that anaphoric expressions always relate the pronoun to the same entity as a prior linguistic expression as in the following example.

33- Harry’s sweetheart; he’s so considerate.

Levinson summed up that utterance initial usages of but, therefore, in conclusion, to the contrary, still, however, anyway, well, besides, actually, all in all, so, after all etc, can pragmatically be interpreted. This can be done as how the utterance contains them is considered as actual response to, or a continuation of some portion of the prior discourse.

2.6.1.5. Social Deixis:

Social deixis always encodes aspects of social relationship between speakers and addressees, and the social distinctions that are relative to participants’ roles in
speech event. However, this category of deixis is best glossed by Brown (1978), as the language structure which contains social identities of participants and their relations.

Levinson’s (1983) example on ‘polite’ pronouns and title of address and honorifics show that they can not be treated unless social deictic values are available. He also states that all social deixis, and most aspects of discourse deixies lie beyond the scope of a truth – conditional semantics. He restricts the study of social deixis to the study of facts within the scope of structural studies of linguistic system. He further points out two kinds of socially deictic information in languages around the world. That is relational and absolute and he quotes Irvine (1979), and Fillmore (1975), for further details.

So, it can be said that deictic usage of words provides a theoritical basis for describing language in
use. It gives language its factors which govern our choice of words and constructions. It also describes language in the context of intercultural communication (journalism here is considered as an instance for this phenomenon).

The role of pragmatics in theories of communicative competence, and second language acquisition is considered of exceeding importance. Because it shows what Brown (1994: 230) calls sociopragmatic or pragmalinguistic constraints whose function on language production and range of interpretation may be thought of as the effect of context on linguistic events.

Pragmatics is also considered as a vital approach of discourse. Approaches of discourse also are classified as speech act theory, interactional sociolinguistics, the ethnography of communication, conversation analysis, variation analysis (Schiffrin, 1994).
Discourse analysis can also be glossed as the analysis of functions of language. That is to study the intended speaker meaning (Yule, 1985: 99).

Yule points out that deictic expression can be interpreted through its physical context. That is the physical context of the speaker should be known in order that proper interpretation can be obtained.

As noted above deixis category is considered as essential part in pragmatic interpretation. The basic five categorization of deixis has one deictic centre which includes the central person (speaker). The central time (when the speaker produces the utterance). The central place (where the speaker’s location at CT). Discourse centre is the point which the speaker is currently at in the production of his utterance. Social centre is the speaker’s social status and rank to which the rank or status of the addressee or referents is relative.
It is worth noting that these five categories of deixis, mentioned above, should be considered as having one deictic centre which anchored upon the speaker at CT. They also help to identify the referents of referring expressions through its spacial or temporal relationship with the situation of the utterance (Hurford & Heasly, 1993: 64).

Referring expressions as indicated by Searle (1969: 27) are expressions that serve to identify any thing; process, event or any other kind of individuals. They provide answers to questions who? What? Which?, and are normally known by their functions. They are defined by Hurford & Heasly (1993: 26) as any expressions that can be referred to any entity in the real world or in an imaginary world. The propositions on the other hand have been conceived as any aspect of the meaning of the stretch of language, whether derived from what is actually said, or from what hearers assume or infer (Channell, 1994: 220). Many other linguists define it as that part of the meaning of the utterance, which describes some state of affair.
Concepts of referring expressions such as predicate, predicators (Various parts of speech, adjectives, verbs, prepositions, nouns) are playing an essential role in interpreting the meaning of newstories. It has also been shown that there are two kinds of implicature. First, the conversational implicature, which results from truth conditional inferences. Second, the conventional one depends on non–truth conditional expression Grice, (1975) cited in Lyons (1995: 272). Example of the latter one is Levinson’s (1983: 127) classification of discourse deictic words such as ‘however’, ‘anyway’, ‘although’, etc. and social deictic expressions like ‘sir’, ‘madam’, ‘your honour’, etc and social deictic expressions like ‘sir’, ‘madam’, ‘your honour’ etc Levinson shows that all the above particles have no propositional content to be analyzed truth conditionally.

Although conventional implicature has been viewed as such by Levinson, it is seen by linguist like Lyons (1995: 273) as having a proposition. Lyons exemplifies this by the particles ‘and’, ‘but’ in the following sentences:

- He is poor and he is honest.
He is poor but he is honest.

Lyons states that in using the particle ‘and’, the speaker might be implicating (not asserting) that it is unusual for someone to be both poor and honest.

Lyons (1995: 299) also shows that reference is actually connected with existence. Therefore, he indicates what he calls existential presupposition and adds that if this presupposition is violated in the utterance, sentence or proposition, there would be a failure to express any proposition at all. He provides the following statement to support his argument.

The king of France is bald.

Strawson (1952: 187) inclines to the view that such above statement cannot sensibly be said to be either true or false due to the non-existence of king in France in 1970.

Most journalistic propositions have this type of existential presupposition and as well are constantly referring to
people. Example of this is Krimsky’s (1997: 79) assumption that reporters often dislike to write about issues like government programme, general revenue sharing, because there are no people in them.

The analysis thus far of deixis always requires convergent involvement between those five centres. Example for this is greeting which may involve temporal, person, discourse deixis. Also demonstratives require both space and person. Deixis category is also divided by Fillmore (1971) into two deictic usages, one is gestural usages which entails an audio – visual tactile of speech event. The other one is symbolic usages which require for their interpretation only knowledge of the basic spatiotemporal figures of the speech event, and on occasions, it depends on participant role and discourse and social parameters. It is important here to note that the language of journalism in part can be considered as a symbolic usage of deixis.
As deixis category anchored mainly upon the role of the participants in speech event in which the utterance in question is delivered; journalism also is all about people, what they do, when, where and why they do it and how it affects the people and society, as indicated by Varley (1997: 4). Furthermore an affective reading of the news in journalism requires this pragmatic sense for both information and interpretation Hamilton & Krimsky, (1996: 2).

2. 6. 2. Speech Acts Theory:

This theory assumes that there is a verbally expressible illocution to each locution, or sentence, Cook, (1989: 43). It uses three layers of intention and interpretation. The first layer is the sentence itself. The second layer is the act (illocution) which is performed by saying the formal literal meaning of the words (locution). The third layer is concerned with the overall aim or effects of the discourse on hearers (perlocution). And by using this
underlying force, propositional contents and relations of the acts can be glossed so that stretches of language can be conceived as being coherent and communicative.

Historically, the theory has been developed as a result of the philosophy of logical postivism which prevailed in the 1930s. Speech act theory assumes that unless a sentence can be verified (i.e. tested for its truth and falsity it is strictly speaking meaningless Levinson, (1989: 227).

A pioneer figure of this classical pragmatics is John Austin (1962). He had valuable lectures that were posthumously published as “how to do things with words”.

Making an utterance in general is a mechanism which entails a referring expression, and which embodies a certain act. Austin indicates two kinds of utterances. The first is performative which describes the act that it performs. The
second one is constative which usually makes an assertion (declarative) (Hurford & Heasley, 1993: 232).

Austin shows a performative utterance as that which must be performed with a particular legal system, and Fulfill certain external conditions which are known as felicity conditions, as in the following example:

I sentence you to death.

Meeting its felicity conditions, the above sentence should have been uttered by someone with authority (a judge), in a country in which there is death penalty, to a person who has been convicted of a particular crime. And it must be spoken at the right time, (the end of a trial), and in a right place (a court). Austin also considers the specific conditions which link words to their institutional procedures be unhappy or infelicitous.
The theory has been extended by Searle’s (1969) principle of expressibility which views that ‘anything that can be meant can be said’. Searle looks at proposition in terms of the conditions under which they would be true. Illocutionary force indicates what the addressee is meant to do with a particular propositions. Examples of an ‘assertion’ may be intended to make the addressee believe in the proposition being expressed. An order may be said to make the proposition looks true.

It is important to note that illocutions are defined as acts determined by social conventions. Example of that are acts like accosting, accusing, admitting, apologizing, challenging, complaining, condoling, congratulating, declining, deploring, giving permission, giving way, greeting, leave taking, mocking, naming, offering, praising, promising, proposing marriage, protesting, recommending, surrendering, thanking etc. (Hurford &
These illocutions are classified into two kinds. The direct illocution of an utterance which is directly indicated by the sentence, and the indirect illocution which is the further act that the utterance in question may have. Example of the indirect illocution is the following.

34- Can you pass the salt?

The above example may be understood as a direct locution which inquires about the hearer’s ability to pass the salt. On the other hand it may be understood as a request that the hearer pass the salt (Hurford & Heasly, 1993: 259).

It is worth noting that there can be direct directives (e. g. pass the Salt), and indirect ‘directives’ (e. g. can you pass the Salt?). The term ‘direct’ indicates how an illocution is carried out. That is whether directly or indirectly. And the term ‘directive’ only identifies the type
of act that is carried out by the utterance that is delivered.

An example of indirect illocutions is the following one taken from Stubbs (1983: 4).

35- Your glass is empty.

What it might be meant by the above example is (36).

36- I am offering to buy you a drink.

In the analysis thus far, there is no clear cut distinction between performative, and constative utterances. To put it more generally that by using Schiffrin’s (1994) words ‘To state is every bit as much to perform an illocutionary act as, say, to warn or pronounce’.

2.6.2.2. Speech Acts and Language Use:

THEREFORE, IN THIS THEORY OF SPEECH ACTS, SENTENCES ARE CONSIDERED AS DISCOURSES, BECAUSE THEY ARE ALWAYS SAID IN PARTICULAR SPEECH SITUATION (CONTEXTS). SCHIFFRIN (1994: 53) GOES FURTHER TO INDICATE THAT ‘EVEN THE TRUTH AND FALSITY OF STATEMENTS IS CONTEXTUALLY BOUND’.

IT IS IMPORTANT TO NOTE LEVINSON’S (1983: 376) IDENTIFICATION OF CONTEXT TO INDICATE A SET OF
PROPOSITIONS, DESCRIBING THE BELIEFS, KNOWLEDGE AND COMMITMENTS OF THE PARTICIPANTS IN DISCOURSE. IN CONTRAST, DISCOURSE IS CONCEIVED BY COOK (1989: 6) AS LANGUAGE IN USE, OR WHEN IT IS USED FOR COMMUNICATION, AND WHAT GIVES DISCOURSE COHERENCE IS DISCOURSE ANALYSIS.
IT IS WORTHMENTIONING THAT COHERENT LANGUAGE MAY OR MAY NOT CORRESPOND TO ACTUAL GRAMMAR. IT RESORTS TO GRAMMAR WHEN IT NEEDS TO, AND DEPARTS FROM IT WHEN THE COMMUNICATIVE IMPORT OF ACTS IS UNDERSTOOD (COOK, 1989: 7). HENCE STUBB’S (1983: 8) ASSUMPTION THAT THERE IS NO USE OF LANGUAGE WHICH IS NOT EMBEDDED IN THE CULTURE.

AS NOTED ABOVE, THIS THEORY OF SPEECH ACTS CAN BE CONSIDERED AS AN APPROACH OF DISCOURSE. THIS CAN BE WELL SHOWN IN JOURNALISTIC ADVERTISMENTS AND WRITING.

2. 6. 3. Implicature:
IMPLICATURE REFERS TO THE APPROACH BY WHICH SPEAKERS WORK OUT IN INDIRECT ILLOCUTIONS OF UTTERANCES. HOW HEARERS ARRIVE AT INDIRECT ILLOCUTIONS OF UTTERANCES. THAT IS HOW DOES A HEARER DEDUCE REASONABLE INFERENCES FROM THE GAP BETWEEN WHAT IS SAID AND WHAT IS MEANT (HURFORD & HEASLEY, 1993: 280). THIS DOES NOT MEAN THAT THE SPEAKERS ARE NOT VIOLATING ONE OF THE FOUR CONVERSATIONAL MAXIMS, OF RELEVANCE, INFORMATIVENESS, CLARITY OR BREVITY WHICH ARE CONTRIBUTED BY GRICE (1975).

In ‘speaker meaning’ Grice divides meaning into two basic categories. That is non-natural meaning (meaning non) which is entirely based on the intention of the speaker, and natural meaning which is in return devoid of human intentionality.

Example of non-natural meaning which can be stated is drawn by Grice himself as follows.

37- Three rings on the Bell of the bus:

In this above example, Grice states that the hidden meaning or ‘implicature’ is the bus is full. Therefore natural language expressions are duly attributed to principles of conversation or to the
cooperative principle which underlies communication (Schiffrin, 1994: 194).

Palmer (1981: 173) also draws a distinction between information that is assumed by the speaker to be known to the hearer (presupposition), and implied information that the hearer does not know. Thus, the speaker may imply what he does not actually say. For example ‘it’s cold in here’, might be taken as a request to close a window. Hence Levinson (1983: 96) assumes that implicature always provides some explicit account of how it is possible to mean, more than what is actually said. Examples of this run as following.

38- A\ can you tell me the time?

    B\ Well, the milkman has come.

    In the above example B’s answer might provide implicit duration to what the time might be, because of
the coming of the milkman may provide some information about the time to A.

The analysis so far of Grice’s maxims include the multifunctionality of utterances in human situations. That is one can say something and mean something else. In Grice’s quality maxim, the speaker should give the minimum required information for the speaker on true utterances. His maxims of relevance and manner order and urge the speaker to be relevant and perpicuous.

It is worth noting Levinson’s (1983: 102) observation that no one speaks like this the whole time. So, the main interest in implicature, however, has focused on the occasions when it derives, not from the observation of the maxims, but from their violation or flouting of them (Palmer, 1981: 175). Though such usages are referred to Grice himself as floutings or exploitation of the maxim. Categorization of such usages can clearly appear in irony.
usages and metaphor ones, and examples of these usages can be seen in the following.

39- Queen Victoria was made of Iron.
40- War is war.
41- If he does it, he does it.

The speech act theory also has a connection with Grice’s (1975) maxims which are based on the conditions which he sets in order to clarify any violation of what constitute a communicative text. Searle (1969) also built upon the work of Austin (1962) to develop the notion of speech act to what is called expressibility and language communication.

There are also several linguists (Palmer, 1981, Levinson: 1983) who extend and classify the concepts of acts into the following:

1- Representatives: an act which seeks to represent a state of affairs (such as stating, telling, insisting ...), and this
category of acts in our present study will be discussed under the subsection of speech act and writing of newstories.

2- Expressives: an act which gives an expression to the speakers mental and emotional attitude towards a state of affairs (e.g. deploring, admiring, etc) and this is seen in journalistic news values and commentaries.

3- Verdictives: an act which evaluates and relays judgment (e.g. assessing, estimating, etc), and this can be seen in journalistic opinion columns because they are highly individualistic.

4- Directives: an act which seeks to influence the text receiver’s behaviour (e.g. ordering, requesting, daring). And this will be seen in journalistic advertisements.
5- Commissives: and act which commits the speaker to a course of action (e.g. promising, vowing, pledging...etc).

6- Declaratives: an act whose utterance performs the action involved (e.g. blessing, baptizing, dismissing.. etc).

Grice (1975) in his cooperative principle (CP) introduced the maxims which account for what the speaker intends to imply, and when a text producer’s intentionality violates or flouts one of these maxims. (Grice’s maxims, 1975 cited in Palmer, 1981: 175) can be identified as follows:

1- Cooperation: make your conversational contribution such as required by the accepted purpose or direction of the talk exchange in which you are engaged.

2- Quality: do not say what you believe to be false or that for which you lack adequate evidence
3- Relation: be relevant.

4- Manner: avoid obscurity of expression, avoid ambiguity, be brief, be orderly.

In the above examples what is implicated depends largely upon the particular context of utterance. It is derived from the surface structure of sentences.

Levinson adds that ironies require background assumptions to govern their interpretations. But metaphors are always conveying their meaning in a context independent way.

Most important to know is that most of deictic expressions mentioned earlier include implicature as a central meaning component. This item includes discourse deictic elements such as ‘however’, ‘moreover’, ‘besides’, ‘anyway’, ‘although’, ‘oh’, ‘so’, etc. In addition to social deictic elements such as ‘sir’, ‘madam’, ‘mate’, your ‘honour’, ‘sonny’, ‘key’, ‘oi’, (Levinson, 1983: 128).
The notion of implicature also includes a linguistic range of interpretation or scale (which can be arranged in a linear order by degree of informativeness). Moreover it includes the notion of entailment. Therefore, what is hot is a special sub case of what is warm, so a sentences of the form ‘Y’ is hot entails ‘Y’ is warm (Channell, 1994: 138).

Channell, (1994: 33- 34) identifies scalar implicatures as a choice of one member from a set of related linguistic items, because this choice implies further meaning. Example of this are ‘always’, ‘often’, ‘sometimes’ in the following:

42- I often get an hour late.

The above sentence implicates that I do not always get an hour late, but entails that I sometimes do.

Lyons (1995: 272) indicates Grice’s (1975) two kinds of implicatures. The first is conventional implicature which depends on
something other than what is truth-conditional in the conventional use, or meaning, or particular forms of expressions. Conventional implicatures arise from the conventional meanings of words and discourse they occur in. They can be drawn from items like lexical synonyms, particles, rhetorical questions and social honorifics.

The second is conversational which is derived from a set of principles which regulate the proper conduct of conversation, and it might involve social interaction either spoken or written. It usually arises when the speaker knowingly violates one or more of Grice’s (1975) maxims. For instance if the utterance is vague or ambiguous, it gives rise to conversational implicature via violating the manner maxim, because the speaker/writer communicated intent remains ill-defined. Also both metaphors and idioms can not be understood from the conventional use of their language. Thus their meanings depend on violating quality maxims (to speak the truth). Maxim of quantity is usually violated in irony, euphemism, ellipsis, rhetorical question. (Appendix VI)
Finally, it is important to note Stubb’s (1983: 12) observation that Scholars have made great contributions to studying how language is used. Linguists, anthropologists, sociolinguists, ethnomethodologists, philosophers, artificial intelligence, social psychology all contribute to making account of language and its everyday use in the connected discourse.

Yet, in the production of news in journalism much is still left implicit (unsaid) rather than explicit (Watson & Hill, 1997: 108) and this sort of implication is generally ideological. Most important contributions to this inference of implicature will be seen in writing journalistic headlines, in chapter four.

2.6.4. Presupposition:

Presupposition of pragmatics depends entirely on the linguistic structure of sentences. Therefore, in an expression as ‘the king of France is bald’, the speaker merely presupposes ‘the king’s existence’, and does not assert it (Palmer, 1981: 167).
It is important to note the distinction between logical implication or entailment and the category of presupposition which is stated by Frege, (1952), and Strawson, (1952) quoted in Levinson (1983). Frege shows ‘Presupposition’ as a relation between sentences, while Strawson views it as relation between statements.

Levinson also attempts to test a model that an utterance ‘A’ pragmatically presupposes a proposition ‘B’ ‘iff’ ‘A’ is appropriate, and only if ‘B’ is mutually known by participants. Example of this is the following.

43- I’m sorry I’m late, I’m afraid my car broke down.

Levinson states that this above sentence presupposes that the speaker has a car.
Presupposition is also always considered and thought of in singular terms like ‘proper names’, quantified noun phrases, temporal clauses, and in change of state verbs. For example.

44- Bertrand has stopped beating his wife.

Levinson states that the above sentence presupposes that Bertrand has been beating his wife.

Lyons (1995: 299) states that one can not successfully refer to an item that does not exist. That is one can not presuppose for something that does not exist.

Levinson (1983: 217) reduces presupposition to semantic entailment, conventional and conversational implicatures, and felicity conditions. By entailment he shows background entailment of a sentence which is conceived as not being relevant to context. The information which is relevant to the sentence and which is added to the sentence is foreground entailment.
Lyons (1995) indicates that presupposition should be inferred in a span of time and place. The description of a language will fail to express any proposition if it does not incorporate these items.

Levinson (1983) concludes that presupposition remains nintey years after Frege’s remarks on the subject, still partially understood. Therefore, the present study, by adopting Levinson’s background and foreground entailment, hopes to provide new insights on the subject. Special emphasis will be given to referring expressions in journalistic writing.

2.7. The Language and Style of Journalism:

2. 7. 1. Reporting the News as a Process of Communication:

Language symbols alone have no meaning, but their real meaning is usually included in their referential kind of items, or to the event which they stand for, as stated by Anderson et. al. (1964: 90), and what the referent of a word means, depends largely on the individual’s experience with that word. This
leads to what is called the word’s literal meaning (denotations), and intentional meaning (connotations) which sustain greatly the anlaysis of the nature of the lexicon. Therefore, the process of communication is always thought of as intrapersonal communication (within the self), and interpersonal one (between two or more people), (Grunder et. al, 1977: 20).

Most essential to note is that communication itself is regarded as a complex process, because it has so many angles shared together in order to produce and interpret a message. Giffin & Patton’s (1971: 45), assume that there are six people involved whenever there is communication. The first is, the person you think yourself to be. The second one is the man your partner thinks you are, and the third is the person you believe your partner thinks you are. Plus the three equivalent persons are those at the end of the circuit. That is the same three persons on behalf of your partner’s view.
This supports Davison’s (1976: 71 – 76) assumption that different newspapers may offer different versions of the same event, since each one represents a different political climate. Moreover, journalistic content in general is greatly influenced by the audience’s attitudes towards what is offered by the newspaper.

Defleur & Dennis (1981: 137) distinguish between newspapers and magazines. They claim that a magazine is published less frequently; manufactured in a different format usually on better quality paper, bound rather than just folded, and with some kind of cover. Besides that magazines usually tend to tackle topics in a broader interpretive perspectives.

According to differences in cultures, and various political climates, news gathering agencies are criticized in looking forward to objective, straight, factual reporting, irrespective with determining associated meanings through analyzing facts. This leads editors like Erwin Canham to claim that the
“background, surrounding circumstance prior events motivation – all are part of the real and basic news” Rivers (1964: 180). Here, this kind of interpretation is actually the best kind of reportings. That is knowledge of a situation is the vital element in interpreting reporting. This also leads to know how media content or foreign news supplied by wire services might be killed, rewritten, or transmitted further because of the internal local pressures of a particular community, and sources that make and control decisions. This is clearly investigated in Watson & Hill’s (1997; 4 – 91) terms of ‘agenda setting’ and gatekeeping.

There are also what is called the alternative journalist who is usually thought of as being neutral. And the advocacy journalist who writes with a commitment to a particular viewpoint, (Emery & Smythe, 1972: 120– 25).

It can be assumed then that a journalist as an individual may have a political position which might be influenced and
interpreted through the expectations and ideology which guide his political behaviour (Mueller, 1973: 101).

2. 7. 2. Technicalities of Writing Feature Headlines:

In most notable newspapers headlines are always written by copy editors who "stand midway between the reporter and the editor", (Rivers 1964: 288). They are intended to capture the attention of the reader; give gist of the story, grade the news symbolically, attract and hold the attention of the reader to the particular article (Duff & Shindler, 1984: 4-24).

Rivers (1964: 288 – 295) suggests certain criteria for writing a headline. The first is that headlines or ‘heads’ must be deduced or rendered out of the information that appears in the first few sentences of a newstory. These first sentences are called the ‘leads’, and defined by Rivers (ibid: 156) as that kind of sentences which include the five Ws (who, what, when, where and why), and which explain the how as well. Hamilton&
Krimsky, (1996: 51) call this phenomenon the immutable journalistic law of the five Ws and H.

Journalists also tend to relate events in chronological order, that is events are described in descending order of importance. The first short opening sentences give the gist of the whole story, using the technique of the five ‘W’ and ‘H’. This process of ordering is known in journalism by the inverted pyramid which is considered for a long time as the standard form for presenting news. The five Ws and H are exemplified by Rivers’ (1964: 167), as follows.

**HOLLYWOOD-** A police detective was shot to death Sunday when he and a companion were Kidnapped on HOLLYWOOD BLVD, and forced to derive two ex-convicts 60 miles.

(Rivers, 1964: 167)

The second criteria of writing a headline as indicated by Rivers (1964: 288), is that ‘heads’ must be written in present
tense so that it can give a reader a sense of immediacy, Duff& shindler, (1984: 4).

Heads must also contain a verb, either expressed or implied. Verbs forms must be written, exception is only permitted in some editorials. The following examples are taken from Rivers.

45- Faculty Codifies Absence Rules:

In the above example Rivers states that verb–form is recommended rather than the nouns–form.

46- Regulations for absences:

It is to note here that verb ‘to be’ and the articles ‘a’, ‘an’ and ‘the’ are always omitted in headlines. Exception to this is made only if they are essential to real meaning of the head. for example:

47- Actor found dead:
In the above example if ‘articles’ and the ‘verb to be’ are included, the headline will appear as the follows.

48- An actor has been found dead:

Heads also are written in the active voice, rather than the passive so that ambiguity can be removed. The future is expressed in heads by the form of the future tense, or the infinitive form, or the present tense with a date. Example:

49- MP to open health centre:

(Duff, Shindler, 1984: 4)

Rivers (1964) also provides miscellaneous rules of writing headlines. These rules can be stated, as not to separate parts of a verb, or proper nouns between lines. Verb – first – form is avoided, and instead a noun – first – form is used. Also one does not separate the preposition
and its object, and not to separate an adjective and the
word it described. Also generally a ‘comma’ is used in a
place of ‘and’. And one should not repeat the same word
twice. Well known abbreviations are always used to save
space and time. Finally all first letters in lines must be
capitalized, and all the principle words.

Many devices are used in writing features headlines,
but punning of words is considered to be the most common
one. Other devices which are included as Rhyme, Alliteration,
twisted cliché, and allusions. As, for puns, Christ (1982: 4 – 8)
assumes that because of the oddities of English spelling puns
are much found and can easily be made up.

Hamilton & Krimsky (1996: 47 – 61) illustrates that the age
of big, bold, brassy headlines is now dying. However, more
emphasis has been given to the total page design and
packaging of news. That if the inforamation is so compelling a
good story writes itself.
Therefore, and in order to provide examples of headlines, Duff & Shindler (1984: 8) are recommending the following example which shows how a journalist writes economically.

50- Council budget axed:

As noted above the journalist leaves out words that do not add to the content like articles, verb to be, prepositions. Thus nouns are always piled together. But, in a future passive form ‘verb to be’ is used as in the following example.

51- Health centre to be opened by MP:

Also, there are times in which nouns can not be piled, and prepositions can not be left out as in the following example.

52- Model killed by doctor:

53- Nurse in village killing:
Puns, or (playing with meaning) can also be done on words with different meanings where each meaning is vital to the particular story. Example of this is the following headline.

54- It’s the sole clue:

The above headline shows a story where the sole clue to who had carried out a theft was on the sole of a shoe.

It also can be played on words of the same pronunciation, and which have different spellings, and therefore different meanings, but each is essential to the story. Example of this would be the following headlines.

55- Weight for it:

In this story a man has to wait before he can collect winnings from a bet concerning his weight.
Rhyming also appears in words which echo each other’s sound. Example of this is the following.

56- Greater Crater:

Alliteration is used in words which start with the same letter or sound. Example to this is the following.

57- Channel champion:

Duff & Shindler (1984: 5) concluded by saying that, whenever one is looking at headlines that play with language, he may find that some of the connections may be rather loose. Hence, one should use his imagination to grasp the intended meaning. That is one does not expect the precision of a dictionary. However, this can be replaced by that one must use appropriate pragmatic inferences to carry out the meaning of these codes, or headlines.
Duff & Shindler (ibid) further state that the reporter can convey his/her meanings in formal or conversational style. They provide the following examples to illustrate this.

58- Mr Smith became interested in Vaccination:

59- John took a fancy to a jab …

Thus, the reporter has many tools to use in determining his style. S/He can use humour, irony or literary devices and reference words or juxtaposition of ideas. Example of this juxtaposition of ideas would be the following.

60- I didn’t vote in the local elections this Year. None of the candidates appealed to me.

Essential to note here is that this journalistic technique of ‘juxtaposition of ideas’, is replaced by
Widdowson’s (1979) linguistic analysis by two – level propositions which appear in the following example.

The unions refused to accept the government’s proposal. Unemployment has been rising steadily over the past few months.

Here, Widdowson (1979) indicates that at the level of form, there are two separate sentences, and at the content level, there are two separate propositions. That is the second sentence proposition explains the state of affairs described in the first sentence, since, that sentence propositions usually satisfy conditions which identify different communicative acts.

2. 7. 3. Writing Feature:

In writing features, the reporter usually reacts positively or negatively to the life arround him. Features are highly
individualistic, and are considered as vehicles of opinion (Rivers, 1964: 185).

In defining what feature is, the answer would be all the published materials in the papers are considered features with exception to editorial, reviews and opinion columns. Rivers (1964) adds that feature writer must often judge, and should never advocate. Furthermore, features differ from stories in that they are always factual. They are divided in human interest issues; interviews, sport reporters and family affairs. For a question within an interview and multifunctionality of utterances as speech acts Schifrin, 1994 : 14- 85).

2. 7. 4. Communication Problems:

Most esential to note here is that when sending a letter or a message, the communication process should
entail no physical, physiological impairment or psychological problems (Berko, 1977: 10 – 13). By physical is meant, the outside interference or noise that blocks the receiver from hearing the message, and physiological impairment is used to describe biological flaws such deafness in people who do not have the sensory capabilities to receive a message, unless they use some mechanical devices. Semantic problems which usually include cultural difference may hinder understanding. Example of semantic problems is represented by foreign diplomats who are assigned to American embassies in Washington. Those diplomats always translate the word “catsup” (tomato sauce), at the verb “catch up”. Syntactic problems always include the message encoded without grammar – rules. Example of this is a two year old girl who says ‘milk’. This word can not be interpreted in a good sense unless its context of situation bis identified. Therefore, it may mean ‘I don’t want the milk’, or ‘I want a glass of milk’.
Rivers (1964) indicates that precise writing in journalism entails removal of what is called vague language. Although, sentences like “boy are supposed to be Boys”, ‘you can not find anyone over thirty’, which are exemplified by Berko (1977) are considered as social noise or problems, but pragmatic theory may provide reasonable interpretation to such kind of sentences.

Here, it is important to note Channell, (1994: 18 – 24) term of vague additives to such kind of repetition. They are exemplified by Rivers (1964) as in the following words:

62- Dead body  body
63- New innovation  innovation
64- Future plans  plans
65- Canary bird  canary
66- Invited guests  guests

They are described by Ferguson (1980) as “identical twin”. Example of this is the following.
Our mayor is lifelong native of our city.

Freguson (1980) shows that the above sentence should be rewritten like the following.

Our mayor is a native of our city.

Another example is

Please save this list for future reference.

Please save this for reference.

Finally it can be said that such concepts of vague language always lead editors to correct errors of grammar. And be so precise in judging news values; look for the right word; remove the unnecessary words (empty words) as preferred by Ferguson (1980). Editors must also bear special attention to moveable parts such as ‘almost’, ‘even’, ‘hardly’, ‘just’, ‘merely’, ‘never’, ‘rarely’, and the confusing pronouns (Freguson, 1980: 7).

Editors should cater for Lyons’ (1977) assumption that statements usually express propositions which are in turn reflecting the writer’s attitudes and behaviours. He notes that much of the information that is conveyed from speaker to addressee in conversation is implied rather than asserted.
Watson & Hill (1997: 54) name the item which may influence the way in which messages are encoded or decoded as cultural capital. They define it as knowledge, tastes, attitudes, values and assumptions which individual or groups possess in response to various cultures.

This cultural capital can be represented as the journalist’s or editor’s or newspaper’s attitudes towards the propositions which are chosen to be written or stated, thus, this cultural capital will be catered for in interpreting or reading journalistic texts in chapter four of textual analysis.

It has been widely agreed that one of the main controversial issues in modern linguistic theory is the distinction made by linguists between competence and performance. Competence is used to mean what the speaker
OF THE LANGUAGE KNOWS IMPLICITLY HOWEVER, WHAT S/HE REALLY DOES IS CONSIDERED AS HIS PERFORMANCE.

TO INSTANCE FOR THAT, WE FIND THAT THE TRADITIONAL GRAMMAR DOES NOT ACTUALLY FORMULATE THE RULES OF GRAMMAR, BUT INSTEAD IT AFFORDS EXAMPLES AND HINTS THAT DETERMINE THE GRAMMAR. CHOMSKY’S GENERATIVE GRAMMAR ON THE OTHER HAND GOES BEYOND THE VIEW OF TRADITIONAL GRAMMAR BY GIVING ATTENTION TO WHAT IS CALLED
‘CREATIVITY OF LANGUAGE’ (ALLEN & BURN 1971:2).

NOTWITHSTANDING, IT HAS WIDELY BEEN AGREED THAT THE GENERAL PROBLEM APPEARS IN CORRESPONDING FORM TO MEANING. THAT IS, THE DISTINCTION MADE BETWEEN WHAT IS SAID AND WHAT IS MEANT. LEVINSON (1983) CONFIRMS THAT ONE CAN ‘READ IN’ AN UTTERANCE MORE THAN WHAT IT CONVENTIONALLY MEANS. THAT IS TO SAY, ONE CAN SAY SOMETHING TO INDICATE SOMETHING ELSE.
‘READING IN’ AN UTTERANCE MORE THAN WHAT IT CONVENTIONALLY MEANS IS AN IDEA OF SIGNIFICANT CONNECTION TO THE NOTION OF PRAGMATICS AND DISCOURSE THEORIES. BOTH THEORIES IN THE LAST TWO DECADES HAVE NEGOTIATED INFERENCES OF DEIXIS, SPEECH ACT, IMPLICATURE, AND PRESUPPOSITION, AND LINGUISTS AND SEMANTICIANS HAVE DISCUSSED THE ABOVE INFERENCES IN MANY STUDIES. IN THE REST OF THIS CHAPTER, CATEGORIZATION OF EACH
INFERENCE AND SOME OF THE STUDIES UNDERTAKEN ON IT WILL BE SHOWN, SINCE THE MAIN AIM OF THIS STUDY IS TO IMPROVE ON LEVINSON (1983), WHO TACKLES THESE FOUR INFERENCES UNDER THE TITLE OF PRAGMATICS.

2 -8 Deixis Studies:

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN DEIXIS AND READER. A DISHARMONY IS FELT BY THE POETIC VOICE WITH THE SPATIO-TEMPORAL DIMENSIONS IN WHICH THE READER IS PLACED, BOTH EXISTENTIALLY AND HISTORICALLY, AND THAT IS FELT AS OBSTACLES PREVENTING THE PASSAGE INTO NEW DIMENSIONS. THE TRADITIONAL CONCEPTS OF SPACE AND TIME LOSE THEIR CLAUSTROPHOBIC SIGNIFICANCE. A CLINE OF CONTEXTS OF SITUATIONS IS CREATED BY THE POETIC DISCOURSE, FROM THAT WHERE THE
READERS ARE INVISIBLE EAVESDROPPERS, OVERHEARING A CONVERSATION BETWEEN OTHERS TO THAT IN WHICH ‘THE READERS CAN PLACE THEMSELVES IN THE DEICTIC CENTRE BY ADOPTING AN APPROPRIATE DISTANCE TOWARD THE EVENTS THAT ARE BEING RECOUNTED. FOR EXAMPLE IN MONTALE’S POEM “IN LIMINE”, THE READERS ARE NOT ONLY EAVESDROPPERS OR ABLE TO PLACE THEMSELVES IN THE DEICTIC CENTRE, BUT SYMBOLICALLY TAKE AN ACTIVE PART IN THE
CONTEXT OF COMMUNICATION AND BECOME A NECESSARY ELEMENT FOR THE FUNCTIONING OF THE TEXTS. IN THIS PARTICULAR POEM, THE USE OF DEIXIS IS FUNDAMENTAL TO UNDERSTANDING OF WHAT KIND OF RELATIONSHIP THE SPEAKING VOICE WANTS TO ESTABLISH WITH READER – ADDRESS.

RICCOBONO (1996) USES TIME AND PLACE CATEGORIES OF DEIXIS IN MONTALE’S POETRY SO AS IT CAN BE FULLY UNDERSTOOD AND APPRECIATED BY READER.
– ADDRESSEE. HE SHOWS THAT TIME AND PLACE DEICTIC EXPRESSIONS LOSE THEIR SMALL AND CLOSED MEANING TO ADDRESS THE READER–ADDRESSEE WITH A BROADER SENSE. READERS–ADDRESSEE SHOULD TRY TO GRASP THE POET’S BROAD TIME AND PLACE. THAT IS THEY SHOULD WIDELY CONCEIVE THE TIME AND PLACE OF DEICTIC EXPRESSIONS IN MONTALE’S POETRY. MONTALE’S PHRASES OF TIME AND PLACE SHOULD EXISTENTIALLY AND HISTORICALLY BE SEEN.
AT WHILE PRODUCING HIS/HER UTTERANCE. SOCIAL CENTRE IS GLOSSED AS THE SPEAKER’S SOCIAL STATUS AND RANK TO WHICH THE RANK AND STATUS OF THE ADDRESSEE OR REFERENT IS RELATIVE. THE PRESENT STUDY WILL TACKLE DEIXIS IN A WAY THAT REFLECTS THE ACTUAL REALIZATION OF THE SPEAKER’S UTTERANCES AT CODING TIME ‘CT.

POETRY, HOWEVER, IS CONSIDERED AS A WORK OF FANTASY WHICH NEEDS PRAGMATIC ISSUES LIKE METAPHORS AND FIGURES
OF SPEECH TO BE FULLY UNDERSTOOD. IN ADDITION TO THE FACT THAT ONE MIGHT UNDERSTAND AND APPRECIATE A POEM WITHOUT REALLY KNOWING ITS CODING TIME.

DEIXIS OR ‘INDEXICALITY’

IS A GRAMMATICAL
CATEGORY INVOLVING
REFERENCE TO

CHARACTERISTICS OF THE

SITUATION WHERE AN
UTTERANCE TAKES PLACE.

THE USE OF ENGLISH
ARTICLE IS DEEPLY
CONNECTED WITH THE
WAY COGNITION IS
ACQUIRED. ARTICLES IN
ENGLISH FUNCTION AS
OLD AND NEW
INFORMATION MARKERS IN
CERTAIN CONTEXTS, WITH

THE DEFINITE ARTICLE
USED FOR THE OLD
INFORMATION AND THE
INDEFINITE ARTICLE USED
TO INTRODUCE NEW
INFORMATION. A TEXT – MAPPING SYSTEM HAS BEEN BASED ON AN IMPORTANT TOOL IN TEACHING JAPANESE STUDENTS THE USE OF THE DEFINITE ARTICLE IN ENGLISH. USED IN CONJUNCTION WITH A COMPUTER TEXT EDITOR – THIS SYSTEM HAS THE ADVANTAGE OF PRESENTING COHESIVE RELATIONS IN A HIGHLY VISIBLE WAY.

DISCOURSE DEIXIS IN THIS STUDY IS SEEN IN DISCOURSES PARTICLES AND IT INTERACTS WITH OTHER PRAGMATIC ISSUES SUCH
AS IMPLICATURE AND OTHER CATEGORIES OF DEIXIS. ALSO WE MARK THE DEFINITE ARTICLE WITH OLD NEW-STORIES, AND THE INDEFINITE ARTICLE WITH NEW ONES. WE ALSO JOIN THE ASPECT OF DEFINITE/INDEFINITE ARTICLES WITH THE PRAGMATIC INFERENCE OF THE PRESUPPOSITION. THAT IS THE NEWSTORIES, WHICH, ARE INTRODUCED TO HEARERS/READERS FOR THE SECOND TIME BY USING THE DEFINITE ARTICLE, ARE NORMALLY PRESUPPOSING FOR SOMETHING THAT THE READER/HEARER HAS
BACKGROUND
INFORMATION ABOUT THEM.

HORSELLA (1994) DISCUSSES VARIOUS TECHNIQUES THAT BENEFIT SCIENTISTS AND PROFESSIONALS. THESE TECHNIQUES CAN BE USED TO KEEP CURRENT IN THEIR FIELD DESPITE THE LARGE AMOUNT OF AVAILABLE INFORMATION, SUCH AS CONSULTING ABSTRACTS, INDEXES, REVIEWS, AND CATALOGUES. IT ALSO EXAMINES SPECIFIC LANGUAGE PATTERNS THAT ARE USED IN SCIENCES TO PRODUCE
SYNTHESIS AND ABRIDGEMENT, BASED UPON A STUDY OF THE LANGUAGE USED IN MATHEMATICS, CHEMISTRY, AND ELECTRICITY. EIGHT LINGUISTIC ELEMENTS OF SYNTHESIS (ES) WERE IDENTIFIED: (1) COMPLEX NOMINAL, SUCH AS COMPOUND NOUNS; (2) FORMULAIC EXPRESSION; (3) NOMINALIZATIONS, WHICH OFTEN REFER TO PHYSICAL OR MENTAL PROCESSES. (4) NON–FINITE FORMS, SUCH AS PARTICIPLES AND INFINITIVES; (5) PREPOSITIONAL PHRASES,
(6) VOCABULARY 3, WHICH REFERS TO EVENTS, IDEATION, CONCEPT, AND TEXT; (7) ANAPHOR/DEIXIS, WHICH REFER TO ACTIONS AND ENTITIES, AND (8) ELLIPSIS. THE USAGE, FREQUENCY, AND ROLES OF (ES) ARE THEN EXAMINED.

DEIXIS CATEGORY IN CONTRAST IS CONCEIVED IN THIS STUDY IN ITS SOCIAL, HUMAN, AND ONTOLOGICAL ASPECTS. THE INFERENCE OF DEIXIS IS SHOWN IN THE LANGUAGE OF JOURNALISM. THAT IS THE INFERENCE IS CONCEIVED
IN REAL INSTANCES OF TEXTS (REAL –LIVE – USE OF OCCURRENCES).

IN THIS RESPECT, TANERI (1989) EXAMINES THE USE OF ONE BODY PART TERM IN TURKISH, CORRESPONDING TO THE ENGLISH “HEAD”. IT IS DEMONSTRATED THAT THIS TERM IS THE MOST UNMARKED BODY –PART TERM IN THE LANGUAGE WITH THE LARGEST FUNCTIONAL LOAD IN COMMON USAGE. IT IS FOUND TO HAVE A LARGE NUMBER OF DERIVATIONS, ESPECIALLY WITH SOCIALLY DEICTIC
MEANINGS. POSSIBLE DIFFERENT INTERPRETATIONS OF MEANING AND DIFFERENT CONTEXTS OF USAGE ARE CONSIDERED. IT IS CONCLUDED THAT FOR TURKISH SPEAKERS THE TERM HAS SOME CULTURAL SIGNIFICANCE AND ITS VARIED USES ILLUSTRATE CULTURAL FACTS AND SOCIAL STRUCTURE.

IN THIS STUDY, HOWEVER, WE WILL DEAL WITH THE SPEAKER/WRITER AND THE GIVEN SPAN WHICH THEY ARE STANDING IN. THAT IS WHAT THE
WRITER/SPEAKER IS SAYING, AND WHAT THE SPEAKER/WRITER MEANS, AND HOW S/HE SAYS IT. THE STUDY, THUS, WILL PROVIDE INFORMATION ABOUT DEIXIS CENTRE AS ANCHORAGE POINT FROM WHICH INTERPRETATION OF TEXTS/DISCOURSES TAKES PLACE.

NIIMURA AND HAYASHI’S (1990) ANALYSIS IS BASED ON THE FIRST LANGUAGE (L1), WHICH REPRESENTS JAPANESE LANGUAGE, AND SECOND LANGUAGE (L2), WHICH STANDS FOR ENGLISH. THEY MAKE CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS
OF ENGLISH AND JAPANESE DEMONSTRATIVES. FIRST, THEY PRESENT TRADITIONAL EXPLANATIONS AND THEIR ALTERNATIVE MODELS FOR ENGLISH AND JAPANESE. THEN, ALL MODELS ARE TESTED WITH L1 AND L2 DATA, WHICH LEADS TO A DISCUSSION OF THE DIFFERENT SYSTEMS OF ENGLISH AND JAPANESE DEMONSTRATIVES.

DEMONSTRATIVE S IN THIS STUDY ARE DISCUSSED UNDER DEIXIS CATEGORY. FOR EXAMPLE, ‘THIS’ WILL BE PROJECTED
AS REFERRING TO A COMING PORTION OF DISCOURSE, AND ‘THAT’ IS PROJECTED AS REFERRING TO A PRECEDING PORTION OF DISCOURSE.

SUNANDA (1988) SHOWS THAT SPOKEN SINHALESE DIFFERS FROM THE WRITTEN LANGUAGE IN HAVING AN ENTIRELY DIFFERENT PRONOUN SYSTEM. SPOKEN SINHALESE PROVIDES A GOOD EXAMPLE OF SOCIAL DEIXIS BECAUSE IT ENCODES SOCIAL RELATIONSHIPS AMONG THE SPEECH ACT PARTICIPANTS. HE SHOWS
HOW THE SPOKEN PRONOUNS SYSTEM ENCODES PROXIMITY AND SOCIAL DISTANCE AND HOW IT IS IN AGREEMENT WITH VERB SYSTEM IN SPOKEN SINHALESE. EXAMPLES ILLUSTRATE THAT THE FIRST PERSON PRONOUNS DO NOT DIFFER ACCORDING TO SOCIAL USAGE OR ANY OTHER VARIABLE, WHILE THE SECOND PERSON PRONOUNS DIFFER ACCORDING TO SOCIAL CLASS DIFFERENCES, AND THE THIRD PERSON PRONOUNS MAY VARY ACCORDING TO THE PROXIMITY BETWEEN THE
SPEAKER AND THE REFERENT.

HOWEVER, WE CONSIDER SOCIAL DEIXIS CATEGORY AS THE RANK AND STATUS OF THE ADDRESSER (SPEAKER) IN RELATION TO THE ADDRESSEE'S RANK AND SOCIAL STATUS. THAT IS IT ENCODES THE SOCIAL IDENTITIES OF THE PARTICIPANTS IN THE PARTICULAR WRITTEN OR SPOKEN DISCOURSE. THESE PARTICIPANTS' POSITIONS ARE SEEN FROM THE SPEAKERS' POINT OF VIEW, AND THE SPEAKERS' EXACT UTTERANCES.
NEVERTHELESS, THE PRONOUNS SYSTEM IS NORMALLY PUT UNDER THE CATEGORY OF PERSON DEIXIS, WHICH WILL BE THOROUGHLY INVESTIGATED IN TEXT CONTENT ANALYSIS.

2.9. Speech act studies:

THE SPEECH ACT IS ANOTHER INFERENCE OF PRAGMATICS, WHICH CAN BE SEEN IN THE FOLLOWING STUDIES. ZUSKIN (1993) CLAIMS THE VAGUE NATURE OF ASSESSING COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE IN SECOND LANGUAGE TESTS. HE
SHOWS THAT SOCIO
LINGUISTIC OR
INTERCULTURAL
COMPETENCE IS
GRADUALLY GAINING
ATTENTION IN THE
CLASSROOM, BUT TESTING
HAS NOT KEPT PACE,
PARTLY BECAUSE OF THE
DIFFICULTY IN DEFINING
THE RELATED SKILLS. HIS
OPINION IS THAT SPEECH
ACTS THEORY AND
POLITENESS THEORY
WHICH FOCUS ON SOCIAL
ASPECTS OF
COMMUNICATION
EXCHANGE WHILE
REMAINING TRUE TO
PRAGMATIC PRINCIPLES,
CAN INFORM ABOUT
DEVELOPMENT OF APPROPRIATE TESTS. ROLE – PLAYING AND SIMULATIONS ARE AUTHENTIC MEANS OF TESTING OVERALL COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE. THE DISCOURSE COMPLETION TEST (DCT), DESIGNED TO ELICIT RESPONSES TO PROBLEMATIC, CONTEXTUALLY SPECIFIC PROMPTS AS PARTICIPANTS ROLE PLAY THEIR RESPONSES, IS CURRENTLY UNDER ANALYSIS AS BOTH RESEARCH TOOL AND ATTESTING OPTION, AS AN ALTERNATIVE TO THE
ORAL PROFICIENCY INTERVIEW. THE DCT CAPITALIZES ON THE BENEFITS OF ROLE-PLAYING AND APPLIES THEM TO ASSESSMENT. HOWEVER, CONTEXTUAL ASPECTS OF DCT MUST BE BETTER DEVELOPED TO CONVEY MORE ABOUT THE INTERLOCUTOR’S RELATIONSHIP (STATUS, POSITIONAL IDENTITIES). WHILE THE COMMUNICATIVE OBJECTIVES OF THE DCT ARE IN LINE WITH PRAGMATIC PRINCIPLES, THE METHOD NEEDS TO BETTER REFLECT PRAGMATIC CRITERIA.
‘DCT’ IN THIS STUDY IS PROJECTED IN PICKING OUT DEIXIS CATEGORY EXPRESSIONS. WE ALSO PROVIDE CLEAR PRAGMATIC CRITERIA TO IMPROVE THIS TECHNIQUE OF TESTING COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE. THAT IS IN ORDER TO TEST THE THREE LAYERS OF INTENTION THE THEORY PROVIDED, A NEED FOR DEVISE CENTRE IS DEEMED TO BE OF IMPORTANCE TO THE TEXT – BASED INTERCHANGES. THE STUDY CONCEIVES THE THEORY OF SPEECH ACT IN JOURNALISTIC
ADVERTISEMENTS. THUS, THE TRICHOTOMY OF ADVERTISEMENT – CULTURE – AND SPEECH ACT IS THOROUGHLY INVESTIGATED IN JOURNALISTIC COSMOPOLITE CHANNELS. IT IS IMPORTANT TO NOTE THAT ADVERTISEMENTS ARE NORMALLY CARRYING CROSS – CULTURAL AWARENESS AND REPRESENT THE NOTION OF INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATION, AND THEY ARE USUALLY DESIGNED ACCORDING TO THE CULTURAL CAPITAL OF NATIONS AND COMMUNITIES.
GEIS (1995)

INTRODUCES A THEORY OF CONVERSATIONAL COMPETENCE, CALLED THE DYNAMIC SPEECH ACT THEORY (DSAT). HE CONTRASTS TRADITIONAL SPEECH ACTS THEORY, WHICH FOCUSES ALMOST EXCLUSIVELY ON INTUITIVE ASSESSMENTS OF ISOLATED, CONSTRUCTED EXAMPLES WITH HIS NEW THEORY. THIS NEW THEORY IS PREDICATED ON THE ASSUMPTION THAT SPEECH ACT THEORY, IF IT IS TO BE OF GENUINE EMPIRICAL AND THEORETICAL SIGNIFICANCE, MUST BE
EMBEDDED WITHIN A GENERAL THEORY OF CONVERSATIONAL COMPETENCE CAPABLE OF ACCOUNTING FOR HOW WE DO THINGS WITH WORDS IN NATURALLY OCCURRING CONVERSATION. IT CAN USEFULLY BE SEEN AS A SYNTHESIS BUT TRADITIONAL SPEECH ACT THEORY AND CONVERSATIONAL ANALYSIS, AND PRESENTED WITHIN A FRAMEWORK OF COMPUTATIONAL INTEREST AND DISCOURSE REPRESENTATION THEORY. IN PARTICULAR, AN EXPLICIT MAPPING IS
OFFERED OF SEMANTIC AND PRAGMATIC MEANING FEATURES AND POLITENESS FEATURES INTO SO CALLED CONVENTIONALIZED INDIRECT SPEECH ACT FORMS.

WHILE GEIS (1995) EXAMINED ‘SPEECH ACTS’ IN NATURAL CONVERSATION, WE TACKLE THE ISSUE OF SPEECH ACT THEORY IN THE WRITTEN DISCOURSE OF MEDIA. JOURNALISTIC ADVERTISEMENT IS SEEN AS THE ASPECT IN WHICH SPEECH ACT THEORY CAN APPROPRIATELY BE CONCEIVED. MEDIA
LANGUAGE IN GENERAL AND JOURNALISTIC LANGUAGE IN PARTICULAR CAN BE CONSIDERED AS REAL OCCURRENCES WHICH CARRY CROSS CULTURAL, POLITICAL, ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL MESSAGES. THE ACTS THESE NEW-STORIES ARE PERFORMING CAN BE INTERPRETED ACCORDING TO THE DIFFERENT IDEOLOGIES AND CULTURES OF DIFFERENT COMMUNITIES. IT IS TO BE NOTED THAT ALL EXTRACTS (NEW STORIES) USED IN THE PRESENT STUDY ARE TAKEN FROM BRITISH AND AMERICAN
NEWSPAPERS AND MAGAZINES IN ORDER TO CREATE A SENSE OF COMPARISON BETWEEN THEM AS COSMOPOLITE CHANNELS AND NON-NATIVES LOCALITE ONES. IN ADDITION, A LINGUIST LIKE CHANNEL (1994) CLAIMS THAT MOST INVENTED, DECONTEXTUALISED EXAMPLES USED BY LINGUISTS TO EXPLAIN THE ISSUE OF MEANING ARE PROVED INSUFFICIENT. HOWEVER, WIDDOWSON (1990:80) ADVOCATES THAT THE BASIC CRITERION, WHICH JUDGES THE NORMALITY OF EXAMPLES,
IS NOT THEIR ACTUAL OCCURRENCE, BUT THEIR CONTEXTUAL PLAUSIBILITY. YET, HOWEVER WIDDOWSON REASONABLE JUSTIFICATION IN THIS STUDY WE HAVE CHOSEN TO STUDY PRAGMATIC MEANINGS THROUGH PRESENTING REAL OCCURRENCES OF EVENTS. THEREFORE, THE PARTICIPANTS AND THEIR INTENDED MEANINGS HAVE BEEN CONCEIVED IN JOURNALISTIC LIVE TEXTS.

ANDERSON AND OTHERS (1995) STUDIED CHILDREN’S NATURALLY OCCURRING ARGUMENTS.
THE ARGUMENTS WERE SAMPLED FROM TRANSCRIPT OF 20 DISCUSSIONS HELD IN 4 FOURTH – GRADE CLASSROOMS. THE PRINCIPAL FINDINGS WERE THAT CHILDREN’S ARGUMENTS ARE FILLED WITH SEEMINGLY VAGUE REFERRING EXPRESSIONS, THAT THE ARGUMENTS SOMETIMES DO NOT CONTAIN EXPLICIT CONCLUSIONS. HOWEVER, THE MISSING OR OBLIQUELY IDENTIFIED INFORMATION IS USUALLY GIVEN IN THE TEXT OR PRECEDED DISCUSSION OR IS A COMMONPLACE FROM
EVERYDAY LIFE AND READILY INFERABLE BY ACTIVELY COOPERATIVE PARTICIPANTS IN THE DISCUSSION. CHILDREN SELDOM BACK THEIR ARGUMENTS BY APPEALING TO THE GENERAL PRINCIPLES, EXCEPT WHEN THE FOUNDATION FOR THE ARGUMENT IS DISPUTED OR SEEMS CONFUSING. AT A MORE GENERAL LEVEL, FINDINGS SUGGEST THAT IT IS POSSIBLE TO GIVE A COHERENT ACCOUNT OF CHILDREN’S ARGUMENTS WITHIN THE FRAMEWORK OF INFORMAL DEDUCTIVISM AUGMENTED
WITH SPEECH ACT THEORY.

THE SPEAKER’S THREE LAYERS OF INTENTIONS, WHICH ARE SEEN IN CHILDREN’S ARGUMENTS, CAN ALSO BE EXPLOITED IN THE PRESENT STUDY IN ORDER TO GIVE COHERENT POLITICAL, ECONOMIC, SOCIAL AGREEMENTS. SO WHAT SORT OF ILLOCUTIONS ACTS MEDIA UTTERANCES ARE PERFORMED, AND WHAT ARE THE PERLOCUTION (ULTIMATE AIMS/EFFECTS) THESE UTTERANCES SEEK TO IMPOSE ON HEARERS, ARE QUESTIONS, WHICH
WILL BE PROJECTED IN THIS STUDY.

YALDEN (1987) PROVIDES THEORETICAL BACKGROUND TO THE CONCEPTS OF COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE AND SECOND LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY. HE OFFERS A PROPORTIONAL APPROACH TO COURSE CONTENT, WITH TOPICS, GENERAL NOTIONS, SITUATIONS, AND THEMES PROVIDING FRAMEWORKS TO SUPPORT OTHER NECESSARY CURRICULUM COMPONENTS. PROCEDURES FOR DEVELOPING
INSTRUCTIONAL UNITS IN ANY LANGUAGE ARE DESCRIBED, AND ILLUSTRATED WITH EXAMPLES OF MATERIALS DEVELOPED FROM PROTOTYPES AND SUGGESTIONS FOR SUITABLE CLASSROOM PROCEDURES. WE CARRY THIS FURTHER AND PROVIDE BACKGROUND OF REAL DATA FROM JOURNALISTIC NEW-STORIES. THIS DATA CAN BE USEFUL IN DESIGNING MATERIALS FOR COURSE CONTENT AND CLASSROOM PROCEDURES.
DARLING (1992) describes writing as a process, which involves a relationship between writer and audience – relationship foreground by speech act theory. The writer should focus on what the audience is to be led to see about the subject. We distinguish locution as (saying something), and illocution as (performance of an act in aiming the achievement of certain effects by saying something). In composition, teachers
MAY ADDRESS SUCH IDEAS
BY ENCOURAGING
STUDENT WRITERS TO ASK
(1) WHO IS MY AUDIENCE?
(2) WHAT AM I SAYING? , (3)
WHY AM I SAYING IT?; (4)
HOW AM I AFFECTING MY
AUDIENCE, THE READER?
EXPERIENCE IN THE
COLLEGE COMPOSITION
CLASSROOM ILLUSTRATES
THAT PEER REVIEW AND
TEACHER COMMENTS HELP
STUDENTS GROW MORE
SENSITIVE TO THE NEED TO
COMMUNICATE WITH AN
AUDIENCE AND TO
ANTICIPATE ITS
RESPONSES. THUS,
DESIGNING ISSUES OF
WRITING RELATED TO
STUDENTS' INTEREST HELP TO SHARPEN STUDENTS' WRITERS' AUDIENCE AWARENESS. BY KEEPING QUESTIONS ABOUT THE READING AUDIENCE AND THE PURPOSES FOR WRITING IN MIND, STUDENTS REALIZE THE PRACTICAL IMPLICATION OF SPEECH ACT THEORY.

IMPORATANCE TO WRITING
IN JOURNALISM AND IN THE
WORK OF EDITING.

DEWNDNEY &
GILLIAN (1977) PROVIDE A
THEORY FROM
LINGUISTICS
(PARTICULARLY SPEECH
ACT THEORY),
PHILOSOPHY, AND
COGNITIVE SCIENCE. THE
THEORY IDENTIFIES HOW
THE AMBIGUOUS NATURE
OF WHY QUESTIONS MAY
LEAD TO UNPRODUCTIVE
OR EVEN HOSTILE
RESPONSES IN
REFERENCE INTERVIEW.
THEY SUGGEST TWO MAIN
STRATEGIES FOR
RESOLVING THIS
CONFLICT, CONTEXTUALIZATION, AND THE USE OF NEUTRAL QUESTIONING.

IN THE PRESENT STUDY, WE ADOPT SEARLE’S (1969) TWO TYPES OF QUESTIONS. THAT IS REAL QUESTIONS AND EXAM QUESTIONS. SEARLE (1969) STATES THAT IN REAL QUESTIONS, THE SPEAKER WANTS TO KNOW THE ANSWER, AND IN EXAM QUESTIONS THE SPEAKER WANTS TO KNOW IF THE HEARER KNOWS. THE PRESENT STUDY THUS, IS CONCEIVING QUESTIONS IN ADVERTISEMENTS IN
PARTICULAR AND MOST QUESTIONS IN JOURNALISM AS EXAM ONES.

HOWELL ET. AL (1996) SHOW HOW THE THEORY OF SPEECH ACT IS INVOLVED IN DISTANCE EDUCATION. THEY PROPOSE A METHODOLOGY FOR THE ANALYSIS OF TEXT – BASED INTERCHANGES ON COMPUTER – MEDICATED CONFERENCES – USED IN DISTANCE EDUCATION COURSE, WHICH IS CONSIDERED THE ILLOCUTIONARY ACT AS ITS UNITS OF ANALYSIS. THIS METHODOLOGY IS
USED TO COMPARE MESSAGES FROM TWO CONFERENCES AND TO SHOW DIFFERING PATTERNS OF INTERACTION.

WE CONFIRM THE SAME POINT BY SELECTING STORIES FROM COSMOPOLITE CHANNELS TO EXPLORE WHAT ACT EXACTLY THE SPEAKER/WRITER IS PERFORMING. WE THINK THAT THERE ARE MANY SORTS OF INTERACTION IN THE CURRENT THINKING OF TODAY. THAT IS PAPER – INTERACTION OR COMPUTER – INTERACTION OR NEWSPAPERS/
THE NEWSPAPER ALSO CAN BE ELECTRONIC OR PHYSICAL. IN ALL THE ABOVE CASES, INFORMATION, ELICITATION, FIGURES ACT CAN BE DEDUCED AND INDIRECT (ILLOCUTIONS) CAN BE OBTAINED.

ROGOW (1991) CONDUCTED A CASE STUDY OF LANGUAGE AND COMMUNICATION IN THE ABSENCE OF SPEECH. THIS CASE STUDY REPORTS ON THE LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT OF A CHILD WITH SEVERE SPEECH AND MULTIPLE HANDICAPS RESULTING FROM SEVERE
EPILEPTIC ENCEPHALOPATHY WHO IS, HOWEVER, ABLE TO COMPETENTLY READ, WRITE, AND COMPREHEND TWO LANGUAGES (ENGLISH AND CANTONESE) BUT DOES NOT INITIATE CONVERSATIONS. DATA WERE GATHERED AS A RESULT OF WEEKLY HOME VISITS OVER 8 YEARS (BEGINNING WHEN THE CHILD WAS 2.5 YEARS OLD). THE CASE IS INTERPRETED IN THE CONTEXT OF SPEECH ACT THEORY. CHILD’S RECEPTIVE LANGUAGE SKILLS ARE REPORTED
FOR: RESPONSES TO THE ‘WH’ QUESTIONS; CLASSIFICATION, SENTENCE COMPLETIONS, WORD KNOWLEDGE, AND READING COMPREHENSION. HERE EXPRESSIVE SKILLS (USING WRITING OR MORSE CODE) ARE ANALYZED FOR: MEAN LENGTH OF UTTERANCE; VARIETY OF PARTS OF SPEECH USED; VARIETY SENTENCE PATTERN; AND LANGUAGE INTERACTIONS AND CONVERSATION. RESULTS SUGGEST THAT A HIGH LEVEL OF LANGUAGE COMPREHENSION AND ABILITY TO READ AND
WRITE DOES NOT AUTOMATICALLY TRANSFER TO CONVERSATIONAL COMPETENCE OR NARRATIVE ABILITY. CONCLUSIONS ALSO SUGGEST THE IMPORTANCE OF INTERACTIVE LANGUAGE EXPERIENCES TO CHILDREN WHO DEPEND ON AUGMENTED AND ASSISTIVE SYSTEMS.

HOWEVER, WE WILL ATTEMPT TO ANALYZE THE CONTEXT OF SPEECH ACT THEORY IN THE WRITTEN CODE OF JOURNALISM. RECEPTIVE LANGUAGE SKILLS SUCH
AS QUESTIONS, CLASSIFICATIONS, SENTENCE COMPLETIONS, WORD KNOWLEDGE ARE THEN QUALITATIVELY ANALYZED IN JOURNALISTIC ADVERTISEMENTS.

2.10 Implicature Studies:

FACTORS. THUSLY, THE PREFERENCE FOR ‘A’ OVER ‘MY’ IS FOUND TO INCREASE WITH: (1) THE NUMBER OF THAT SPECIFIC BODY PART (LEGS, TEETH, ETC), THAT ONE IS TO POSSESS; (2) PRIOR MENTION OF THE AGENT; (3) SALIENT SHARED KNOWLEDGE OF POSSESSION E.G. A VISIBLE COST OR BANDAGE).

IN THE PRESENT STUDY, HOWEVER, WE CONSIDER THE INDEFINITE ARTICLE VERSUS DEFINITE ARTICLE TO NEGOTIATE THE PRAGMATIC INFEERENCE OF
PRESUPPOSITION.

MOREOVER, THE MECHANISM OF FLOUTING GRICE’S MAXIMS IS EXPLOITED HERE TO DISCUSS WHAT IS CALLED IMPLICATURE. SO, IN GRICE’S MAXIM OF QUANTITY, THE SPEAKER IS URGED TO AFFORD THE MINIMUM REQUIRED INFORMATION FOR THE CURRENT PURPOSE OF EXCHANGE. QUALITY MAXIM ORDERS SPEAKERS TO PRODUCE TRUE UTTERANCES. AND THE MAXIM OF RELEVANCE AND MANNER IN TURN URGE THE SPEAKER TO BE RELEVANT AND
PERSPICUOUS. THE MAXIM OF QUALITY IS FLOUTED IN THE CONFLICT BETWEEN THE DIFFERENT IDEOLOGIES. THE MAXIM OF MANNER IS FLOUTED IN WRITING JOURNALISTIC HEADLINES.

MACLARAN (1983) EVALUATES GRICE’S (1975) THEORY OF CONVEYED MEANING. A RANGE OF DATA IS PRESENTED WHICH CHALLENGES GRICE’S THEORY. DISCOURSE CONVENTIONS AND CONTEXT DETERMINATION ARE HIGHLIGHTED IN AN ANALYSIS OF PRAGMATIC INFERENCE. THE DATA
SUGGEST THAT PRAGMATIC INFERENCES PLAY A MUCH GREATER ROLE IN NATURAL LANGUAGE COMPREHENSION THAN IS GENERALLY REALIZED. ONCE THE DOMAIN OF PRAGMATIC THEORY IS EXTENDED – GRICE’S PRINCIPLES OF CONVERSATION ARE INADEQUATE TO COUNT FOR COMPREHENSION. OTHER APPROACHES TO THE PROBLEMS OF INFERRED MEANING ARE EXAMINED. IT IS CONCLUDED THAT SELECTED ASPECTS OF THESE ALTERNATIVES
MUST BE COMBINED IN ORDER TO ARRIVE AT A SATISFACTORY ACCOUNT OF PRAGMATICS.

IN THE PRESENT STUDY, HOWEVER, WE USE GRICE’S MAXIMS OF QUALITY AND MANNER TO RENDER OUT AND TO BETTER CONCEIVE THE INFERENCE OF IMPLICATURE. FOLLOWING GRICE’S, (1975) DESCRIPTION OF EACH MAXIM LEVINSON (1983) BELIEVES THAT NO ONE SPEAKS LIKE THAT ALL THE TIME, SO IMPLICATURE CAN BE DRAWN ONLY BY FLOUTING THE FOUR MENTIONED MAXIMS.
FRANK (1987) IN A STUDY OF INTERCULTURAL BUSINESS COMMUNICATION PROBLEMS COMPARED THREE EXAMPLES OF DIRECT MARKETING SALES LETTERS SIMILAR IN FUNCTION, FORMAT, CONTENT, AND TARGETED RECIPIENT BUT ORIGINATING IN DIFFERENT CULTURES (INDIA, ENGLAND, AND THE UNITED STATES), AND COMPANIES. GRAMMATICAL, SYNTACTIC, AND RHETORICAL FEATURES OF THE ENGLISH USED WERE EXAMINED, FOCUSING ON
THE PRAGMATIC INFERENCES IN THE DISCOURSE AND PARTICULARLY ON DISTINCTIVE DIFFERENCES IN THE INDIAN ENGLISH. THE REPORT GIVES BACKGROUND FOR THE STUDY, NOTES SOME RELEVANT DISCOURSE FEATURES OF INDIAN ENGLISH, OUTLINES TWO APPROACHES TO PRAGMATIC UNDERSTANDING IN INTERACTIONS, AND PRESENTS THE RESULTS OF THE COMPARISONS. INCREASING AWARENESS OF DIFFERENT COMMUNICATIVE
STRATEGIES USED BY BILINGUAL NON-NATIVE SPEAKERS OF ENGLISH HAS SERIOUS IMPLICATIONS FOR LINGUISTIC THEORY, UNDERSTANDING OF CULTURE – SPECIFIC COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE, AND THE APPLICABILITY OF PRAGMATIC THEORIES. BOTH THE GRICEAN – BASED THEORIES OF PRAGMATIC INFERENCE AND THOSE THAT ARE DEPENDENT ON WESTERN NATIONS OF LOGICAL THINKING ARE LIMITED IN THAT THEY APPLY IDENTICAL APPROACHES
TO BOTH MONOLINGUAL AND BILINGUAL DISCOURSE AND MAY NOT BE DESCRIPTIVELY OR BY DEFINITION ADEQUATE.

IN THE PRESENT STUDY, MUCH EMPHASIS IS GIVEN TO WHAT IS CALLED INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATION. THUS, THE STUDY INTENTIONALLY TENDS TO ANALYZE NEW-STORIES FROM COSMOPOLITE CHANNELS IN ORDER TO CONSIDER THEIR ECONOMIC, POLITICAL, AND SOCIAL ASPECT.

2. 11. Presupposition Studies:
THE FOURTH INFERENCE OF PRAGMATICS CAN BE VIEWED IN THE FOLLOWING STUDIES. FOR INSTANCE, RABINOWITZ (1997) ARGUES THAT WHAT AN INDIVIDUAL KNOWS SHAPES THE WAY IN WHICH HE OR SHE READS. HE STARTS FROM THE POINT THAT ANY PRODUCTIVE THEORY OF NARRATIVE MUST TAKE INTO ACCOUNT THE PRESUPPOSITIONS THE READER BRINGS TO TEXT. THE BOOK EXPLORES HOW PRIOR KNOWLEDGE OF LITERARY CONVENTIONS INFLUENCES THE PROCESS
OF INTERPRETATION AND EVALUATION.

IN THE PRESENT STUDY, WE EXTEND THIS POINT OF PRIOR KNOWLEDGE OF AN INDIVIDUAL AND ITS INFLUENCE ON HIS/HER READING TO A MORE SOPHISTICATED ISSUE. WE CONSIDERED THAT READING FICTION CAN BE TAKEN EITHER AS AN ACT OF CREATION OR DECIPHERING. ADDITION IS THE FACT THAT THE ACT OF READING GIVES A TEXT THE FULL MEANING OF EXISTENCE. A TEXT THAT EXISTS IS A TEXT WE HAVE READ. THAT IS THE
READER ON HIS OWN CAPACITY SHARES IN THIS ACTIVE CREATION. HOWEVER, PRESUPPOSITION IN THIS STUDY IS RENDERED OUT FROM LEVINSON’S (1983) TERMS OF BACKGROUND AND FOREGROUND KNOWLEDGE AND THE TYPE OF JOURNALISTIC NEW-STORIES, WHICH ARE INTRODUCED WITH THE DEFINITE ARTICLE.

MASHHADI AND WOOLNOUGH (1977) ASSUME THAT MUCH OF THE WESTERN SCIENTIFIC WORLDVIEW IS CONSIDERED AS THE METAPHYSICAL
PRESUPPOSITION OF DUALITY. THE CLAIM BEING MADE THAT THE WORLD IS MADE SENSE OF IN TERMS OF (EITHER/OR), AND IN TERMS OF POLARITIES (E.G. LIGHT VERSUS DARK). SO IN AN EMPIRICAL STUDY OF STUDENT THINKING, THE POWERFUL HEURISTIC METAPHOR OF THE MAP IS USED TO CONSTRUCT GRAPHIC REPRESENTATION OF THE UNITED KINGDOM ADVANCED LEVEL STUDENTS’ UNDERSTANDING OF QUANTUM PHYSICS. THE NATURE OF STUDENT’S UNDERSTANDING IS
REPRESENTED BY THEIR CONSTRUCTION OF GROUPING OF IDEAS IN A PERSONAL PSYCHOLOGICAL SPACE WITH UNDERLYING DIMENSIONS PROVIDING A CO – ORDINATE SYSTEM FOR THEIR PERCEPTIONS.

QUANTITATIVE METHODOLOGY IS USED TO PROBE STUDENT’S QUALITATIVE IMPLICIT UNDERSTANDING. FINDINGS CONFIRM THE PRIMACY OF DUALISM IN STUDENT THINKING.

IN THE PRESENT STUDY, WE ALSO CONFIRM THIS NOTION OF DUALISM. THAT IS THE READER’S POLITICAL REALITIES (IDEOLOGIES) ARE CONSIDERED AS THE BACKGROUND, FROM WHICH POLITICAL, ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL DISCOURSE, EMANATE. THUS, READERS NORMALLY WANT TO
KNOW WHAT HAS HAPPENED IN THESE ZONES VERSUS WHAT SHOULD SUPPOSE TO BE. IN OTHER WORDS, WHAT IS HAPPENING IN THE CURRENT EVENTS ALWAYS PRESUPPOSES FOR SOME THING MUST OR MUST NOT BE.

WALLER (1991) ASSUMES, THAT AN INDIVIDUAL’S PAST PSYCHOLOGY AND PRESENT STATE IS AN IMPORTANT PART OF FINDING INDIVIDUALS’ IDENTITY WITHIN PSYCHOLOGY. HE SUGGESTS SEVERAL PEDAGOGICAL
STRATEGIES THAT CAN PROMOTE STUDENTS’ SEARCH FOR IDENTITY. THESE INCLUDE SHORT IN-CLASS CONTEMPLATIVE ESSAYS (I.E. MICROTHEMES), WHICH ARE EMPLOYED TO PRESENT A STRUCTURAL MEANS OF UTILIZING CERTAIN POLARITIES OF PSYCHOLOGY (E.G. EMPIRICISM VERSUS RATIONALISM) TO GUIDE STUDENTS IN CLARIFYING THEIR IDENTITY WITHIN PSYCHOLOGY.

MICROTHEME ASSIGNMENTS ARE FLOWING FROM A PRESUPPOSITION THAT
WRITING CAN BE USED TO GAIN, AND NOT JUST DISPLAY, LEARNING.

WE, ALSO CONSIDER WRITING NEW-STORIES AS A MECHANISM BY WHICH INTENDED MEANING CAN BE GAINED AND CALCULATED BY NEWSPAPER’S READERS. FOR INSTANCE, ADVERTISEMENT CAN BE WRITTEN OR DESIGNED TO GAIN THE ATTENTION OF THE CONSUMERS TARGET GROUPS. HEADLINES ARE WRITTEN WITH SPECIFIC STYLE TO GAIN THE ATTENTION OF READERS. IN THE PRESENT STUDY AN INTERACTION BETWEEN
PRAGMATICS AND PSYCHOLOGY IS SHOWN IN THE TECHNIQUE OF WRITING HEADLINES.

IN THE PRESENT
STUDY, PRESUPPOSITION
INFERENGE IS ALSO SEEN
IN THE NEGATION OF
JOURNALISTIC
PROPOSITIONS. THAT IS
WHAT NEGATION DO
JOURNALISTIC
PROPOSITIONS
PRESUPPOSE.

GARCIA (1991)
UTILIZES DATA
GENERATED BY POLICY
DEBATE REGARDING THE
EDUCATION OF LANGUAGE
MINORITY STUDENTS IN
THE UNITED STATES IN
ORDER TO ASSESS
CURRENT
UNDERSTANDING OF WHO
ARE THE STUDENTS THAT
Teachers are serving, what types of instruction these students are presently serving these students. A major presupposition of this discussion is that who does the teaching is of a major importance, regardless of the language minority, education model being implemented. This discussion also extends the database by addressing future directions with regard to the development of effective language
MINORITY, EDUCATION MODEL BEING IMPLEMENTED. THIS DISCUSSION ALSO EXTENDS THE DATABASE BY ADDRESSING FUTURE DIRECTION WITH REGARD TO THE DEVELOPMENT OF EFFECTIVE LANGUAGE MINORITY TEACHERS. OF PARTICULAR CONCERN IS THE CREDENTIALING POLICIES AND THEIR POLITICAL AND EMPIRICAL UNDERPINNINGS. SUGGESTIONS ARE PROVIDED TO ENHANCE THE EDUCATIONAL PLIGHT OF LANGUAGE MINORITY STUDENTS BY FOCUSING ON THE EDUCATIONAL
professionals who serve these students on a daily basis.

in the present study, we replicate the questions of the previous study in journalism sphere. thus who are the readers that reporters are serving, what types of new-stories these readers are presently receiving, and what types of reporters are presently serving these readers are questions of importance to study
THE INFERENCE OF PRESUPPOSITION.

2.12. Chapter Summary:

IN THIS CHAPTER, WE HAVE REVIEWED EMPIRICAL STUDIES ON DEIXIS, SPEECH ACTS, IMPlicATURE, AND PRESUPPOSITION. MOST OF THE STUDIES ARE BASED ON CONVERSATIONAL, CROSS SECTIONAL STUDIES, EXCEPT THE STUDY, WHICH IS UNDERTAKEN BY ROGOW (1991), WHICH IS
BASED ON LONGITUDINAL RESEARCH METHOD.

DEIXIS CATEGORY HAS BEEN NEGOTIATED IN SIX DIFFERENT STUDIES. RICCOBONO’S (1996) STUDY RECOMMENDS SEEING TIME AND PLACE DEICTIC EXPRESSIONS IN MONTALE’S POETRY WITH A BROADER SENSE. THAT IS MONTALE’S PHRASES OF TIME AND PLACE SHOULD EXISTENTIALLY AND HISTORICALLY BE SEEN. MIZUNO’S (1993) STUDY SHOWS THAT ARTICLES IN ENGLISH FUNCTION AS OLD AND NEW INFORMATION MARKERS.
BETWEEN SPOKEN SINDHESE AND THE WRITTEN CODE OF IT.

PROVIDES THEORETICAL BACKGROUND TO THE CONCEPTS OF COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE AND SECOND LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY. HE CONCEIVES WRITING, AS A PROCESS, WHICH INVOLVES A RELATIONSHIP, IS FOREGROUND BY SPEECH ACT THEORY. DEWDNY AND GILLIAN (1997) PROVIDE A THEORY FROM SPEECH ACT THEORY, PHILOSOPHY, AND COGNITIVE SCIENCE. THE THEORY SHOWS THE AMBIGUOUS NATURE OF ‘WHY’ QUESTIONS IN
REFERENCE INTERVIEW.

THE CONCEPT OF INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATION. HE COMPARES DIRECT MARKETING SALES LETTERS SIMILAR IN FUNCTION, FORMAT, CONTENT AND TARGETED RECIPIENT, BUT ORIGINATING IN DIFFERENT CULTURE. HE FINDS THAT INCREASING AWARENESS OF DIFFERENT COMMUNICATIVE STRATEGIES USED BY BILINGUAL NON – NATIVE SPEAKERS OF ENGLISH HAS SERIOUS IMPLICATIONS FOR LINGUISTIC THEORY.
PRESUPPOSITION

PROMOTE STUDENTS’ SEARCH FOR IDENTIFY. 


IN THE FOLLOWING CHAPTERS, WE WILL DISCUSS THESE ISSUES OF DEIXIS, SPEECH ACT, IMPLICATURE, AND PRESUPPOSITION IN JOURNALISTIC TEXTS. A DETAILED STUDY WILL BE GIVEN TO THE PERVERSIVE
NATURE OF THE FOUR PRAGMATIC ISSUES. IN THE NEXT CHAPTER, WE WILL EXPLORE HOW FAR PRAGMATIC FEATURES LIKE DEIXIS, PRESUPPOSITION, SPEECH ACT, AND IMPLICATURE ARE PREVALENT IN JOURNALISTIC WRITING. IT IS TO BE NOTED THAT JOURNALISTIC DOMAIN IN THIS STUDY IS NOT CHOSEN RANDOMLY, BUT IT IS OBSERVED THAT IT IS VERY RICH OF THESE PRAGMATIC PHENOMENA SUCH AS HINTS, IMPLICIT PURPOSE, ASSUMPTIONS, SOCIAL ATTITUDE, FIGURES AND SPEECH (E.G.
METAPHOR, IRONY, RHETORICAL QUESTIONS AND UNDERSTATEMENT); WHICH ARE EFFECTIVELY COMMUNICATED BY THE USE OF LANGUAGE.
METHODOLOGY

3-1 Methodological Level:

It has been pointed out that pragmatic inferences are complete concerned with the issue of meaning. However, the concept of meaning itself cannot be counted, measured, recorded, and quantified in the way that sound systems, syntactic structures lexemes can (Channell, ibid: 38). Therefore, using real data by accounting meaning in real occurrences of talk or writing is highly recommended. So the present study addresses the problem of pragmatic meanings from a more conceptual point of view. That is the research strategy is not based on numerical data. In our case, there is no need for special research instruments, since data is found in the form of educational and philosophical positions obtained from analysis of the subject. Textual analysis was undertaken in journalistic texts within the period of 1948 to 1999 to explore how far pragmatic inferences reveal themselves in these texts as important mechanisms in the process of communication.
3 – 2 Methods of Data Collection:

Qualitative data were carried out, and collected from journalistic texts as ‘meaning’ units. Different political, economic and social new stories have been reported and pragmatically analyzed through this period. Materials have been selected from Duff & Shindler 1984. Newsweek, November, 9, 1988. Newsweek, no 15, 1988. p. 1. Newsweek January, 1990. Time International, January, 20, 1992, p. 33. Financial Times, Aril, 11, 1999, p. 2. The Independent, April, 10, 1999, p. 2. The daily Telegraph Personal Finance April, 1999, p. 2. 15. However, all the newstories found in Duff & Shindler (1984) are British ones and therefore have British reality. Deixis categories of time, place, person, discourse and social have been investigated in most of Duff & Shindler’s (1948) newstories. Duff & Shindler’s texts are considered as a patchwork of experiences showing the technicalities of reporting newstories. Moreover Duff & shindler’s book itself is considered as a studial book to those who want to understand bout media writing. Newstores in the present study are cosen randomly. However, the variable of pragmatic inferences is remaining constant. In qualitative (heuristic/synthetic) research, the objective or the purpose of the research is either gathering data and generating
hypotheses about the phenomena studied, or testing hypotheses in order to develop a theory about the phenomena in question (Seliger and Shohamy ibid: 29). The issue of meaning, yet, has a recondite dimension that is inaccessible or can hardly be interpreted if the researcher approaches the problem quantitatively. This does not devalue the importance of statistics and numerical researches that serve the purpose of reducing complex data to manageable and understandable proportions. In our case the problem was tackled qualitatively because in our discourses much is left unsaid, however it is understood Communication process in general ‘involves the notions of intention and agency’ Levinson, ibid: 15). So the description of the ability used by hearers to interpret a discourse written or spoken is what is meant by pragmatics. The description of this ability involves using certain mechanisms to decipher a particular discourse. Those mechanism can be described as inferences of pragmatics. Modern linguistic pragmatics attempts to capture meaning through detailed study of the nature of these inferences.

3 – 3 Data Analysis:

Qualitative research is seemed to be appropriate in describing frequencies and descriptions of deixis (time, place, person, social,
discourse) in the given language use on texts chosen from journalistic language. An inductive procedure has been applied to the remainder of the data (place, person, social, discourse). However, an ordering system of categories already exists as linguistic theories was applied to other inferences data. That is inferences such as speech acts, implicature, presupposition have epistemologies and sophisticated theories in western school or linguistics and philosophy. Those inferences have an extended history that goes back to the mid of the fifties of the last century. Thus, these knowledges have been applied in the present study in journalistic texts in order that new issues and contributions to the topic of pragmatics can be spotlighted.

The procedures and techniques used in the present study can thusly be likened to an upside down pyramid. That is the researcher progresses from the general to a more specific data collection. Therefore, there may have been a repetition of the cycles of observation and analysis (Seliger and Shohamy ibid: 121). This may lead to some repetition of ideas and concepts mentioned earlier in order that the concept of pragmatics becomes more focused.

Historically, it can be pointed out that several prominent schools of philosophy sought to reduce the gap between semantics and actual references to the concrete world (Perry ibid: 381). However, in the present study pragmatic solutions have been shown in capturing the intended meanings
meant by the producers of utterances, the thing which semantics theory alone can not provide. Textual
analysis technique that has been adopted in this study showed the boundaries between semantics and
pragmatics and how both of them are important in the process of communication.
CHAPTER FOUR

TEXTUAL ANALYSIS

This chapter deals with qualitative data technique in an attempt
to identify what type of problem and what type of analyses each
needs. Two techniques of analyzing research data are
recommended.

The first techniques is deriving a set of categories from the
material collected in the form of newstories, articles which have been
chosen from different cosmopolite channels. This is a kind of
inductive procedure, which can be considered as a tool, which
gauges and compares the likenesses and differences. Thus new
good insights, intuition and understanding, hopefully will be acquired.
Therefore, this technique will be applied to the five deixis centers
(time, person, place, discourse, social) in the first part of this chapter
under the title of “deixis and journalistic referents”.

The frequencies of each deictic category will be counted and
analyzed in order to obtain new commonalties and patterns.
Eventually, a reasonable explanation to the suggested hypotheses,
and answers to why category of deixis is deemed important in the
language of communication can be conceived.

The second part of this chapter deals with other pragmatic
inferences, (speech act, implicature, and presupposition). Here,
system of these inferences is applied to the language of media, in
order to confirm their sophisticated issues, which mainly depend on
invented, decontextualised examples, and which are proved to be
insufficient. We will do so by selecting several articles of newstories,
which can be conceived as real occurrences. The data in this part of
the chapter will determine the analysis.

Hence, speech act theory and types of illocutionary acts will be
conceived in advertisements, human-interest stories, and the news
reports. Implicature inference is much more illustrated in journalistic headlines. New insights can be gauged and fathomed about the inference of the presupposition by adapting the technique of new and old newstories. In addition, honorific expressions and figures of speech will be shown in some articles, which are selected from different newspapers (Appendix VIII).

All the previous mentioned points will be undertaken with the aim that this study will contribute to the issues of pragmatics and meaning. The researcher believes in the limited scope of chomskyan linguistic and the extremes of the logical positivism philosophy. we adheres to this linguistic pragmatic theory and sees it as a reaction against these two types of thinking.

Before proceeding into thorough analysis of this issue, let us firstly identify what is meant by the word inference. It is defined as any additional information used by the listener to connect what is said to what is meant. Inference is considered as the key process to what is called reference. An example of these linguistic phenomena is Yule’s (1997: 131) examples in which the word (salad) understood to refer to someone and the noun (Chomsky) to something. E -g. Examples: -

A waiter may ask another
Where’s the fresh salad sitting? And received the reply.
   a- He’s sitting by the door.

Or
   a- Can I look at your Chomsky?

b- Sure, it’s on the shelf over there.
In addition, Yule’s assumption is that for the listener to connect what is said to what is meant he uses this additional information. This chapter also adds that both listener and reader in the spoken or written discourses can use this ‘additional information’. It is to note also that the art of the newspaperdom and media communication in general can be considered as spoken/ written discourses.

4.1. Deixis and Journalistic Referents: -

The analysis of Deixis categories can also sustain Green (1989: 47), in discussing the concept of referring expression. He states that referring expressions concept is not strictly semantic or truth-conditional, but involves the cooperative exploitation of supposed mutual knowledge. That is to say, the process by which expressions refer to an entity can be considered as pragmatic one.

Schiffrin (1994: 223) attempts to exploit Grice’s maxims of quality and relevance in order to identify a reference, she confirms that the maxim of quality can provide the necessary insights into identity of the referent. Nevertheless, relevance maxim urges the hearer to seek for the relevance of a particular referent. The chapter will explore new insights of how a reference can be initiated by exploiting the five categories of deixis? So person deixis (I, you, him, her, them), and time deixis (now, then, tonight, last week), and place deixis (here, there, under), plus discourse and social deixis all have to be interpreted in term of what person, place, time the speaker has in mind.

4.1.1. Time Deixis Category: 

As noted in chapter two that language always wears its time. That is unless this category of time deixis is identified, there will remain a kind of ambiguity in utterances.
Hence, it sounds logically to conceive the new stories of the past by the given span, which includes their coding time (CT). That is, if someone uses the archives of newspapers or magazines, s/he will read extracts as the following:

**NO Driving Today in Mexico City**

A tough new antismog campaign targets autos.

The united nation has ranked smog in Mexico city as the world’s second most ecological disaster, after the burning of the Amazon forest, and last January the dense pollution got so bad that city schools were forced to close for the month. Now Mexico city is taking drastic action to clear the air.

(Newsweek, January, 1990)

Counting the time deixis words, that is (time deixis centre) frequencies will show the importance of time deixis in communication. Below is a diagram, which shows the frequency of occurrences to this deixis center, which is underlined, in the above article.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time Deictic Words</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Today</td>
<td>4 times</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Last January</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Now</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Time deictic words in the above article like ‘to day’, ‘last January’, ‘after’, and ‘now’ can best be considered by the given span including their coding time CT That is in January 1990. However, if this time deictic centre is unmarked, the events of this article will be understood, but only as a linguistic code. In addition, receiving time ‘RT’, and coding time ‘CT’ can be
assumed identical to each other. Lyons (1977: 685) calls this Phenomenon ‘deictic simultaneity’.

Therefore, these words should be conceived or be projected in terms of what time the speaker or in this case, the reporter has in mind. The word ‘today’ thus should be understood within the Span, which includes coding time in January 1990, not ‘today’, January 2002. Therefore, this kind of pragmatic projection should be applied to all types of these time deixis words.

To show the importance of these indexical expressions of time, the same article would be rewritten without these underlined words. If such an article is rewritten without these deictic expressions of time, this article will change to a technique of Discourse Completion Test (DCT). The technique of (DCT) is mainly designed (see chapter: 3) to elicit responses to problematic, contextually specific prompts as participants’ role-play their responses.

The technique of taking out deictic expressions/ words will be elaborated in the rest of deixis categories in this part of the chapter. To identify the importance of this deixis category of time, the above article would be rewritten without mentioning these time deictic words. That is we want to know to what extent the article in question is coherently understood with out time deixis category. The article will be rewritten as the following:
NO Driving -------- in Mexico City

A tough new antismog campaign targets autos. The united nation has ranked smog in Mexico city as the world's second most ecological disaster, the burning of the Amazon forest, and the dense pollution got so bad that city schools were forced to close for the month. Mexico city is taking drastic action to clear the air.

(--------------------------------)

In close procedure test as in the above example, words have been systematically omitted according to a regular pattern. One has to make appropriate predictions to fill in the blanks. So one uses whatever grammatical or semantic information included in order to know what words have been omitted. A strong need to pragmatic information is also essential for the meaning of such an article. Unlike grammatical and semantic information, pragmatic information needs strongly the notion of Coding Time (CT), and the span in which the speaker can be conceived. If this pragmatic issue is not found, real meaning cannot be projected, since the speaker’s exact words would be absent.

Therefore, time deictic expressions in the above article can be projected in January 1990. That is ‘last January’ can be seen as January 1989. ‘today’, ‘now’ can be conceived as the day in which the reporter Coding Time is identified. That is a day in the month of January 1990.

4.1.2: Person Deixis Category:
Most essential to know here is that a newspaper is considered as a sort of daily encyclopedia (Hamilton & Krimsky, 1996: 41). It always carries cross cultural awareness, and historical differences between nations. That is it emphasizes the egocentric and beliefs of nations. A person or a human as well plays an important role in all the events of media in general, and journalism in particular. So there, are referring expressions concerning people. Example of this is an editorial taken from the ‘Daily Mail’. This editorial comments on the progress of a private Member’s Bill. A Bill put before parliament by a back-bench MP, to change the law on the hours that shops can open as in the article below.

*The battle is on to allow shops to open on Sunday if they choose – An MP is bringing in a private Member’s Bill.*

*And this one will have Government Backing. But let nobody underestimate the spoiling tactics of those still lobbying to nobble this popular measure. If the Unions, the sabbatarians. Yes, and some retail groups can keep the legal shutters up, they will.*

*The ‘Daily Mail’ has long crusaded for greater shopping freedom. We shall not relax in our determination to see that you are really being served by the parliament you elected.*

*(Duff& Shindler: 1984: 57)*

In exploring person deixis category in the above article, one has to consider the pronouns, and the participants who are
involved in the text as pragmatic tools in speech event or (reporting). They encode actually references to person and entities, which are neither speakers nor addressees. That is reference to third person. Therefore, the proper name “The Daily Mail” is referring to individuals in third person role to communicate (the authorized body of the newspaper). Here person deixis feature is used as a reference. Furthermore, the pronoun in the utterance ‘we shall not relax now in our determination to see that you are really being served by the parliament you elected’, can be glossed as the speaker or the spokesperson ‘editor’, who represents the source of utterance, (newspapers legal body). In addition, the recipient can be distinguished as (the newspapers local readers), from the target, which in this sense can be conceived as (the newspaper’s attitudes towards its readers). The newspaper’s readers outside Britain in this case might represent hearers. That is to say readers of different ideologies and cultures. So non-natives or natives should have to calculate such pragmatic mechanism of possible participant role (referents) in order to fully participate in interpreting news writing.

Thus, the speaker (reporter) in the above article refers to himself, and to one or more addresses (second person). He also encodes reference to persons and entities, which are neither speakers nor addressees (third person). This can be seen in the following examples.

- We shall not relax now in our determination …

- To see that you are really being served by the parliament you elected.

- The daily mail has long crusaded for greater…
It is to note that the usage of the pronoun ‘they’ in the above article is considered as an anaphoric which always refers to an antecedent, which in this case might be considered as (Union, sabbatarians, some retail groups). Therefore, it has nothing to do with person deixis centre which normally encodes the speaker’s references to himself, second person, or third person. The frequencies of occurrences to such references can be summarized in the following diagram.

The above person deictic words should be projected in terms of what person the speaker and in this case, the reporter has in mind. Therefore, larger meanings can be conceived beyond these pronouns. That is ‘we’ represents the authority of the newspaper, and encodes all the staff of the newspaper and the ones who are in charge. As well as, these pronouns ‘we’, ‘our’ and the ‘Daily Mail’ encode the same legal body of the newspaper. Therefore, it can be said that the speaker (reporter) uses ‘second person’, and ‘third person’ to refer to one thing. That is both the pronoun ‘we’ and the proper name ‘The Daily Mail’ refer to the authority of the newspaper. Nevertheless, the pronoun ‘you’ refers to the larger audience of the newspaper. Therefore, now if one reads the above articles without identification to this person deixis centre, s/he would read something like the following.
The battle is on to allow shops to open on Sunday if they choose – An MP is bringing in a private Member’s Bill.

And this one will have Government Backing. But let nobody underestimate the spoiling tactics of those still lobbying to nobble this popular measure. If the Unions, the sabbatarians. Yes, and some retail groups can keep the legal shutters up, they will.

The ‘----------------’ has long crusaded for greater shopping freedom. -------------- shall not relax in -------------- determination to see that -------------- are really being served by the parliament -------------- elected.

(Duff & Shindler: 1984: 57)

Here, it is important to note that in order to use grammatical and semantic information to fill the blanks might be a risk. The blanks might be filled with the right pronoun, which cater for correct grammatical and semantic information. Moreover, the candidate may responds to such a test by giving answers, which only consider the rules of language s/he has already studied. However, if this article is viewed according to pragmatic projection of person deixis centre, a need to identify the speaker’s references are deemed to be necessary to this process of communication or to this kind of written discourse. Moreover, this is what makes some linguists assume that testing language in communication does not
keep pace with teaching language as a discourse. That is language in communication (discourse analysis).

4.1.3. Place Deixis Category:

As place deictic centre, which mainly concerns with locations of participants at Coding Time ‘CT’. Reporters as well always focus on different aspect of a story, depending on what they think will interest their readers (Duff & Shindler, 1984: 38). In addition, what interests their readers includes places of incident, which are considered as anchorage point in newstories reporting. Instance of this would be the following article:

*THE NAKED* body of a pretty girl groom was found yesterday near the site of a royal horse show. Suzzane Thatcher, 18, whose boss a friend of prince Philip, has been strangled. She was found in dense undergrowth only 100 yards from Amberly horse show grounds Police said last night that a man had been charged with her murder.

(Duff & Shindler: 1984: 39)

Here, the expression ‘she was found in dense undergrowth only 100 yards from Amberly horse show grounds designates deictic usage of place in relation to the location of the participants at Coding Time ‘CT’. Therefore, Amberly horse show grounds is supposed to have a symbolic usage which pragmatically includes the location of the speaker, in this case the reporter at coding time (CT). Therefore, Britain here is the location relative to the anchorage point in the speech event,
because of the place ‘Amberly’. Most essential to know here is that in all newstories reporting, there should be an identification of place and time deixis in order to know when the event is taking place? And where?.

Near the site of a royal horse show grounds

100 yards from Amberly horse show ground

As it has been shown that places can deictically be identified in relation to the location of the speaker at the time of speaking. Thus, the phrase ‘near the site of a royal horse show grounds from the speaker’s point of view is considered as deictic usage of place. In addition, the same thing will apply to ‘100 yards’ from the location of the speaker at coding time ‘CT’. Therefore, if this article were rewritten without mentioning these descriptions of places, it would be read as follows:

THE NAKED body of a pretty girl groom was found yesterday --------------------------

- Suzzane Thatcher, 18, whose boss a friend of prince Philip, has been strangled. She was found in dense undergrowth only 100 yards from --------

-------- horse show grounds place said last night that a man had been charged with her murder.

If you ask someone to fill in the blanks, one will simply choose thousand of places and locations. What is important is the speaker’s location at Coding Time (CT). Therefore, what matters here is the encoding of spatial location relative to the location of the participants in the speech
event. That is the actual places the speaker meant to convey.

4.1.4. Discourse Deixis Category:

It is to note Widdowson’s (1979) distinction between ‘text’ and ‘discourse’. A text, he argues, is a collection of formal objects, held together by pattern of equivalence or frequencies or by cohesive devices. Discourse has been shown as a use of sentences to perform acts of communication or as he preferred to call ‘rhetorical act’ which cohere into larger communicative units. Therefore, he recommends these two techniques when looking at language beyond the limit of the sentence.

He also projects two kinds of deep structures in the process of translation. For discourse, he proposes rhetorical deep structure, which accounts for pragmatic equivalence and it is formulated as a set of conditions defining a particular communicative act. Moreover, for a text he suggests the grammatical deep structure which was firstly initiated by Chomsky (1965), and which remained as an important principle in all linguistic analysis. News can be considered as discourses. News values are defined by Watson & Hill (1984: 64) as stories, which reflect in their choice of language and style of presentation the social, economic, political, and cultural context from which the discourse emanates.

However, cultural context may incorporate many intricacies because the term culture had many complex dimensions that have been associated through history with the larger conceptions of communities. To instance few examples, Perry (1984: 267) shows it in the latter half of the nineteenth century as replacing the term virtue
and it designates higher ideals that shine atop the republic. In the twentieth century, he states that the term overrides the Victorian era’s definition, which valued culture over materialism to conceive it as a closer to aspects of economics and never distanced it from the march of commerce and industry.

So, in order to interpret any kind of a newstory, this pragmatic deep structure, which suggested by Widdowson (1979) should be considered. In addition, discourse deictic centre should relatively be accounted for, so that referring expressions can easily be identified. In journalism theory of writing, there is assumption that the reporter can refer his/ her reader forwards, backwards, or out of the text as in the following examples:

1- **Forwards Reference:**

“This is what we wanted to hear! At last the government has decided to give more tax relief to the lowest paid, the decision, whilst it was very over…”

(Duff & Shindler, 1984: 27)

2- **Backwards reference:**

“Mrs. Carol O’ Leary yesterday became the first person to be fined under the new traffic regulation. The 42 year old house wife faces a…”

(ibid: 27)

3- **‘Out of Text’ Reference:**
“Those rainy summers may soon be a thing of past. According to leading meteorologist, we may …”

(ibid: 27)

Yet, if the above examples are projected through discourse deixis, referring to portions of discourse can catch their references. That is ‘this’ in the first example is considered as a deictic word of time whose use indicated a forthcoming portion of the discourse, which appears in the second sentences – (At last the Government…).

The word ‘those’ in the third example refers to a preceding portion. However, the use of reference in the second example is considered as an anaphoric usage, relating to the same entity as a prior linguistic expression.

Therefore, as it has been shown, discourse deixis has a sense of reference, which can be carried out from the utterance in question. Thus, utterance initial usage’s of ‘but’, ‘therefore’, ‘in conclusion’, ‘to the contrary’, ‘still’, ‘however’, ‘well’, ‘besides’, ‘actually’, ‘all in all’, ‘so’, ‘after all’, etc are deciphered as an actual response to, or a continuation of some portion of the prior discourse. In order to illustrate these points, an example is taken from Duff & Shindler (1984: 35). In which six scattered declarative sentences (articles), with two headlines that should be organized appropriately. The example runs as follows. (Each headline has three accompanying paragraphs).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>E</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Phone help heart victim</strong></td>
<td><strong>DIAL A HEART SAVER!</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Callers who dial 999 are told how to give mouth to resuscitation until an ambulance crew arrives. The advice is given by a telephone operator at an ambulance station, reading from script.

Callers dialing 99 for an ambulance will be handed over to an operator who will tell them how they can keep the patient alive until help arrives.

ASPEAKING – DOC phone-in service was launched yesterday in a bid to save the lives of heart attack victims.

The idea comes from Seattle, in United States, where it increased the survival rate of heart victims; it can also help with drug overdoses.

The scheme being launched in Avon, was pioneered in America where it troubled the survival rate.

A telephone service to enable untrained people to help heart attack victims was launched in Avon yesterday.

In order to know what discoursal deictic information one must use to arrive at the right ordering of each article, knowledge of introducing newstories is deemed to be of importance. Newstories introduced for the first time are usually initiated with indefinite articles. Thus, extracts ‘I’ and ‘L’ are considered as beginning for each article. The propositions, which start with noun ‘callers’, which refers to audience or readership, will come next. So ‘G’ and ‘H’ are coming as the second in this kind of discoursal ordering... Moreover, the propositions that started with the definite article (the) are entitled as anaphoric usage, relating to the same entity as linguistic
prior expressions. Thus, these propositions started with the definite article (the) are regarded as the third or the last ones.

What is more is that, the article, which composed from paragraphs ‘I H K’ is conversational because it appeals to the reader’s emotions rather than logical reasoning. In contrast, the second article which can be carried out from extracts ‘L G J’, is regarded as formal and its formality can be rendered out from the academic cautions phrases and expressions such as:

- Mouth to mouth resuscitation.
- A telephone services to enable

untrained people etc.

Discourse deixis category not only provide you with information to complete spoken/ written discourses, but also it provides you with valuable information concerning the speaker’s style of presentation of his/ her utterances. Moreover, this can pragmatically be drawn from the speaker’s exact utterances. It is to note that readers cannot share the writer reporter his/ her attitudes towards the particular incident unless they decipher or count these pragmatic expressions, which represent the intended meanings of their speakers.

For example, if the last propositions of the two articles, which started with the definite article ‘the’, are changed or rewritten with indefinite article ‘A’, there may be an impossibility to organize these propositions accurately. In addition, the extracts themselves will have
an ambiguity, and readers might ask what kind of scheme/ idea the proposition wants to convey?

4.1.5. Social Deixis Category:

Social deixis encodes the special distinctions that are relative to participants’ role in speech event, so the speaker’s (reporter’s) status and rank compared to the rank and status of the referents are considered as the processes by which social deixis is encoded. That is for proper encoding, there must be identification for this category of social deixis as an essential element for meaning.

It is essential to note that most of the newstories in journalism incorporate structures that encode social identities of participants (referents), who are being involved in the newsevents. Moreover, those stories always identify the relation between those participants so that a clear image about the incident can be conceived according to the speaker’s status as a journalist. Examples of this from (Duff & Shindler, 1984) are as follows:

Car Blast

A BOOBY TRAPPED car exploded yesterday in front of Iraqi planning Ministry in Baghdad, the Iraqi News Agency reported, Pedestrians and Ministry employees were killed, but no figures were given A. P.

(Duff & Shindler, 1984: 11)
In the first article, the story encodes social identities of people. That is Iraqi people death, and it shows their location in an institutionalized way, which views them as pedestrians and ministry employees. Therefore, it can be said that this article uses time and place and social deixis to illustrate its referents. Of course, these references are conceived from the point of view and the status and rank of the writer, and in this case the reporter.

The second article encodes the identity of Peter and Robert, and shows their relations to each other. It also indicates their social address, which is Leed Rood Hechmondwike. Hence readers can pragmatically distinguished other aspects which help communication and which are anchored upon the speaker's production of his/her current utterances. That is the newstory’s setting (knowledge of Geography), and other cultural, social and political orientations. Cann’s (1993: 283–5) example ‘it is raining’, sustains the claim which assumes the importance of place and time deixis in all the utterances which are produced by speakers/ writers. He states that if that sentence is uttered, it interpreted as an ‘assertion’ that it is raining at the place in which the

**Cheese Haul**

Two brothers discovered a secret hole in a warehouse wall and used it to make raids in which they stole cheese worth more than two £ 2.000. yesterday Peter Binney, 26, of Leeds Rood, Hechmondwike, was jailed for nine months and Robert Binney, 19, of the same address, was send to borstal.

(ibid: 11)
speaker is located, and at the time of the speaker’s Coding Time (CT), not that it is raining everywhere. If frequencies of occurrences are counted in the above two articles the result will be as follows:

Pedestrians
Ministry employees
Brothers
Peter Benney
Robert Benney

Frequency- 5 times

If the above articles are rewritten without this social deixis category, the article will be changed into a kind of ‘DCT’ and the blanks of those social deixis can semantically or grammatically be filled, but they can never be pragmatically filled unless they contains the actual words of the speaker or the reporter, as shown below:

**Car Blast**

A BOOBY TRAPPED car exploded yesterday in front of Iraqi planning Ministry in Baghdad, the Iraqi News Agency reported, ------------------ and --- ---------------- were killed, but no figures were given A. P.

**Cheese Haul**

Two ---------------- discovered a secret hole in a warehouse wall and used it to make raids in which they stole cheese worth more than two £ 2.000. yesterday --- ----------------, 26, of Leeds Rood, Hechmonwike, was jailed for nine months and ----------------, 19, of the same address, was send to borstal
If for example the first article ‘Car Blast’ is conceived deictically readers should cater for the deictic centre of the five categories of deixis. This deictic centre is mainly anchored upon the speaker at Coding Time ‘CT’. However, if this deictic centre is unmarked in the above articles in this chapter, the articles will only semantically and grammatically are understood. To distinguish the elements, which include in this deictic centre, this will contains the five categories of deixis. The speaker as a central person whose status is compared to other deictic categories. These categories can be considered as central time (when the speaker produces the utterance), and central place (where the speaker’s location at Coding Time). And what is the point the speaker is currently at in the production of his/ her utterance is central discourse. The social centre shows the participants involved in the incidents and how they can conceived on behalf of speaker’s or reporter’s utterance to his/ her discourse.

The analysis so far proved the importance of the deictic centre to the meaning of discourse. Thus, if these basic five categorizations of deixis are omitted from the above articles in this chapter the articles will be rewritten like a puzzle, and the articles will lose their meanings as in the following.
Yet, for a discourse to release its meaning this deictic category should be identify and projected. This projection can best be viewed in ‘DCT’ technique, because it provides you as a reader with background information about the situation so that candidates can deictically afford good answers. For instance, if one wants to fill the blanks in the above test, a background about this deictic centre is needed as a basic entailment for such kinds of “DCT’ tests. The background for DCT tests should contain the speaker’s or the writer’s actual deictic centre as in the following example for the above articles:

**DCT Techniques:**

1- Imagine that you are a journalist, reporting about the death of some pedestrians and Ministry employees, which happened yesterday in front of

*A BOOBY TRAPPED car exploded* -------
------------------ in front of ---------------
------------------, the Iraqi News Agency reported,------------------
------ and -------------------------------
were killed---------------- no figures were given A. P.
Iraqi news agency. Then fill the blanks in the articles.

The most important thing here is that when candidates tests the communication process, an emphasis on this deictic centre should be made to project the same newstory by the same deictic elements. That is a whole transformation should be made to make the candidate as if s/he were the speaker. Moreover, had not this been done, there might have been something of unreality in our tests. That is the candidate should understand the point, in which the speaker is currently at when s/he produces his/ her utterances in the speech event.

In the rest of the first part of this chapter, an attempt would be made to transform some previous articles into DCT techniques. The present writer believes the DCT will almost test what is called spontaneous rules of language, and what is nominated as the intercultural communication and discourse analysis.

2- Today in Mexico City, there is smog, which is considered as the main cause for stopping driving. In last January in the same town, schools were also
forced to close for a month. Now the authorities are taking decisive action. Imagine that you are the reporter, and fill in the blanks with the meaning you have understood.

**NO Driving**

--

A tough new antismog campaign targets autos.

*The united nation has ranked smog in ----- -------------- city as the world’s second most ecological disaster, after the burning of the Amazon forest, and ------------------ ---------- the dense pollution got so bad that -------------- schools were forced to close for the month. ------------ Mexico city is taking drastic action to clear the air.*

3- The naked body of Suzzane Thatcher was found yesterday near the site of a royal horse show grounds, whose boss is a friend of prince Phillip. She was found last night in a place 100 yards
from Amberly shows grounds. Please,
fill in the blanks with the information
you have.

THE NAKED body of a pretty girl groom
was ----------------- near --------------------------
-----------------------------------------------
whose boss a friend of --------------------------
-----, has been strangled. ----------------------
found in dense undergrowth only 100 yards
from ----------------- -----------------------------
police said ---------------------------- that a
man had been charged with her murder.

4- ABOOBY TRAPPED car exploded
yesterday in front of Iraqi planning
Ministry in Baghdad, the Iraqi News
Agency reported that some pedestrians
and Ministry employees were killed.
Please, using the above information fill
in the blanks below


5- Two brothers discovered a secret hole in a warehouse wall and used it to make raids in which they stole cheese worth more than £ 2,000. Yesterday Peter Binney, 26, of Leed Road, Hechmondwike, was jailed for nine months and his brother Robert Binney, 19, was sent to borstal. Please fill in the blanks below with the information you understood.

Car Blast

A BOOBY TRAPPED car exploded ----- ------------------------------- in front of -------------------------------

the Iraqi News Agency reported, ------- -------------------------------, and -------------------------------

--------- were killed, but no figures were given A. P.
Cheese Haul

Two --------------------------- discovered a secret hole in a warehouse wall and used it to make raids in which ---------------
- stole cheese worth more than two £ 2.000. yesterday ---------------, 26, of ------------------------, 26, of the same address, was jailed for nine months and ---------------
----------------------------, 19, of the same address, was send to borstal.

it is to note that the previous five tests of DCT depend entirely on the deixis centre. Here, the researcher believes lies the difference between close procedures tests and the technique of DCT. In close tests, readers use their semantic and grammatical knowledge to fill in the blanks. ‘DCT’ techniques need the five categories of deixis to guarantee the speaker’s actual and exact utterances. So if one takes out from the background afforded for the DCT any deixis category of the five ones, the process of communication will be hindered. So far, the language in communication has been studied, not tested as a discourse. No tests except view ones that held to look for pragmatic interpretation beyond language utterances.

In addition, in negotiating the aspect of meaning, linguistics divides knowledge into two kinds: for example, Widdowson (1979) divides knowledge in to systematic and schematic. Systematic knowledge pays special emphasis to grammar and rules of usage, while schematic knowledge ‘has to do with mode of communication’. Carrel, 1983: 4, cited in Widdowson (ibid.).
Widdowson’s dominant expressions by which he denotes social use of language are words such as ‘appropriacy’, ‘use’, ‘value’, ‘utterance’, ‘illocutionary act’, ‘coherence’, ‘communicative abilities’, ‘macro linguistics’, and ‘index’. Therefore, comprehension in his view is considered as a semantic matter of deciphering symbolic meanings. He considers the signs in the utterance function as an index which indicates where we must look in world we know or perceive in order to discover meaning. It directs our attention away from the ‘symbolic usage or knowledge itself’. Therefore, indexical meanings must be realized by the language user associating symbols with some relevant aspect of the world.

Schematic knowledge, then, is an important reference in language use whereby linguistic symbol are converted into indices in the process of interpretation. These indices have restrictions, which include culture and subculture restraints. So Widdowson recommends in learning a language policy makers should incorporate what will stimulate the learning of a language in the educational curriculum. That is the language it self must be recognized by the learners as a purposeful and relevant extension of the learner’s schematic or horizons.

In the process of conversion of symbol to index, Widdowson assumes that one just need to arrive at the necessary degree of interaction and no more. He states that ‘comprehension is never complete’, it is always only approximate, and relative to purpose of interaction. He also confirms that what is sent by somebody to us will be relevant to the occasion or to what has just been said.
He also replaces Austin’s term of illocutionary acts by what he termed rhetorical acts, which entails appropriate context for sentences to be understood. He argues that Austin’s examples ‘I’ll come tomorrow’, may be a promise, or a threat, or a confirmation. Chomskyan concept of deep structure is widened by Widdowson to include the universe of discourse which consists of concepts and procedures, methods, which define disciplines and all non – modes of communication like formulae, tables, charts, symbols, equation, etc. (Widdowson, 1979: 24-50).

It is essential to note here that part of this universal discourse must be claimed to be the cultural capital of nations. Advertisers, for example, often make assumptions about the cultural capital of the target consumer groups when constructing advertising messages (Watson & Hill, 1984: 54). Therefore, it is better to take articles in media as discourses. This idea of what discourse is can best be illustrated by Searle’s (1976: 23) view of speech functions.

“we tell people how things are, we try to get them to do things, we commit ourselves to doing things, we express our feeling and attitudes. And we bring about changes through our utterance. Often, we do more than one of these at once in the same utterance”.

This view of language as discourse is a reaction against Chomskyan linguistic competence in which the notion of deep structure can be made manifest through the process of transformation. For Chomsky the relation
between the deep and surface structures provides the essential bases of language. He considered language as a series of organized structures. The deep structures emanates information for the reader or listener to distinguish between alternative interpretations of sentences which have the same surface form as in the examples below:

- Flying planes can be dangerous.
- Planes that fly can be dangerous.

The above two examples have the same surface structure, but different underlying meanings (deep)

The deep structure also provides information that enable the reader or listener to distinguish between sentences which have different surface forms, but have the same underlying meaning, as in the example below.

- The dog chased the cat.
- The cat was chased by the dog.

Yet, by altering the surface structure of the above sentence, the underlying idea is not altered: (Watson & Hill, 1997: 62).

The theories which come as a reaction against Chomskyan linguistic competence and which view language as a discourse were spread during the last two decades. Pragmatic theory, which constitutes the most important part in the theory of communication and discourse analysis, needs much more attention and study as recommended by Levinson (1983).
In the following sections of this chapter, pragmatic inferences such as speech act, implicature and presupposition will be investigated in a more reliable practical way in the language of journalism and media.

4.2.6. Speech Acts in New-stories:

News writing is usually coloured. Coloured stories are a technicality, which refers “to any report that describes the flavour and excitement that go with large crowds” (River, 1964: 167). Therefore, most of the newspaper’s political views are considered as ‘variant approximations, based on the author’s subjective evaluations” (Duff & Shindler, 1984: 1), not official statements from the newspaper. So indirect illocutions (further acts) can be seen and determined by political realities and the goals of particular societies. Those political realities are expressed by Mueller, (1973: 101 – 2) as countries’ ideology. Example of this is the following extract.

*The Nato attacks provoked an outburst from* Boris Yelstin, Russia’s presidents, *who warned the alliance not to force Moscow into action “otherwise there will be a European war for sure and possibly world war”, he said.*

*A white house spokesman said in Washington: “we’ve been officially assured than Russia will not be drawn into the conflict …. (Financial Times, April 11, 1999:1)*
President Yelstิน in the above article is warning the alliance not to force his country into action. However, the white house’s locution “we have been officially assured that Russia will not be drawn into the conflict”, has an indirect illocution, hoping that or requesting that Russia should not interfere in this conflict of ethnic cleansing in Kosovo. Here it is to note that using direct speech act to people whose culture is more accommodated to indirectness requests is considered as impolite. Whenever saying something that lessens the possible threat to another’s face is called a face saving act (see Yule, 1997: 134). It is to note that speech act should be explored within the theory of speech event, which caters for the enormous variations in what people say and do in different circumstances. This variation such as setting, topic and culture specification should be looked at in the speech event theory. Newstories then can be considered as one of the speech event types of discussions.

4.2.7. Speech Acts and Advertisements:

Searle’s (1969) mechanism of illocutionary indicating force device shows what the addressee is meant to do with a particular proposition that is expressed. Hence, it can be claimed that most of assertive propositions of advertisements in journalism and media are meant to make the addressees believe in the advertised item. Example of this is foreign & colonial management’s advertisement, which runs as follows
Why invest in our saving plans? Don’t ask an economist Ask an Historian

Take a look back over the past 20 years and you’ll see that the foreign & colonial investment trust has been one of the most successful performers.

Turn back the clock 131 years for 1888, and you will see the reason why.

That’s when we invented the investment Trust. And it is this vast experience that allows us consistently out – perform many of our rivals.

It’s also the reason why knowledge investors make our private investor plan their first choice …

(the independent 10 April 1999:2)

Each proposition in the above advertisement will be shown in the table below with the possible meaning it conveys. These possible meanings are considered as inferences of speech act. That is indirect illocutionary acts.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Proposition</th>
<th>Indirect illocution acts</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1\ why invest in our saving plan? Don’t ask an economist Ask an– Historian</td>
<td>Challenge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2\ take a look back over the past 20 years and you ‘ll see that</td>
<td>praising</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The foreign & colonial investment trust has been one of the most successful performers.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sentence</th>
<th>Indirect Illocution</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3\ Turn back the clock 131 years to 1888, and you will see the reason why</td>
<td>Praising</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4\ that’s when we invented the investment Trust. And it is this vast experience that allows us consistently out – perform many of our rivals.</td>
<td>Promising</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5\ It’s also the reason why knowledge investors make our private investor plan their first choice…</td>
<td>Request</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the above advertisement, each sentence expresses a particular proposition. Moreover, each proposition has indirect illocution, or act, which is determined by the circumstances surrounding it. That is a relationship between the advertisement itself and the cultural capital of a particular community (Appendix VII).

Thus, the first proposition exploits the imperative to express the act of ‘challenge’, and the three following ones express in turn acts of ‘praising’, and ‘promising’. Moreover, the last one expresses an act of requesting investors to join this financial Trust.

It can be assumed also that an advertisement is a kind of discourse whether it is written or spoken. This discoursal advertisement addresses a particular culture,
which is called cultural capital. That is, it is designed according to the cultural criteria of a particular nation to satisfy the need of consumers’ target groups (Appendix II).

It has been observed in advertisement in general, and the above one in particular that there is many propositions express the same illocutionary act (proposition 2 & 3). Therefore, the holistic implication of the above advertisement is to persuade audiences or readership to join this trust. However, there is no direct act, which urges people to join this Financial Trust, that there is something more than what is said or written.

The above indirect acts or meanings conveyed by the advertisement are unconsciously acquired by the readers/listeners. To describe what the listeners/readers do to interpret the reference or the meanings conveyed is ‘inference’. What is meant by ‘inference’ is clearly illustrated in proposition (3) by the sentence:

- Turn back the clock 131 years to 1888, and you will see the reason why?

How can one turn back the clock 131 years? Moreover, what reason will he see. What is more important is that the ultimate aim of this proposition or the indirect act is ‘praising’ something, and this can be deduced from the whole advertisement as a written discourse.

This same proposition might be inferred negatively in other kinds of discourses that is, it might not be
conceived as a praising act. For example, imagine that an individual is devaluing his friend’s ancestors by describing them with greed and selfishness, which he totally inherited from his grandfather by saying the following:

- Turn back the clock 131 years to 1888, and you will see the reason why

It is to note that this mutual knowledge of the ‘grandfather’ is deemed important element in pragmatic theory. That is both friends have prior assumption and knowledge of the selfishness and greed of the grandfather.

4.2.8. Types of Illocutionary Act and Writing in Journalism:

A. ‘Request’, ‘Advice’, ‘Question’ and ‘Advertisement’:

According to Searle (1969: 66 – 7) the propositional content of ‘request’ and ‘advice’ is a future act that the speaker believes the hearer will be benefited from, and that the hearer is able to do it. Moreover, it is not guaranteed to both speaker and hearer that the latter will do it in the normal course of event. Searle further adds that ‘advising is telling you what is the best for you’. Thus, this future act of ‘request’ and ‘advice’ can be clearly viewed in journalistic and media
advertisements. Below is an example of advertisement, which contains Searle’s ‘question’, ‘advice’, and ‘request’ of illocutionary type.

**DO you want the FREEDOM to choose your doctor and hospital anywhere in the world? £2.000 in patient & out patient medical cover premier gold plan**

*(Newsweek, No. 20 November 16: 1998)*

**OUR NEW FLEET IS NOW AT YOUR SERVICE**

Our new B777s, B747- 400s and MD 80s have arrived with the latest features for families and business. Enjoy superlative comfort beginning with a 36-seat pitch in Guest class, which is more stretched than other international airlines.

*(Newsweek, November 3, 1998)*

**Pensions spoken plainly**

Ask a straightforward question about our personal pensions – or even a complicated one – and we ’ll give you a straightforward answer. Our experts will give an honest assessment of your current position, answer questions or give advice – all by phone.

*What could be plainer than that?*

*(The Daily Telegraph Personal Finance Saturday April  1999: 2)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Searle’s Illocutionary Act and Advertisement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Advertisements’ Propositions</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DO you want the FREEDOM to choose your doctor and hospital anywhere in the world? £2.000 in patient &amp; out patient medical cover premier gold plan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OUR NEW FLEET IS NOW AT YOUR SERVICE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Our new B777s, B747- 400s and MD 80s have arrived with the latest features for families and business. Enjoy superlative comfort beginning with a 36-seat pitch in Guest class, which is more stretched than other international airlines.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pensions spoken plainly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ask a straightforward question about our personal pensions – or even a complicated one – and we ’ll give you a straightforward answer. Our experts will give an honest assessment of your current position, answer questions or give advice – all by phone.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What could be plainer than that?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.2
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Q1</th>
<th>do you want the FREEDOM to choose your own doctor and hospital anywhere in the world?</th>
<th>Exam question – speaker wants to know if hearers know.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Q2</td>
<td>our new B 777s, B747 – 400s and MD gos have arrived with the latest features for families and business. Enjoy superlative comfort beginning with a 36 seat pitch in Guest Class, which is more stretch than other international airlines.</td>
<td>‘Advice’ it is a future act that the speaker believes the hearer will be benefited from. ‘advising is telling you what is the best for you’.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q3</td>
<td>Ask a straightforward question about our personal pension– or even a complicated one– and we ‘ll give you a straightforward answer …</td>
<td>‘Request’ it is a future act that the speaker believes will benefit the hearer.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Yet, Searle (1969) divides question illocutionary act into two types of questions. The first kind of question is real questions in which the speaker wants to know the answer. The second type of question is exam question in which the speaker wants to know if hearer knows. Thus, it can be assumed that most questions within advertisements are of Searle’s second type.

What is more is that, however, ‘advice’ and ‘request’ acts have been given the same propositional content, but we see that ‘advising’ someone is telling the best for him. Unlike ‘request’ act, which mainly depends
upon a reasonable justification to be provided for someone to make you believe in what is said, written and in our case, advertised.

Eventually, what makes advertisement attractive is expressed by Wierus’ (1990: 48) article, which shows their range of colours, universal appeal, and their layout. Wierus in the same article also indicates that advertisement may contain idioms, proverbs and they may exploit the imperative mood. Example of this is as follows:

- Let's celebrate!
- Discover the world's most satisfying Cigarette!

The above advertisement (Table 4.2) shows the imperative mood in phrases like ‘Ask straightforward’, ‘Enjoy superlative comfort’. What is paradoxical here is that this very imperative mood is considered as impolite in the language of politeness and requests. In politeness language, indirect commands and requests are preferable. So, you cannot use the above phrase ‘Ask straightforward’, in politeness language unless you use it in indirect speech act. Thus, you can say it as follows:

- Can you ask straightforward what you exactly wants?

4.2.8. Illocutionary Acts and Human Interest Stories:
B. Thank (for) & Congratulate: Human Interest Stories:

Human stories are always about individuals and their lives and events that are unlikely to affect many people. And it has been observed that the type of illocutionary act, which prevails in such stories, is ‘Thank for’ whose propositional content is past act which has been done by the hearer. The speaker in the other way feels grateful or appreciative for this act (Searle, 1969: 66). In addition, the second type of illocutionary act, which is commonly used in human stories, is ‘congratulate’ which its propositional content shows events, act related to the hearer. The speaker here is pleased with this event (ibid. 66). The following examples are taken from ‘Y T Club’ page in the daily telegraph.

It is worth mentioning that these acts, as identified by Searle, lie within the border of constitutive rules, which are usually expressed as ‘Y’ counts as X in context C. In addition, human stories are highly individualistic and concern individuals and their lives and events that are unlikely to affect many people. Examples are as follows:

Example 1:
Tree – Top Sketch

A big thanks to Lauren Red Path (9) for this terrific picture of Tommy Toucan. Lauren’s recovering from a series of operations and YT team all hope you get well soon. Have a YT Ticker for your artistic talents.

(The Daily Telegraph, No 443 April 3, 1999; 15)

Example 2

Happy birthday to Hannah Rothery who will be (8) tomorrow. Hope you have a lovely day! Love from Mummy, Daddy, Ben and Toby Bill.

(The Daily Telegraph, 1999: 15)

Although Lauren’s portrait in the “Tree Top Sketch” was drawn in April 3, 1999, its first, proposition content indicated that this portrait had been drawn before that date. The YT team thanks Lauren about her terrific picture, which had been drawn in the past. Thus Searle’s act of thank (for) as an act which has been done by the hearer in the past can be confirmed here

The second story’s proposition shows events of birthday of Hanna Rothery, and the good wishes of the paper and Hanna’s parents towards this occasion, here, the propositional content of ‘congratulate’ can be considered as an expression of pleasure towards this event.
4.2.8: Illocutionary Acts and Writing News

Values:

C. ‘Assert’, ‘State (that)’, ‘Affirm’ and ‘Writing News Values’:

One of the main concerns of any newspaper is to persuade the intended readers to buy copies. Readers will obviously buy the paper if they like what is in it. The reporter will, therefore use special vocabulary, i.e. words used in everyday English, but used in a particular way, either formal, descriptive or emotional. Headlines are also written according to particular criteria in order to shock the attention of the readers, and then hold this attention of readers to read the paper again. Newstories usually prepare the reader for the attitudes of the reporter or the newspaper legal body. They indicate the Illocutionary Force Indicating Device, which is defined by Searle (1969: 66–80) as ‘a set of rules extracted from a set of conditions’, or what the sufficient conditions under which one can be said to have correctly uttered his sentences are.

Therefore, the attitudes of the newspaper or the reporter towards the article can be considered as the intended meaning of speaker. In addition, it is worth mentioning that two different newspapers can tackle the
same incident with different styles of presentation. The examples below show that the same incident has been formally introduced in the first article, and with conversational style in the second example:

Example 1:

**Tourists Die in Cable – Car Plunge**

**SINGAPORE**: A floating oil ring struck two cable-cars over Singapore harbour on Saturday, throwing seven tourists to their deaths and trapping 13 others in cars swinging 100 feet above the water.

*(ibid. :25)*

Example 2

**Jokes in the Cable Car Trap**

**SINGAPORE**

The 13 survivors of the Singapore cable car tragedy told jokes to keep from panicking as they waited all night to be rescued, it was revealed yesterday.

*(ibid. :25)*

From the above articles it can be said that ‘reporting the news’ is a process which includes acts of ‘assert’, ‘state that’, and ‘affirm’ (Appendix V). Therefore, the reporters in the above articles are simply stating their
proposition, and not attempting to convince you to do something. Normally, in stating their propositions reporters use language, which is as neutral as possible. By neutral is meant unemotional language. Therefore, in any kind of formal writing, the writer never uses the first person singular or plural. Exception is made here to opinion columns, or some reviews where, instead, the passive voice is used. Furthermore, reporters use the present tense to create the effective impacts on his/ her readers (River, 1964: 50).

Whenever a writer chooses emotional rather than neutral language, s/he is expressing an attitude so his/her writing may eventually be considered as subjective comment rather than objective reporting. (Duff & Shindler, 1984: 33). However, both styles of writing lie within Searle’s (1969) border of ‘assert’ ‘state (that)’, and ‘affirm’ types of illocutionary acts. So, political, economic, social writing in media and journalism can be conceived to lie within the range of ‘affirm’, “state that’, and ‘assert’. Exception is advertisements, which are usually conveyed through other illocutionary acts as has been shown before. Below are two other examples, which assert this assumption.
Example 1:

**Press Curb**

ZIMBABWE’S Government information department confirmed yesterday that foreign journalists would be required to inform the Government of any trips beyond 25 miles of the capital and the second largest city, Bulawayo – AP.

*(Duff & Shindler, 1984: 11)*

Example 2

**Sugar Pay Deal**

The British Sugar Corporation is to give 2,500 of its workers a 9.5 percent pay increase despite a breakdown of talks with trade union leaders. Half the workforce had already accepted the offer, which will now be imposed on other employees.

*(ibid: 11)*

The propositional contents of the above articles can be assumed as ‘affirm’, ‘state (that)’, and ‘assert’ of illocutionary acts types. The first article states that in Zimbabwe there are restrictions to foreign journalists movements. While the second article is asserting a 9.5 percent pay, increase to workers of the British Sugar Corporation. To emphasize these points the table 4.3 shows a proposition from previous advertisement compared with the first articles proposition in order to conceive their indirect illocution or acts.
Table 4.3 Indirect Acts of Advertisement & News writing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Propositions</th>
<th>Indirect Acts</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Advertisement</td>
<td>‘advice’ &amp; ‘request’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a. enjoy superlative comfort beginning with a 36 seat pitch in Guest class, which is more stretch than other international airlines.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Zimbabwe’s Government Information department confirmed yesterday that foreign journalist ....</td>
<td>‘affirm, ‘state (that)’ ‘assert’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

How likely does the proposition content of the advertisement have indirect act of ‘advice’ request’ and news writing proposition has the act of ‘assert’, ‘state (that)’, ‘affirm’? The answer would be that in advertisements the writer probably attempts almost to convince you with the advertised item as something precious and good for you to attain or do etc. Unlike news writing propositions which, mainly aims at stating for you particular incidents without attempting to convince you.

4.2.9: ‘Manner’ and ‘Quality’ Implicature Maxims and writing Headlines and Articles: -

As it has been shown earlier, that implicature inference can be searched around in co–operative proposition that the sentence may convey. Normally, then in co-operative circumstances if one asserts something, s/he implicates that s/he believes in it. In
addition, if one asks a question one implicates that one desires an answer. Similarly, if one promises to do something one sincerely intends to do it and so on. Thus, any other use of such utterances as Levinson (1983: 97–118) shows is likely to be ‘spurious or counterfeit’ one, and violates the maxim of quality. Therefore, as it has been negotiated, most types of writing in journalism may be taken to implicate for something by flouting Grice’s maxim of quality. Levinson’s (1983: 110) example here illustrates their notion of violating such a maxim.

- Queen Victoria was made of iron.

When one utters such a sentence, one can be assumed either non-co-operative, or intends to convey something rather different. Therefore, the appropriate interpretation is that queen Victoria had properties of iron like hardness, resilience, non-flexibility, or durability. Therefore, interpretations as such can be taken positively as well as negatively and this depends on the context of its utterance. In journalism and media language, this maxim of quality can be conceived in the conflicts between different ideologies.

Implicature also can be derived, or observed in writing headlined. This can be undertaken by exploiting Grice’s maxim of manner. This maxim urges the speaker on being brief and orderly, besides it is avoiding obscurity of expression (Appendix IV).

In writing headlines, this maxim of ‘manner’ usually violated, because headlines largely depend on shocking their readers. In order to shock readers, headlines writers tend to write them in an ambiguous way. Beyond the reason, why headlines shock their readers lie a philosophy, which aims at creating the motivation inside
readers to buy the paper and to see what its article about. So readers should develop ‘pragmatic nose’ to interpret the newspaper’s news values. For example, in
November 9, 1998, the Newsweek has carried out a story whose headline read as ‘New Threat’, which may cause ambiguity and disorder in the mentality of its readers. This state may lead the reader to relieve himself by reading the paper to know what kind of threat and to whom. When reading the paper, the first sentences (the leads) of the article provide the required information.
Information that the article releases is that ‘Saddam Hussein the President of Iraq defies the Security Council decision by suspending co-operation with U. N. without really guaranteeing when economic sanctions would be lifted.

In addition, the Gricean maxim of quality, that instructs one’s utterances to be true, by not saying what is false (palmer, 1981: 173) is always flouted in conflicts between different ideologies, or result in various political standpoints. Hence, what it seems as defiance in the previous article in Newsweek, might have another outlook and philosophy in Iraq’s newspapers. Below is an example, which shows the notion of flouting ‘quality’, and ‘manner’ maxims of Grice.
It has been shown that conventional, or rule-based account of natural language usage can never satisfy the need of communication process. Thus, the possibility of non-conventional exploitation is considered as essential in communication processes.

Table 4.4. ‘Manner’ & ‘Quality’ maxims and Headlines & Political realities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Proposition</th>
<th>Inferential Mechanism</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1\ New Threat</td>
<td>Grice’s maxim of ‘manner’ which orders the speaker to avoid obscurity of expression is flouted in this proposition so that it may be taken to implicate for something.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| 2\ SUDDAM HUSSEIN once again laid down a challenge to | Grice’s maxim of ‘quality’ which orders the speaker not say what s/he believes to be false is violated in order that it may be taken to implicate for }
the United Nations last week … something, so what looks as a defiance in this issue of Newsweek, might have another philosophy and different political stance in Iraqi newspapers.

Manner maxim of Grice (1957) which orders the producer of the utterance to avoid obscurity, avoid ambiguity, be brief, be orderly is exploited in the above ‘headline’, and in headlines in general. That is, headlines usually violate grammatical rules, and written with special vocabulary character.

However, quality maxim can be conceived in that Newsweek issue. Reporters normally assert propositional content in which they believe. That is Saddam reaction by suspending co-operation with the UN has been considered as defiance. The same situation might have political justification in Iraq's newspapers. They may conceive it as a matter of self. Respect to suspend co-operation with the UN.

4.2.10. Presupposition and Newstories:

As noted above implicature is related to the method by which speakers work out, and how hearers arrive at the indirect illocution of utterances, presupposition in contrast is not based on contextual assumption, instead, it is derived from any conclusion that one is reasonably entitled to draw from an utterance (Hurford & Heasely, 1993: 278). That is when, talking about an assumption made by the speaker (or writer), we usually talk about presupposition. Thus what a speaker (writer) assumes to be true or is known by the hearer (reader) can be stated as a presupposition. What is more is that this category of presupposition can remain as it is
in negation. Yule’s (1997) example of this notion of constancy under negation test for presupposition is of importance here. The example runs as follows:

- My car is a wreck.
- My car is not a wreck.

Yule argues that although the above two sentences have opposite meanings, but, the underlying presupposition ‘I have a car’ remains true in both sentences.

Newstories in part can be taken as assumptions made by speaker (writer). Newstories as well are straight factual accounts that identify political, social, and economic events (River, 1964: 186). Thus, current events may be considered as having both background entailment, and foreground entailment i.e. additive information that the utterance shows.

Therefore, in the previous extract of ‘New Threat’, readers should have a presupposition or a background entailment about the escalated conflict between Iraq and Security Council. According to this background, they can grasp the extract (article) as a foreground entailment. Therefore, it can be assumed that daily newspapers, weekly, monthly issues tend to set a foreground entailment about particular problems. The sentence “Saddam Hussein once again laid down a challenge to the United Nations last week”, entails or presupposes that it is not the first time for Saddam to practice such behaviour. The information, which is added, is considered as current news values to the escalated
events between the two mentioned sides (foreground entailment).

Hence, it can be claimed that these concepts of background and foreground entailment which are firstly initiated by Levinson (1983) are the backbone which links most newspapers daily, weekly or monthly issues. That is to say, readers or learners should have background knowledge about the incidents, and then proceed accordingly.

In addition, this inference of presupposition can be linked with definite/indefinite articles. That is information can be introduced for the first time or assumed that the reader knows about it. For example in the previous articles which have headlines as ‘Tourists die in cable – car plunge’, information is introduced for the first time in phrases like ‘A floating oil rig’, ‘two cable–cars’, ‘seven tourists’. In the second article, however, information is presupposed to be known by hearer, and this appears in phrases like ‘the 13 survivors’, and the Singapore cable – car tragedy. Within this second type of referring new information to background assumption (definite article) lies the pragmatic inference of the presupposition. That is when we are presenting or reporting newstories with the (definite article) device, we presuppose that our readers have a background knowledge about the particular incident in question. Example of this as follows:

**Bite Bars Record**

*The new world record attempt for living with poisonous snake was abandoned yesterday when John Berry, aged 21, a South African, was bitten by a young puff adder in his glass tank at Rhyl – North*
The definite article (the) provides information, or presupposes that the readers have background knowledge about this new world record for living with poisonous snakes. The escalation events of news values are considered as foreground knowledge, showing that this new world record was abandoned yesterday because one of the participants had been injured. Therefore, it can be assumed that the background knowledge is considered as the presupposition, which is mutually shared between the speaker (writer), and hearer (reader). Yet reporting news for the first time in contrast is commonly used in media to introduce new incidents, and it gives no room for what is called presupposition as shown in the example below:

**STRIKE HLTS TRAVELLERS**

*By our Lisbon correspondent a national transport strike affecting trains, ferries, buses, teams and the underground started in Portugal yesterday and was due to continue until the end of the week as trade unions demanded pay increases above the 17 percent, ceiling established by the government.*

(Duff & Shindler, 1984: 14)
information is introduced for the first time in phrases and sentences as follows:-

i. There was a national transport strike in Portugal.

ii. The strike was started the day before.

iii. Trains, Ferries, buses and team had been affected.

iv. It may continue until the end of the week.

v. Trade Unions demanded pay increase above the 17 percent, which is considered as Government established ceiling.
Yet, in the five above propositions or declarative sentences, presuppositions can not be conceived by readers or hearers. Since readers receive these news for the first time, and the writer uses the indefinite article (a) to report his/her new-story.

4.2.10. A. Referring Expressions and journalistic propositions:

referring expression as indicated by Searle (1969: 27) are expressions that serve to identify any thing; process, event or any other kind of individuals. They provides answers to questions who? What? Which?, and are normally known by their functions. They are defined by Hurford & Heasely (1993: 26) as any expression that can be referred to any entity in the real world or in an imaginary world. The propositions on the other hand has been conceived as any aspect of the meaning of the stretch of language, whether derived from what is actually said, or from what hearers assume or infer (Channell, 1994: 220). Many other linguistics define it as that part of the meaning of the utterance which describes some state of affair.

Concept of referring expression such as predicate, predicators (Various parts of speech, adjectives, verbs, prepositions, nouns) are playing a essential role in interpreting the meaning of new-stories. It has also been shown that there are two kinds of implicatures. Conventional implicature which results from truth – conditional inferences. Conventional one depends on non – truth conditional expression (Grice, 1975. cited in Lyons 1995: 272). Example of the latter one is Levinson’s (1983: 127) classification of discourse deictic words such as ‘however’, ‘anyway’, ‘although’, etc. and
social deictic expressions like ‘sir’, ‘madam’, ‘your honour’, etc and social deictic expressions like ‘sir’, ‘madam’, ‘your honour’ etc Levinson shows that all the above particles have no propositional content to be analyzed truth conditionally.

Although conventional implicature has been viewed as such by Levinson, it is glossed by linguist like Lyons (1995: 273) as having a proposition. Lyons exemplifies this by the particles ‘and’, ‘but’ in the following sentences:

- He is poor and he is honest.
- He is poor but he is honest.

Lyons states that in using the particle ‘and’, the speaker might be implicating (not asserting) that it is unusual for someone to be both poor and honest.

Lyons (1995: 299) also shows that reference is actually connected with existence. Therefore, he indicates what he calls existential presupposition and add that if this presupposition is violated in the utterance, sentence or proposition, there would be a failure to express any proposition at all. He provides the following statement to support his argument.

- the king of France is bald.

Strawson (1952: 187) inclines to the view that such above statement can not sensibly be said to be either true or false due to the non-existence of king in France in 1970.
Most journalistic propositions have this type of existential presupposition and as well are constantly referring to people. Example of this is krimsky’s (1997: 79) assumption that reporters often dislike to write about issues like government programme, general revenue sharing, because there are no people in them.

Most essential to note here is that most referring expressions in journalism are the type of noun phrases used with a particular referent in the reporter’s mind. Example of this is the following extract:

**WILL HE RUN?**

*With less than 100 days to go before France’s Presidential election, francois Mitterrand still hasn’t said whether he intends to seek a second seven year term in office. But with his popularity at a high and with polls increasingly predicting victory over his rivals on the right, Mitterrand may be unbeatable if as expected – he does decide to run again.*

*(Newsweek 15, 1988:1)*

Referring expressions in such extract should not violate the existential presupposition of events in 15, 1988 in France, or the notion of Coding Time ‘CT’ mentioned earlier. Moreover in the above extract the reporter explicitly mentions declarative sentence which describe the state of affairs in France in 1988. Francois Mitterrand is glossed as the reference and the reporter questions its truth in the headlines ‘Will He Run’. This also supports Hurford & Heasely’s (1993: 21)
assumption the corresponding imperative and interrogative of a particular utterance expresses the same propositional content of that utterance. However, the imperative and interrogative as it has been shown can not be said to assert the truth.

4.2.10: B. What Kind of Negation does Journalistic Language Presuppose?

Negation sentence can be taken two ways. The first, it negates what is asserted, and the second way it identifies what has been denied (Russell, 1905, cited in Levinson 1983, 171 – 73). He gives the following example:

- the king of France id not bald.

From the above sentence, one can deduce that there is a king in France and that he is not bald (assertion). The same sentence as well can be interpreted as denying both the truth of the existence of a king in France and that he is bald.

Yet, Levinson’s (1983) analysis to the above particular sentence is that, one should have to consider the entailments order above the background so that appropriate foreground can be obtained, thus he argues that this sentence shows a foreground assertion, namely a particular individual is bald’. And the implication of that individual existence is somehow regarded as a background assumption against which the assertion makes sense.
Levinson (1983) also assumes that the presupposition of a sentence can possibly be denied overtly in a co-ordinate sentence. He instances for this by the following example:

- John doesn’t regret doing a useless Ph. D. in linguistics, because in fact he never did do one.

He adds that negation of complex sentences may presuppose as well as entail different propositions. Example of this is the following:

- John doesn’t having failed, because in fact he passed.

He indicates that such above sentence can both presuppose ‘John failed’, and entail by virtue of because clause that it is false. Thus, here lies the contradiction whereby such a sentence is considered drastically anamolous due to semantic theory. He also illustrates that in order for someone to determine appropriate presupposition, one should be co-operating, because ‘presupposition always proved to be contextually dependent. Sinclair (1975: 13) as well argues that the level of language function should be conceived as the level of a particular utterance, in a particular place in a discourse. It is not he argued ‘what has been conceived as universal functions of language nor the detailed
function of surface formal ordering with the sentence’. Levinson (1983) example of co-operative negation is this following one which indicates that john has lost something.

- It wasn’t his coat that john lost.

Yet, journalists tend to avoid complex sentences negation because as a journalist your writing will be judged on its suitability on the news items involved in it. It is also judged by the criterion of unambiguity which is shown in Watson & Hill (1997: 155) as writing about events in clear – cut utterances.

As it has been observed that journalists or media men usually deny their presupposition of sentences in co – ordinate may. That is journalists are always co-operative and they pragmatically imply their presuppositions. Readers on the other side verify for themselves by filtering out the truth conditional of journalist’s propositional content. Example of this is taken from Ferguson’s (1980) edited examples.

- my turn signal does not always work but that does not affect my liability for the accident.

The analysis so far shows that negation is rarely used in journalistic language in order that the intended readers can not be confused. But, when it is used, much editing is done so that accurate clear cut utterances can be obtained. What do journalists rather use can be
shown in the several possible means of negation like prefixes ‘un’, ‘non’, or words such as ‘deny’ (Crystal 1991: 231 definition of negation).

4.2.11: B. Figures of Speech and Writing in Journalism:

As it has already been mentioned that social deixis main emphasis is to sentences which are conditioned by certain realities (facts) of social situation in which the speech act occur. Metaphors also can be determined by the nature of our own and other cultures, so, the expression ‘An Englishman’s home is his castle’ – has the image of home as something to be defended as though it were a castle in a sense that the house in Britain is considered as a place of privacy.

Gannon, incidentally and his associates (1994)cited in Watson and Hill (1997: 53) proclaim that the dominate metaphor in a country shows the basic value that satisfy all or most of that country’s members. The author’s also cite the metaphors concerning other nations? Like ‘American Football, (U. S. A.) ‘The dance of Shiva’, (India), ‘the family alter’, (China), ‘The Opera’ (Italy), ‘Wine’ (France), ‘Lace’ (Belgium), ‘Ballet’ (Russia), ‘the symphony orchestra’ (Germany), ‘the bullfight’, (Spain) and so on.

There are also various metaphors that are fundamental to the ways in which organizations are perceived. For instance Martin’s (1996: 26) article of ‘school management metaphors’ illustrate this phenomenon. Martin glosses the meaning of each metaphor and match it to many types of organization. This can be shown in the following table:
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The metaphor</th>
<th>Type of conceived organization</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Machine model</td>
<td>Management in which all individual are working together for the achievement of the intended goals.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Families</td>
<td>Describes the smooth running of the organization development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The social systems</td>
<td>Glosses the school as an organism characterized by an interdependence of parts.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The jungle</td>
<td>Describes the chaotic reality of schools.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Culture</td>
<td>Describes organizations as units which possess their definable culture</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Therefore, in order to fully understand the metaphors mentioned earlier, one should pragmatically fill the gap between what is said and what is meant. Most essential also to mention here is palmer’s (1981: 173) assumption that the Grice’s maxim of quality is always flouted by metaphors and irony usages.

Idiomatic expressions are also considered as utterances which carry cross cultural meanings. And how one can grasp their meaning is a technicality which entirely depends on the non conventional use of the language. Instances for this are taken from different
What really is an idiom? Curry (1998: 1) shows it as ‘the assigning of new meaning to a group of words which already have their own meaning’. And he shows ninety nine idioms which reflect basic American meanings and cultural aspects. An example of this is the following taken from Curry (1988: 13-16).
- I have to cook up an excuse for being late to work (paraphrase: I have to invent an excuse for my tardiness).

- Your remark concerning the budget was right on target (paraphrase: your assessment of the budget was entirely correct).

Another example to illustrate these idiomatic expression is an extract taken from Newsweek (1988: 22) and which comes as follows:
Breaking the ice

Last week he herded 501 cattle across the 38th parallel as a gift to famine-ravaged North Korea. His generosity put Chung at the head of the herd of South Korean businessmen eager to claim a state above the 38th parallel and earned him an unprecedented surprise. Late in the week the North’s shadowy Great leader, King Tong ii, visited Chung on his hotel room and hinted that he was ready to open cooperative new era in North-South relations.

Chung’s cattle diplomacy may someday rank with U. S. Chinese Ping Pong diplomacy as a major diplomatic ice breaker.

(Newsweek November, 9/ 1988:22)

expressions like ‘ice – breaker, cattle diplomacy’, and ‘Ping – Pong’ diplomacy are used to ‘read in’ to utterance more than they conventionally mean. They are used here to indicate improvement between North – south Korea relations in economic zones. And they encourage joint Ventures between authorities, companies and individuals.

What coming below is also an article which shows how the journalist (reporter) can use humour through irony assuming that the reader will share his/ her reaction to the incident. That is the reader should pragmatically decipher the linguistic code of the article so
that s/he can sensibly share the reporter hid/ her intended meaning.
Driver in Dead Trouble

Boston has never been renowned as one of American’s great centres of law and order- the current Mayor is accused of all sorts of skullduggery. But the city has now clearly established that, whatever else its citizens may get up to, it is going to accept no excuses for illegal parking.

Mr. William Hui had put his car in Beacon Street, right in the middle of the city near the public garden. At 10.50 am a traffic warden saw it and put a parking ticket on the windscreen. When the car had still not been moved after launch a second ticket was popped under the wiper at 2.30 pm.

If none of this seems out of the ordinary, it is worth noting that the car door was wide open and Mr. Hui was slumped dead over the steering wheel, keys hanging limply in his hand, apparently killed by a gunshot wound in the neck.

After he had lain there for something like 6 1/2 hours collecting posthumous parking tickets, a passerby, as it is officially recorded. “became suspicious and called the police”.

The police department’s spokesman said later, with proper Boston restraint, that it was not clear why the traffic warden known as meter maids in America – had not also become suspicious, or, at least, tried to tackle Mr. Hui about his parking habits – given that he was hanging a round at the time.

“The homicide unit will have to find out who the meter maid was and talk to her” he said.

It was not clear last night what would happen about the parking tickets.

(Duff & Shindler, 1984: 46 – 48)
In using irony throughout the above article, the reporter assumes that the reader will share his/her own reaction which can be considered as “amazement” to the incident. The main source of irony which is shown by Duff & Shindler (1984) is the fact that it was 6½ hours before anyone called the police to the dead man. There are also ironic expressions appear in phrases like ‘it is worth noting’, and ‘apparently’ which are typical of cautious academic argument, and there is no need for the reporter to be cautious in pointing out the facts of the case. Also it is considered as a contradiction to talk of anyone collecting anything posthumously. Duff & Shindler (1984) define ironic usage in journalistic style of writing as the creation of gap between what is expected, and what actually happens or exists, and they show that its effect is intended to be humorous.

In order for irony to be effective the readers should pragmatically calculate the nature of assumptions made by the reporter. That is the readers and the reporter, must share the same attitude to the subject.

To recapitulate the main points in the above section, it can be claimed that figures of speech help what is called “thesis journalism”. Also through metaphors and irony, one can best gloss the distinction made by Widdowson (1990: 163). He argues that in order for someone to understand a text, one should obtain two kinds of knowledges. One is the knowledge of language’s semantic and syntax, and the meanings of words and their combinations in sentences. He calls it systematic knowledge. The other is schematic knowledge which describes the world we live in, our beliefs, ideas, experiences, cultural value, and so on.
Thus, figures of speech sustains one of the principles of new-stories which usually urges journalists to write economically and at the same time be to the point.

4.2.12: Honorific & Journalistic Values:

Levinson (1983) argued that the troublesome phenomena like honorific and discourse particles had not been treated adequately in the work of generative grammarian, thus issues like the nature of the predictive concept of possible lexical item should be tackled as pragmatic ones. He exemplifies for this of a vending machine. In the first example, he shows that the word ‘some’ means some and not all, and that would be of the natural interpretation of a notice with this message that attached to the machine. But, in the second example the word ‘some’ might communicate the meaning of ‘some and perhaps all’, if one is trying to use the machine, coin after coin, but unsuccessively. The following are two examples:

- some ten cent pieces are rejected by this vending machine.

- Some, and perhaps all, ten cent pieces are rejected by this vending machine.

Levinson (1983) also assumes that all the kinds of implicature are resulted from the exploitation of Grice’s
(1957) maxims. These implicature such as metaphor, ironies, understatements. He also shows that metaphor interpretations needs cognitive ability so as to be reasoned analogically. That is a need for both linguistic pragmatics and psychology is considered as a prerequisite to provide appropriate interpretation. Thus, the psychologist task might be to afford the general theory of analogy, unlike pragmatists whose role should be to locate the kinds of utterances that are subject to such interpretation, provide an account of how they are recognized and constructed and show conditions under which they are used. What can be added here is that the roles of psychologists and pragmatics assigned above are also needed in understanding adequately the notion of honorifics.

To explain what is meant by the notion of honorifics, two categories of socially deictic information should be mentioned again. That is social deixis is based on relational and absolute categories. The former is divided in four basic relations between:

- The speaker and the relevant.

- The speaker and the addressee.

- The speaker and the bystander.

- The speaker and the sitting.

However, the second category of ‘absolute’ can be seen in Fillmore’s (1971) classification of authorized speaker, or authorized recipient including restrictions on
most titles of addressee (e. g. your honour, Mr. president.. etc), therefore, honorifics can be conceived in the distinction of gradation between relative ranks of speaker and addresses. That is, it is linguistically encoded in choices between pronouns, summons forms or vocatives and titles of address. For example English language uses terms like residence (for home), dine (for eat, eat a meal), lady (for woman, steed (for horse) as honorific expressions of address.

Levinson (1983) also explains the intricacies of the notion of honorifics as an aspect of morphology. He shows that this aspects of honorifics can not be treated formally without references to the socially deictic values of particular morphemes. He also considered this as the most important and ignored examples of the direct interaction between pragmatics and syntax.

It is important to note that referring expressions and propositional journalistic contents are always encoded with their morphological agreements so as to reveal the relative ranks of participants who are being involved in the new-stories. That is reporters are always choosing particular pronoun, summons forms or vocatives or title of address in order to express participants relative rank. For instance the word 'sir' may be encoded to show the addresser relative rank to the addressee.

Thus, the issues of understatement, honorifics can pragmatically be glossed in political writing, headlines, commentaries, and human interest stories. An example of honorifics can be seen in the following article:
Fancy Feat

That famous high – stepper Imelda Marcos is putting on some new fancy footgear. This time it’s her running shoes. The former first lady of the Philippines wants to be president in her own right. Minutes after she pleaded not guilty last week to charges of graft, the widow of Ferdinand Marcos announced that she was entering the presidential race. ‘Happy days are here again’ she told supporters outside Manila.

Some observers wondered if her declaration would bring a reluctant president Corazon Aquino into the contest for a battle of the widows. But Aquine has been adamant in her pledge not to seek re-election in May.

She even sang the message on one occasion, warbling to the tune of I’ll never smile Again an off-key rendition of I’ll never run again.

(Time International, Jan 20, 1992: 33)

The above article addresses Imelda Marcos by the word ‘lady’ to denote her relative social rank as a Widow of Ferdinand Marcos. The reporter also used formal writing in expression like ‘some observers wondered if her declaration would bring president Corazon Aquino into the contest for a battle of the widows’ reflect this notion of honorifics. Thus, most of the academic writing can be assumed as expressions of ‘honorifics’, because it distinguishes the social status of
the participants who are being involved in the incidents, and it shows their title of address, and it uses proper summons and changing of pronouns. Thus, words like ‘lady’, ‘president’, ‘widow’ in the above article illustrate exactly what is meant by ‘honorifics’.

4.2.13. Chapter Summary

This chapter has dealt very largely first with the presentation of some useful analytical distinction which has been undertaken in some new-stories. Secondly the chapter has reviewed some of the many intricacies of the controversial issue of pragmatic inferences (deixis, speech act, implicature and presupposition).

The chapter also has attempted to shed light on whether deixis category belongs to semantics or pragmatics. So as we saw in section 4.1. that time, place, person, discourse, social deictic expressions are usually communicating the speaker’s or (the user of the language) intended meanings. However, their places can semantically be replaced, but with sense of artificiality in utterances. That is for glossing the intend meaning of the speaker both truth conditional semantics and pragmatics are needed as necessary elements of meaning.

The technique which has been followed in this part of this chapter is changing the articles into kinds of DCT. This is done by taking out the deictic expression in each article. It has also been observed that the difference between DCT and cloze procedures tests is that CDT needs the actual words of the speaker. Thus, DCT techniques always needs a background or a situation in which there must be a mention to this category of deixis.
In part two of the chapter other inferences (speech act, implicature, presupposition) were investigated in different journalistic texts. These inference can be summarized in the following:-

- Speech act theory showed in journalistic advertisement the indirect acts of advertisement range between advice – request.

- ‘state that’, ‘affirm’, ‘assert’ the acts which are described by Searle (1969) have been glossed in reporting the news.

- Implicature inference has been investigated in the flouting of Grice’s (1957) maxims of ‘manner’ and ‘quality’. ‘Manner’ maxims has been flouted in writing headlines, and ‘quality’
maxim is seen in conflict between ideologies.

- Presupposition has been conceived according to Levinson (1983) principle of foreground background assumptions made by the reader to understand and decipher journalistic utterance.

- Figures of speech and the notion of honorifics are sustaining pragmatic principles, since they are considered as pragmatic constrains which need inferential power to assign their meaning in particular contexts.

The chapter never tried to answer the question of what pragmatic is, and what is not. The chapter have
attempted to draw useful contribution on the subject by conceiving it in the language of journalism, hoping that assiduous researchers will benefit themselves and reach to accurate definition to what is meant by linguistic pragmatics as important area of communication.
REFERENCES


Russell, B. 1905.”On Denoting Mind”.


