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Konstantin Preslavsky University of Shumen
Department of English Studies



STUDIES IN LINGUISTICS, CULTURE AND FLT

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“Viewpoints and Perspectives
in Discourse Studies”



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PREFACE

Issue five, “Viewpoints and perspectives in Discourse Studies” of *Studies in Linguistics, Culture, and FLT*, is comprised of articles in the broader field of media studies which focus on various aspects of the thematic field.

The issue opens with a paper by Romyana Todorova dealing with food advertisements and more specifically with the discrepancies in their multimodal presentation which can also lead to wrong guesses and assumptions, at the same time provoking the curiosity of potential customers.

Using a corpus of feature articles from the American press, Tatyana Karpilovitch studies the “the role of lexical and grammatical means of modality in realising intentionality of media discourse” (Karpilovitch, 2019, p. 20) and provides a two-step procedure which can be applied in order to establish the connection between the modal utterance and the intentionality implied in media materials.

Another paper dwells upon the American political discourse. Boryana Kostova conducts a small scale survey among university students in order to assess “the attitudes towards American values and the ability to recognize the persuasive and legitimization strategies” (Kostova, 2019, p. 31). The corpus comprises the political speeches of three American presidents (George Bush, Barack Obama, and Donald Trump) delivered on different occasions.

A look at the developments in Polish journalism is provided by Joanna Mikosz in her state-of-the-art review of Polish academic online journals and the characteristics of journalism genres as they appear in the analysed journals. The author reaches the conclusion that only certain genres, such as academic articles, reviews and reports appear on the pages of academic online journals.

Alesia Shevtsova contributes to the main theme of the issue by her diachronic analysis of the evolution of British newspaper headlines. Her focus is on their structure, stylistic composition and expressive means. The time frame used for the comparison is the end of nineteenth, the beginning of twentieth century and 2019. The main conclusion reached despite the multifarious nature of the headlines from the two analysed periods is “the increasing appealing role of modern headlines” (Shevtsova, 2019, p. 66).

The final academic paper in this issue is dedicated to metonymy and more specifically to source-in-target and target-in-source metonymy in articles on international affairs. Aleksandra Aleksandrova concludes that “Both types of metonymy are unidirectional, as the target concept activated by the source concept does not in its turn activate the source concept in the same text” (Aleksandrova, 2019, p. 77).

DISPARITIES IN THE MULTIMODAL REPRESENTATION OF INFORMATION IN ENGLISH AND BULGARIAN LANGUAGE FOOD ADVERTISEMENTS

Rumyana Todorova¹

Abstract: *The paper deals with various ways of presenting information in the verbal and the nonverbal components of British and Bulgarian food advertisements in a number of inconsistent and discrepant manifestations which provoke wrong guesses, hypotheses and presuppositions on part of text receivers and make them change the latter's own axis of orientation and direction of thought as the narrative develops. These manipulative techniques on part of advertising agents lead to interestingness and curiosity on behalf of potential consumers towards the plot and the story, which will inevitably bring about desired expectations.*

Key words: *disparities, inconsistencies, discrepancies, multimodality*

1. Introduction

As the world is getting more and more saturated and overflowed with all sorts of information presented in sensational and at times even fake ways, text producers are doing their best not only to grab people's attention but to keep it at least for a while by using tantalising and provocative techniques. As for advertising agents, they construct texts which have always been provocative enough for text receivers to consider them either positively or negatively. The idea is for the messages to play a leading role in shaping consumers' opinions and controlling their consciousness by directing their orientation from the 'what' (related to product or service) to the 'why' (related to the reason of availing ourselves of the offers) because what matters first and foremost is rather how the product/service makes us feel than how it satisfies our needs and demands.

2. Previous research in the field

The meaning of *disparity* as used in the paper has to do with 'incongruity', 'discrepancy' and 'inadequacy' rather than with the issue of 'inequality'. *Disparity* in the sense of 'inequality' has often been exploited in the field of advertising as regards gender differences and biases, which is not the aim of the

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present study. An example, closely related to the idea of disparity in the latter sense, can be the often discussed question of obesity epidemic, not directly mentioned in advertising discourse, but the end result as a consequence of various texts of this type is pretty obvious as it deals with food advertising which “serves as a prompt for automatic eating” (Cassady, Liaw & Miller, 2015). Disparity in this respect is sometimes oriented towards inequality based on racial and high- and low-income factors and refers mostly to outdoor advertising concerning unhealthy versus healthy food offers (Lesser, Zimmerman & Cohen, 2013). There is quite a lot of research in this field, e.g. on Coca-Cola and Macdonald’s promotions, to name but a few. Thus, for example, the author has conducted small-scale research on the expectation effects in Bulgarian advertising (Todorova, 2016) and on incongruity in advertising as a prerequisite for conflict, change or adaptation of schemas (Todorova, 2013). In ‘America (Real or Imagined) in Ads through the Eyes of the Beholder’, the author touches upon some differences between the advertised goods and the ways they are described, as is the case with Coca-Cola ads which bring about happiness and fun in people at the expense of healthy food and nutritious low-calorie products (Todorova, 2002). There is another study by McKenzie, Bugden and Webster (2018) related not to food promotion but to gender inequality and to women’s health in particular “Advertising (in)equality: the impacts of sexist advertising on women’s health and wellbeing”. The whole of December 2018 A Women’s Health Victoria Issues Paper is dedicated to women’s inequality. The interdependence between food and gender, however, is presented by Lerner (2016). This is just a small portion of the research conducted on disparity in advertising discourse.

In the present paper dealing with some food advertisements, *disparity* is related to some kind of disproportion or mismatch in the information in the verbal and the nonverbal component which is applied for the sake of achieving sensation and interestingness towards the object of attention.

3. Methods

The methods used for the analysis of the selected advertisements out of a larger corpus are Multimodal Critical Discourse Analysis (MCDA) and cognitive linguistics in the verbal and the nonverbal components of the ad narratives. While Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) deals mostly with explorations of verbal components and does not extend beyond that parameter, it still analyses and takes into account the social practices the text is constructed in (Fairclough, 1995; Huckin, 1997; Todorova, 2015). However, MCDA elaborates on issues presented in both components of any text, the advertising text being one of them, as the nonverbal component carries the information load to the greatest extent in a number of cases (Machin & Mayr, 2012; Royce & Bowcher, 2006).

As stated by Ledin and Machin (2018, p. 6), MCDA concerns “the contents, the canons of use and the social practices involved”, which comes to prove the fact that these two methods of analysis – CDA and MCDA – have a lot in common and in some cases they are hard to differentiate. As for the cognitive linguistics analysis, it is applied in connection with the metaphoric usages in the described samples. The combination of MCDA and cognitive linguistics is inevitable as the texts under investigation abound in various manifestations of rendering ad messages. In this respect, a useful and invaluable source is Charles Forceville’s study on pictorial and multimodal metaphor (Forceville, 2016), which serves as a point of orientation in the presented analysis.

4. Data Analysis

The current paper is part of a bigger study in which disparity is considered to be an issue of multimodal advertisements. The potential mappings of ideas related to the promoted goods are constructed on the basis of presenting various phenomena in different ways. In most cases, the resolution of the information in question relies heavily on resemblance and/ or similarity between the information in the verbal and in the nonverbal component which can be facilitated with the help of potential consumers’ background knowledge and their “cognitive flexibility” (Forceville, 2016). But in a great number of advertising texts, consumers’ range of expectations differs to a certain extent and it can either steer their interpretations towards the direction desired by advertising agents or constrain them for some reason, which can be caused by a complete lack of understanding of the message or misunderstanding. In this respect, text recipients should be willing to adapt or at times even modify their understanding of the world so that they could contextualise two seemingly different schemas on one and the same plane. Thus, according to Šorm and Steen “consumers use deviation from expectation” (Šorm & Steen, 2013, p. 3) and the “construal depends on the perceptiveness and/or the cognitive environment” of the consumers (Sperber & Wilson, 1995, p. 38).

Following this line of thought, we can support our statement with some quite provocative advertisements about *Kaufland* and *Billa* products first, in which, as can be expected, only positive connotations are mapped from source onto target.

In both cases, the message components contain very different properties which combined together make the best of every ad, thus reminding potential buyers that they need the advertised product to the greatest extent and that it is a well-known fact that “hunger is the best spice” according to a Chinese farmer’s proverb (2017, March 13). In the proverb, hunger is used in the literal sense, but

it can also refer to consumers' insatiable hunger for having more and more of everything. In the ads of both companies, the nonverbal components increase the desired brand perception as they can communicate complex meanings to consumers (DeRosia, 2008).

Thus, for example, the *Kaufland* messages chosen for the purposes of the study are oriented towards two completely different ideas, each of them creating new needs based on people's emotions, feelings, senses and instincts provoked either on a subconscious or intuitive level. In one of the batches, the mappings are one-domain as the semantic fields in both components are constructed around the notion of 'food'. The disparity, though, comes from the fact that even in the verbal component customers are presented as personae of a high social status, namely emperors, queens and princes. The tendency of advertising agents is to show target groups that brand personality is in unison with consumers' personality traits related to their self-esteem. By buying the advertised products people should feel like royalties. So, advertising often conveys values in a distorted and incongruous way; it does not create them, though. All this provides quasi-realistic motivation for the presence of the source (Forceville, 2016), which stimulates potential buyers to take action. What is more, text producers exploit the fact that human decisions are not based on rational thinking only, but in most cases emotions and feelings prevail and take the upper hand. We all know that "everybody likes a compliment", a fact that Abraham Lincoln had once also mentioned (Lincoln, n.d.). That is what advertising agents are constantly doing in one way or another, either directly/ explicitly or indirectly/ implicitly, by constantly tickling their target audiences.

Thus, if potential buyers feel flattered as in the following couple of *Kaufland* advertisements, customers would avail themselves of the goods offered. All texts are one and the same; yet they differ in their first statement which is actually what grabs text receivers' attention:

(1) Императорът желае щедро угощение²

С качественни продукти от Кауфланд

Хубава седмица

(The emperor would like a generous treat

with quality products from Kaufland

(Have a) Nice week)

(2) Кралицата очаква кралски пир

(The queen is looking forward to/ expecting a king's feast)

² Emphasis and translation: author's

(3) Принцът очаква царска трапеза

(The prince is looking forward to/ expecting a king's feast)

(In the nonverbal component of these ads the feasts with the respective characters in them are shown).

Though these are not repetitive experiences, they have to do with learned knowledge from fairy tales dating back to our childhood and that is already enough reason for us to feel flattered, as we as humans like to hear or see things that we are aware of more than once. There is actually no semblance between the royal people and ourselves at all but by buying the products offered we will be able to feel like VIPs at least for a while by pleasing ourselves with the respective dainties. However, the disparity brings about imaginary closeness between brand identity and personal identity which leads to identity-creating relationship between two phenomena from two different categories. It is an unprecedented fact that visual resources have a greater impact than the narrative they go with. If the analysed ads had depicted only the products, very few recipients would have paid any attention to them because the element of unpredictability and surprise would be missing.

As these ads are representatives of static discourses they would definitely rely on potential mappings in one glance. The same texts appear in the form of commercials where the role of the nonverbal communication (through pictures) is greater and apart from that there is sequentiality of the narrative which is time-based, so this version of virtual reality will be much more influential and powerful as for the unfolding of the story thus helping the co-referentiality of the first-glance disparity. In principle, as Pleše and Dlačić (2015, p. 50) state “the role of nonverbal communication is repeating, conflicting, replacing and highlighting or mitigating the verbal component”. In this particular case, the visual part “highlights” the information from the narrative. What matters more is that the “solving of the mystery” is postponed till later, thus increasing the in-born curiosity of every person irrespective of their age, occupation, interests, and so on and so forth. The shots seem to lack any logic thus increasing the ‘curiosity’. In them, various children dressed as princes and princesses express their desires for their favourite food and meals. Even if we start making predictions about what follows, we may not think out what the commercial refers to, though the caption on the Internet under the video clip is:

(4) Кауфланд | Свежест и качество за царска трапеза

(Kaufland | Freshness and quality for a king's feast)

The disparity is disambiguated towards the end of the commercial as the plot acquires completely different dimensions and brings us back to reality and to real-life situations related to everyday shopping (<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=bx43lL7mkfQ>).

The other couple of *Kaufland* ads (more specifically, billboards) are about family matters which is an issue having nothing to do with the products offered in *Kaufland* shops but quite topical in everyday communication. The two components are disparate enough but most probably it is done on purpose for the sake of triggering people's curiosity and from then on their imagination in the direction of unfolding the story, which will be different for every customer depending on their way of life and their family relations. In the first ad from this batch (5), a possible interpretation to account for the explicit disparity between the information presented in the verbal and in the nonverbal component (vegetables and fruit) can be that mothers should not worry about their daughter's unhappiness too much and what they can do is try to comfort them by providing the best food offered in *Kaufland* for them. The final sentence does not make any sense at all and has no obvious connection with the rest of the information. That, however, might be a good enough reason for text recipients to ponder on the whole message and interpret it in any way they like:

(5) Дъщеря ти е с разбито сърце. Отново.

Каквото и да стане.

(Your daughter is with a broken heart. Again.

Whatever happens.)

The next one (6), though, is a bit of a puzzle, difficult to solve. An idea in this respect can be that the daughter-in-law has already decided to prepare a meal which her mother-in-law will not eat because it contradicts her religious beliefs connected with fasting, but the hostess does not care much, even if her relations with her husband and his mother get worse:

(6) Свежърва ми ще идва на гости. Ама пости. Каквото и да стане.

(My mother-in-law is coming for a visit. But (she) is fasting.

Whatever happens.)

Disparity and deviation from familiar global knowledge cognitive patterns in one way or another makes it possible for the human mind to think of various reasons for this kind of presentation of the information. In the case of the following advertisements the cognitive models used for the construction of the message are completely different as regards their domains:

(7) - **Как си, скъпи приятелю, (How are you, my dear friend?)**

- **Не ме наричай повече СКЪП (, приятелко!³) (Don't call me DEAR (, my friend)**

3 In the brackets – another version of the same ad.

Защото цените се

СРАВНЯВАТ ВСЯКА

СЕДМИЦА с тези

на сравними продукти и се

АКТУАЛИЗИРАТ,

за да са винаги ниски.

(Because prices **ARE COMPARED EVERY WEEK** with those of comparable products and are **ACTUALISED** so that they can always be lower)

(брошура на Билла 10.01.-16.01.2019 г.) – в невербалния компонент – краве мляко УНТ, едното на *Clever*)

(Billa brochure Jan. 10-16 2019) – in the nonverbal component – 2 tetra pack boxes of УНТ cow milk, one of them is *Clever* brand)

(8) - Каква скука, скъпи мои. (Aren't you bored, my dear ones)

- Да, наистина, скъпа. (You're quite right, dear)

- Момичета, не ме наричайте повече „скъпа“. (Girls, don't call me 'dear' any longer)

- Защо? (Why?)

- Ами, нали, всички сме с ниски цени. Чао, чао. (Well, aren't we all with low prices. Ciao, ciao.)

- Тя си отиде в Билла. (Look, she went back to Billa)

- Там е толкова приятно. (It's so pleasant there)

Опитай яйца *Clever*, размер М (Try *Clever* eggs, size М – for medium)

(9) **Как си, скъпи приятелю, (How are you, my dear friend?)**

- **Не ме наричай повече СКЪПИ. (Don't call me DEAR any longer)**

- Извинявай, забравих, че днес всички сме с ниски цени. (Sorry, I forgot that today we are all with low prices)

- Да, и двамата сме евтини. (Yes, we are both cheap)

- Ей, ти пак ли към Билла? Там е толкова приятно. (Hey are you heading to Billa again? It's so pleasant there)

- До скоро. (See you soon)

Опитай краве сирене *Clever*./ кисело мляко *Clever*.. (Try *Clever* cow cheese../ *Clever* yoghurt..)

In (7) – (9) the cognitive models on the basis of which the stories are constructed are completely different as regards their domains: of prices – cheap/ low and expensive/ dear, and of people’s interrelations, which can be dear. So, text receivers are expected to match the disparities and find the intersecting points and the potential mappings as there is constant interaction between linguistic and conceptual knowledge.

In all of the above-mentioned ads there is first an explicit conflict or clash of two contexts (either in the verbal and in the nonverbal component or in one of them only), which is resolved at a later stage via lexical concepts facilitating different cognitive models. Text receivers are supposed to adapt the schemas they have constructed in their minds according to the unfolding of the story on the basis of existing cross-domain mappings and co-referentiality. The first reaction they have when coming across disparity is surprise and unexpectedness which cater to consumer desires.

There is another ad – this time about Snickers chocolate bars – which is also based on disparity as one cannot possibly expect to find spelling mistakes in an officially published text. At first sight addressees may not even notice them but they are explicitly stated and customers are even mentioned the reason why there are such ‘typing mistakes’ (when you’re hungry):

(10) OH DEER

ITS HARD TO SPEL

WHEN YOUR HUNGRY

IF YOU KEAP MAKING TYPING MISTAKES

GRAB YOURSELF A SNIKKERS FAST

SNIKKERS

VISIT OUR FACEBOOK PAGE IF YOUR NOT SHAKING TO MUTCH

<https://sites.google.com/site/melanieharley99/a>

(11) CHOCOLATE.

PEANUTS. VERO

CARAMEL.

CONSTRUCTIVE

CRITICISM.

SPARKY CRAY CRAY SPACE CADET

HUNGER BARS ARE BACK

(Snickers 1; <https://www.pinterest.com/pin/316237205080534619>)

In (11) the disparity within the verbal component is even greater. No matter what predictions you are trying to make you cannot decide why ‘CONSTRUCTIVE CRITICISM’ is used and in what way it is connected with the object of attention, let alone with its characteristic features.

In (12) disparity is related to a well-known phrase coined more than 2000 years ago. It has been exploited in a number of different ways with the help of allusions. Though the mediation between the original phrase and the newly coined ones is greater, the intertextual linking is easily recognisable and there would hardly be anyone not being able to identify it:

(12) I CAME.

I SAW.

I WAS CONQUERED.

‘I was conquered’ can well mean ‘I surrender’ (in this case to the unforgettable taste of Snickers chocolate bars).

In (13) the mismatch between the written information and the advertised product is based on two-domain mappings which can serve for increasing text receivers’ curiosity leading to the desired effect:

(13) IF YOU’RE

READING THIS

OUT LOUD

YOU’RE

PROBABLY

HUNGRY.

YOU’RE NOT YOU WHEN YOU’RE HUNGRY.

IF YOU’RE IN

LYCRA BUT DON’T

OWN A BIKE

YOU’RE

PROBABLY

HUNGRY.

YOU’RE NOT YOU WHEN YOU’RE HUNGRY. (Snickers 2)

Some of the other Snickers ads rely heavily on showing the impossible by presenting various personal transformations before and after having the Snickers chocolate bar in the nonverbal component, the last one from 2018 being with the world famous singer Elton John and the British Emar Rapper featuring (Snickers 3; (14)). All of them have the same slogan 'YOU'RE NOT YOU WHEN YOU'RE HUNGRY'. The commercials about Nestle Lion bars broadcast on Bulgarian TV are similar in a way, but in them humans turn into lions thus becoming braver and stronger at times in various situations when they have one of those bars, and the slogan is „Nestle Lion Зверски вкусен” (<https://www.vbox7.com/play:5f787525>; (15)). Two opposite ideas from two completely different domains are blended into one in sensational, extraordinary and unusual ways for the sake of grabbing text receivers' attention even more with the help of these unexpected linguistic means in the verbal component. What matters is that young people, mostly teenagers use this kind of contradictory ideas when they want to emphasise the degree of likeness and positive attitude towards the object of attention. In the respective context, the primarily negative emotional colouring acquires the features of something extremely good and exceptional, the literal meaning being 'devilishly/ beastly delicious', or in proper English 'extremely delicious'. Target audiences are quite predictable; what is more, the main 'hero' in the commercials is like them, so the overt disparity, we can even call it oxymoron in this case, will definitely flatter them perfectly well and advertising agents will get to the Unique Selling Feeling they are usually aiming at. In this case, the disparity is achieved due to the 'fusion' of elements from a number of various distinct and inconsistent mental spaces as is also the case with, for example, (11) and (13).

Such advertisements will definitely be easily remembered because of the mismatch between prior knowledge and expectations, on the one hand, and the presented situation, on the other, but they may not be easily deconstructed, if at all, which means that text receivers may not be able to come to a resolution of the 'problem' cause by the disparity in the message. The reason for all this can be that there is a lack of structural and semantic correspondence between the source and the target elements in the respective context, or that, if there is, it cannot possibly be identified.

The final result, however, will be increasing brand awareness based on disparity of information as well as creating favourable brand attitudes by maintaining and preserving social norms and heavily relying on identity relationship and in some cases, on transculturalism.

5. Conclusion

In general, advertising agents have some ideas expressed in the presentation of the promoted object of attention but as people are different and as they accept the world in a different way their interpretations of the reality or quasi reality against which the product is depicted will be different. However, what matters most is the fulfillment of the pleasure principle which triggers sensations, dreams and illusions while receiving information from advertisements loaded with plenty of distorted and dream-to-be realities which may eventually ‘come true’, if potential consumers buy the product or avail ourselves of the services offered. The disparity between the reality we live in and the created reality in advertising discourse is what does the trick in the manipulation of target audiences thus provoking human imagination and leading to the desired effect and result.

The one- and two-domain metaphoric mappings can serve as a sound and explanatory prerequisite for the success of these texts because the psychological effects can do the trick on the subconscious level and because people are curious enough to try and find the interrelations between two mutually exclusive factors presented in the multimodal mode of advertising discourse.

6. Implications

The implications for future research in this field can be to extend the analysis to a number of ads showing one and the same brand by different companies and use informants so that we study the way they decode the respective ads and use their imagination based on the multimodal representation of invented ‘real life’ stories and narratives while making their purchasing decisions. Another issue to be discussed can be to apply the Relevance Theory and see how it works in the deconstruction of advertising texts.

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MODALITY AND INTENTIONALITY OF MEDIA DISCOURSE

Tatiana Karpilovitch¹

Abstract: *The paper investigates the role of lexical and grammatical means of modality in realising intentionality of media discourse. The discourse category of intentionality is understood as the main communicative purpose of a discourse genre which determines its overall structure, the author's communicative strategies and the linguistic means for their representation. The research is based on material of problem feature articles excerpted from the American press. The paper focuses on the pragmatic analysis of language units expressing propositional modality (possibility, necessity) and illocutionary modality (imperatives and interrogatives) used in different structural parts of a problem feature article. The results demonstrate a different potential of modal utterances with these meanings to express the author's global intention – suggesting ways of solving the problem raised in the article. A special procedure has been worked out to prove the connection between the modal utterance and the intentionality of the media discourse genre under study.*

Keywords: *modality, intentionality, media discourse, discourse genre, problem feature articles.*

1. Introduction

Modern discourse studies focus on the pragmatic, social and cultural conditions of using language units in the processes of understanding and constructing discourses of different types and genres. In this respect, important are modus categories of discourse which disclose the attitude of the author and other communicants to the events, actions and opinions reflected in the discourse. Modality as a modus category is usually treated on an utterance level but it can be also regarded on a discourse level if we are to understand it as the main idea/ message of the discourse as a whole. This kind of modality is formed with the help of different language units, including lexical and grammatical means of modality, evaluative lexis, stylistic devices (metaphors, epithets, etc.). The message of the discourse is closely connected with its main topic and the author's intentions. To identify the author's message in discourse, it is necessary to reveal its intentionality and determine the means of its verbalisation in discourse. There are different classifications of modus categories but most linguists point out intentionality, subjectivity, evaluation, emotivity, and modality. In this paper, I will focus on intentionality and modality because these categories are

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closely connected: intentionality is the starting point of discourse generation, it is also a regulator of discourse development; modality realises the intentions of the author and other communicants in concrete utterances and on a discourse level.

2. Previous research in the field

In analysing the discourse categories of intentionality and modality I proceed from the view that intentionality is closely connected with the notion of goal setting, which is considered a preverbal phenomenon determining the global task of communication, which can be an informative message, description of events, persuasion to perform an action, etc. (Oleshkov, 2005). Important for the research is the assumption that on the basis of communicative intentions the author chooses strategies of verbal behaviour and generates discourse of this or that genre. It is necessary to define the notion of discourse genre because typical communicative purposes are usually associated with certain discourse genres. M. Bakhtin claimed that communication is impossible outside genres; he defined genres as “relatively stable thematic, compositional and stylistic types of utterances” (Bakhtin, 1979, pp. 241-242). Though some genres are rigidly standardised, others can be flexible in their formal and stylistic organisation.

At present, genres tend to be perceived by scholars not only as fixed formulas “but as sets of socially situated and variable conventions and expectations regarding textual forms” (Solin, 2011, p. 119). For the analysis of intentionality and its links with modality it is important to consider the approach to genre by John Swales who defines genres through their communicative purposes:

A genre comprises a class of communicative events, the members of which share some set of communicative purposes. These purposes are recognized by the expert members of the parent discourse community and thereby constitute the rationale for the genre. This rationale shapes the schematic structure of the discourse and influences and constrains choice of content and style. (Swales, 1990, p. 58)

The rationale of the genre also influences the choice of topic, content, structure and vocabulary. In this paper, I will investigate how the communicative purposes of the author of a discourse genre influences the choice of modal language units.

When treated on a sentence / utterance level modality is defined and classified in a different way by scholars. For instance, one of the definitions of modality runs as follows: it is the “manner in which the meaning of a clause is qualified so as to reflect the speaker’s judgment of the likelihood of the proposition it expresses being true” (Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech, & Svartvik, 1985, p. 219). Other linguists believe that modality expressed in an utterance is a category

which deals with “the status of the proposition” (Lyons, 1977; Palmer, 2001). F. Palmer defines modality as semantic information associated with the speaker’s attitude or opinion about what is said. In this paper, I will hold F. Palmer’s point of view and consider that modality shows whether a certain proposition is necessary, obligatory, possible, probable, volitional, etc. Hence the following types of modality are distinguished on the propositional level: necessity, possibility, certainty, supposition, volition, ability, etc. These meanings in the English language are expressed by modal verbs, modal adjectives, modal adverbs, modal nouns, intonation, etc.

Apart from the so-called propositional types of modality, some linguists (Paducheva, 1996) distinguish illocutionary modality associated with communicative types of utterances (declarative, imperative and interrogative), which are differentiated according to the communicative purpose of the utterance. Being different structural types of modality, the propositional and illocutionary modality are connected in their main meaning of conveying the attitude of the speaker to the information contained in the utterance. The realisation of these two types of modality will be analysed in this paper from the point of view of their relations to the global communicative purpose (intentionality) of the media discourse under study.

3. Research questions

For close consideration of modal meanings, which contribute to the realisation of intentionality of media discourse, I chose feature articles devoted to the discussion of topical problems in different spheres of life: politics, economy, culture, sports, lifestyle, etc. For the relevant discourse, I use the term *problem media discourse*; for the genre in question – *a problem feature article*. The articles chosen for the analysis were taken from the American newspapers: *The New York Times*, *The Wall Street Journal*, *The Seattle Times*, and *USA Today*. All of them were published in the time period 2009-2015. Fifty articles were selected for the analysis.

The paper aims to answer the following questions:

- 1) What types of modals are used in the initial parts (title, subtitle, lead) of a problem feature article to signal its intentionality?
- 2) How do different types of modality used in the main body of a problem feature article contribute to the realisation of its main communicative purpose?
- 3) What are the proofs that a modal utterance is connected with the main intention of the author of a problem feature article?
- 4) What is the specificity of the relations between intentionality and modality as they are expressed in the concluding part of a problem feature article?

4. Methods

While analysing the intentional structure of problem feature articles I follow T.A. van Dijk's point of view that "intentions can be studied in the same way as meanings: (a) introspection, (b) verbal accounts, (c) inferences from discourse" (Duranti, 2015, p. 155). Special attention is given to the analysis of contextual factors when revealing the links between modal utterances and the global communicative purpose of the discourse. Quantitative analysis is employed in identifying the frequency of modals of different types contributing to the realisation of intentionality of the discourse genre under study.

5. Data analysis

I will now discuss the relations between the discourse categories of intentionality and modality, i.e. under what conditions modal utterances can indicate the global intentions of the author of media discourse.

As it has been found in previous research, the main communicative goal (intention) of the author of a problem feature article is *to define ways of solving the problem* on the basis of considering the views of all the discourse participants, including representatives of the government, social, and private organisations, experts, individuals (Karpilovitch, 2017).

The paper focuses on some types of modal meanings and means of their verbalisation which contribute to the realisation of intentionality of problem feature articles: the meanings of possibility, necessity and illocutionary modality in the form of imperatives and interrogatives because declarative utterances without modals are unmarked for modality. The analysis of the chosen articles showed that the most frequent modals of possibility include the modal verbs *can* and *may*; modals of necessity – the modal verbs *must*, *should* and quasi-modals *need to*, *have to*. It was found that such means become especially prominent when used in the initial parts of the discourse. Though ways of solving the problem are usually considered after pointing out the essence and the causes of the problem, there is quite a number of articles (32 %) in the analysed corpus where the author's leading intention is realised in a title (see ex. 1), a subtitle (see ex. 2), or a lead (see ex. 3) with the help of modals showing the attitude of the author or other participants to the action / state as necessary, possible, or advisory.

(1) *Despite Isaac, GOP Vows Show **Must** Go on.* (USA Today. August 24, 2014)

(2) *The State is No. 2 in the country in terms of wind power – and its policies **may** be a model for other states, as well as for the feds.* ("The Answer Is Blowing in ... Iowa." *The Wall Street Journal*. October 19, 2009)

(3) *The Federal Reserve **should** wait until the first half of 2016 before raising interest rates because inflation remains too low ...* (“IMF to Fed: Hold off on Hike.” *USA Today*. June 5, 2015)

Utterances expressing illocutionary modality in the form of imperatives in most cases express advice to the communicants on how to behave in the problem situation depicted in the article (see ex. 4, 5):

(4) *If you Can Pull it off, **Buy a House**.* (*USA Today*. August 10, 2012)

(5) ***Build it with tax incentives** and Hollywood will come to Iowa.* (*The Wall Street Journal*. October 19, 2009)

Negative structures with the modal units under consideration are used in the titles for recommending the addressee not to undertake this or that action (see ex. 6, 7) and in such cases are intertwined with illocutionary modality of imperatives:

(6) *You **Don't Have to** Conform to Do Well at Work.* (*The Seattle Times*. July 20, 2014)

(7) *Taking Social Security Right away **May not** Be Best Move.* (*The Seattle Times*. July 20, 2014)

It should be noted that titles and subtitles containing modal units do not always concern ways of solving the problem. They can be used to verbalise other constituents of the semantic structure of a problem feature article, e.g., the causes (see ex. 8) or consequences of the problem (see ex. 9), which are made obvious by the predicate-argument structure of the utterances:

(8) *Experts: Social Media **Can Feed** Child-Harming Disorder.* (*The Seattle Times*. July 20, 2014)

(9) *It's official: Recession ended June 2009. But impact **may depend on** where you live.* (*USA Today*. September 21, 2010)

In the main body of the article, as the discourse unfolds, different ways of solving the discussed problem are suggested by the author of the article and other participants of communication. The language indicators of the latter are, in the first place, utterances with direct or indirect speech and indicators of the social status of the person whose opinion is given, for instance: *chief science adviser, council member, executive director, executive vice president of commercial and public affairs, general counsel for the National Retail Federation, a spokeswoman for the university, a port manager, the industry group's president, senior vice president of corporate development*, etc. These indicators are usually combined with verbs denoting a speech activity (*add, comment, confirm, note, say, tell, write*, etc.) or with an introductory prepositional phrase (*according to, in the opinion of*). Speaking of modal units, the statements can contain modals

of possibility (see ex. 10), which is a more frequent case (57 % of all opinion-making statements), or modals of necessity (see ex. 11):

(10) *For individuals, Hewlett says one of the key steps you **can take** on the tight-rope between conformity and authenticity is to decide what is negotiable and what is not. (“You Don’t Have to Conform to Do Well at Work.” *The Seattle Times*. July 20, 2014)*

(11) *“I think a governor **has to understand** that employers can outsource labor to other locations that are more competitive, just like U.S. companies go abroad,” Steve Gordon, president of Gordon Trucking, told me. (“How Next Governor Can Keep State Competitive.” *The Seattle Times*. October 14, 2012)*

It is necessary to prove that an utterance, containing modal verbs, is connected with the main intention of the author – *finding ways of solving the problem* discussed in the article. For this purpose, I suggest a two-step procedure: a) identify the propositional structure of the utterance/ clause containing a modal; b) establish a correlation between the utterance proposition and the intentionality of the article. In example (10) the modal predicate *can take* is connected with the subject *you* which shows that reference is made to the reader of the article. The attributive clause (*you can take ...*) modifies the noun *step*, which is a proof that the advice of the participant (Hewlett) concerns actions which, in her opinion, the addressee can undertake. The fact that this advice is connected with the author’s main intention can be confirmed by establishing links between the utterance analysed and the title of the article, which is also a piece of advice to the addressee (“You Don’t Have to Conform to Do Well at Work”). This analysis shows that there are recurrent words in the utterance and the title: the personal pronoun *you* and words with the same root: *conformity – conform*. So, we have proved that the utterance with the modal verb *can* (see ex. 10) contributes to the realisation of the main communicative purpose of the feature article expressed briefly by its title.

In cases when the title (subtitle or lead) does not clearly express the main communicative goal of the article it is necessary to analyse the context in order to prove the existence of a correlation between the modal utterance and intentionality of the discourse as a whole. This context can be broad or rather narrow like in the following example (see ex. 12) where the phrase “to reduce problems associated with undocumented residents” shows that the speaker’s opinion concerns ways of solving the problems discussed in the article:

(12) *But Mehlman, of the anti-illegal immigration activist group, said if Los Angeles wants **to reduce problems associated with undocumented residents** it **should** make life harder, not easier, for them, as states such as Arizona*

have done. ("L.A. Mayor Backs City Photo-ID Card." *The Seattle Times*. October 14, 2012)

Suggestions of the discourse participants on how to solve the problem can be addressed to the readers (see ex. 10), i.e. to the mass addressee but more often to the organisations or people who are responsible for a concrete sector of political, social or economic life (see ex. 13, 14):

(13) *The companies have to figure out how the different pieces of technology work together, from the high-tech plastic bags to the bio-engineered algae, Dow executives say.* ("Chemical Solution." *The Wall Street Journal*, October 19, 2009)

(14) *The new governor must work to keep our economic clusters competitive, but none is more important or problematic than aerospace and Boeing.* ("How Next Governor Can Keep State Competitive." *The Seattle Times*. October 14, 2012)

The opinion of the author of the article regarding ways to solve the problem is not often marked explicitly by personal (*I*) or possessive pronouns (*my*, *mine*) due to the objectivity principle of the press, though the use of modals clearly shows the attitude of the author of the article (see ex. 15). The inclusive plural pronoun *we* can be used to implement the strategy of solidarity with the addressee (see ex. 16):

(15) *Schools and youth groups should work to make young adults more aware of how to ace a personality test. But employers, particularly those hiring teens, should consider how much they rely on personality tests ...* ("Workplace Personality Tests Backfire on Youth." *USA Today*, June 5, 2015)

(16) *So, we should strive for authenticity, but do so in a way that blends who we are with what is required to succeed at work.* ("You Don't Have to Conform to Do Well at Work." *The Seattle Times*. July 20, 2014)

The author of the article often reasons on implementing different approaches to tackling the problem discussed in the article before he/she chooses one which is most appropriate or effective. For example, in the article written by the executive director of the Washington Higher Education Coordinating Board concerning possibilities for young citizens to continue their education after school the author at first considers the possibility for young people to focus on life experience as there is an example of Bill Gates and a handful of other individuals who succeeded without earning their degrees. But then he criticizes this approach giving arguments which are in accordance with the idea expressed in the title (see ex. 17):

(17) *Life experience **can** teach many valuable lessons, but it is most often a poor substitute for the knowledge, skills, discipline and employment opportunities gained through successful post-secondary education program.* (“No Substitute for Higher Education.” *The Seattle Times*. September 21, 2010)

As for the means of illocutionary modality, rhetorical questions represent an implicit means of expressing opinions on how to deal with the problem discussed. In example 18, the rhetorical question refers to the preceding context, asserting the idea of continuing the implementation of self-regulation, which is working very well:

(18) *“We have self-regulation. It’s working very well,” he says. **“Why don’t we give that a chance to succeed?”*** (Do not Track? Advertisers Say ‘Don’t Tread on Us.’ *The New York Times*. October 14, 2012)

But the majority of questions used in the analysed corpus of articles are intended for attracting the reader’s attention to the causes of the problem discussed (ex. 19) or marking a point in the author’s reasoning to find a way in order to solve the problem (ex. 20). In such cases questions are always supplied with answers given by the author:

(19) ***Why did the administration get it wrong?** It wasn’t exaggerated faith in the power of its stimulus plan; the report predicted a fairly rapid recovery even without stimulus.* (“GOP is Dead Wrong on the Economy.” *The Seattle Times*. October 14, 2012)

(20) *If spending money on health care does not make U.S. healthier, **what does?** There is one strong predictor of national health: income inequality. (“If There Were a Health Olympics, the U.S. Wouldn’t Even Medal.” *The Seattle Times*. August 8, 2012)*

Imperatives are typical of the articles which contain recommendations on how to succeed in a certain area (see ex. 21):

(21) *Keep Boeing happy. <...> Pay attention to business costs and headaches.* (“How Next Governor Can Keep State Competitive.” *The Seattle Times*. October 14, 2012)

A variety of possibilities that a decision of the problem opens up may be emphasized by repetition of the modal verb *can*, which is evident in the following example (see ex. 22):

(22) *Each time the investors make a trade, KaChing will automatically make the same trades for the customers. Customers **can** log on whenever they want to check their portfolio’s performance. They **can** send the investor private messages and receive alerts if the investor does something unusual. With the click of a mouse, customers **can** stop mirroring an investor.* (“Site Lets

Investors See and Copy Experts' Trades." *The New York Times*. October 19, 2009)

The concluding paragraph of a problem feature article often contains an explicit expression of a way / ways of solving the problem discussed (42 % of all the analysed articles). Most often it is the opinion of a discourse participant (not the author of the article), which is expressed by direct or indirect speech. It can be regarded as a compressed expression of the leading intention of the genre. Of all the modal verbs studied in this paper the most frequent are *should* and *need to* (see ex. 23, 24), which can be attributed to the deontic modality that these modals express, i.e. "prioritizing modality" (Portner, 2009, p. 135):

(23) *The National Reverse Mortgage Lenders Association shares consumers' concerns that all advertising **should** be accurate, said Peter Bell, the industry group's president* ("Reverse Mortgage Ads Shady, Feds Say." *USA Today*. June 5, 2015).

(24) *Before they embark on life experiences, many more of our younger citizens **need to engage** in rigorous study guided by experienced faculty in highly supportive learning environments. We **need to raise** our expectations for ourselves and our society, not lower them* ("No Substitute for Higher Education." *The Seattle Times*. September 21, 2010).

The concluding paragraph of a problem feature article can comprise an imperative sentence, which is a means of expressing illocutionary modality. For example, the article concerning a person's behavior at work ends with the advice of an expert (see ex. 25):

(25) ***"Don't compromise** your authenticity to such an extent that it puts your sole in play. It will make you miserable and will also backfire, because in the end gravitas rests centrally on your true identity"* ("You Don't Have to Conform to Do Well at Work." *The Seattle Times*. July 20, 2014).

6. Key findings

The discourse analysis of the categories of intentionality and modality has revealed their close connections in problem feature articles excerpted from American newspapers. Intentionality, which is understood as the main communicative goal of a discourse genre, in problem feature articles is *defining ways of solving the problem*. It has been found that this intention can be verbalised in the initial positions of a problem feature article: a headline, a subtitle or a lead with the markers of propositional modality (modal verbs of necessity and possibility) and imperatives as representatives of illocutionary modality. The links between intentionality and modality are further actualised in the process of discourse development and can be proved by determining a correlation of the

modal utterance and the main communicative purpose of the article on the basis of contextual analysis. To identify the existence of such a correlation, a special procedure has been worked out, which consists of two steps: a) determining the propositional structure of the modal utterance, b) establishing links between the proposition of the modal utterance and intentionality of the article as a whole. The second step should be accomplished by analysing contextual factors with priorities being given to the initial and concluding parts of the article, which often contain a compressed expression of its intentionality.

7. Conclusion and implications

The findings and generalisations from the present paper may contribute to:

- a better understanding of the intentional structure of other media genres;
- a more profound comprehension of the role of modal utterances in media discourse and their contribution to the realisation of its intentionality;
- an investigation of the role of other linguistic resources in realising the intentionality of media discourse;
- the use of the findings in teaching English as a foreign language, in particular, in the disciplines of discourse interpretation and stylistic analysis;
- developing computer algorithms of discourse summarisation and opinion mining.

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AMERICAN POLITICAL DISCOURSE: OUTSIDER PERCEPTIONS AND ATTITUDES

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Abstract: *American political discourse understood as political speeches delivered by American presidents reaches not only American citizens but the international community, i.e. numerous audiences from various cultures due to media coverage. The paper attempts to reveal the attitudes towards American values by studying the perceptions of American political discourse and the ability to recognize the persuasive and legitimation strategies. Drawing on the contemporary theoretical assumptions of political discourse, a small-scale survey was conducted among university students. The results of the survey will be used as a point of departure for the development of new specialized languages courses.*

Key words: *political discourse, political speeches, perceptions, attitudes*

1. Introduction

“In the USA today the poles are so upside down, people have become so unnormal [...]. It is due to political correctness and gender culture that all values are being destroyed.” (Dachkov, 2019) This opinion given by an outsider to American culture, a Bulgarian who participated in an Oscar-Winning movie, criticizes the trend towards anti-intellectualism in the American society. Indeed, it is not infrequent that popular culture and the media represent contemporary American life in such a way that creates negative impressions of it. Thus, it has become hard to recognize the West or the western values that were idealized in the past. However, there is another ‘window’ into the culture and the values of a nation. The text and talk associated with American institutions, especially when implemented by powerful political actors, can bring insights into the beliefs, assumptions, attitudes and images that shape American identity. As Austermühl (2014, pp. 8-9) points out, “beyond their political value, American presidential discourse primarily represents a cultural phenomenon. [...] Political discourse in general and presidential discourse in particular play significant roles in shaping American culture and American national identity.”

Political speeches delivered by American presidents aim to reach not only American citizens but the international community as well. As these speeches are covered and commented on by the media on a daily basis and are available as

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text and video online, they can reach numerous audiences from various cultures. Drawing on these assumptions, the paper attempts to reveal the attitudes of Bulgarian students about American values by studying their perceptions of American political discourse. One of the issues which arises is whether viewers from an outsider culture can recognize the persuasive and legitimation strategies as such or take them either for granted or as a fact. In order to investigate how these features and trends are perceived, a small-scale study was conducted. The study does not claim to be representative but rather to throw light on the current views of a small group of young people from Europe.

2. Previous research in the field

Defining the term “political discourse” is not a straightforward matter because it is a multifaceted and even fuzzy concept. It may refer to a type of discourse which is political production – both text and talk, or “conventional ways of talking that create and perpetuate systems of ideology, sets of beliefs about how the world works and what is natural” (Johnstone, 2008, p. 29). In our daily lives we are confronted with many genres of this type of political discourse: political speeches, debates, political interviews, policy documents, etc. These are official genres, designed for the public and demonstrating the many ways in which politicians like to present themselves and their work, and how they like to be perceived by their various audiences. On the other hand, the term could refer to any text or talk that is either about a political subject or which is politically motivated (Wilson, 2015b, p. 775). Any piece of extended talk or text produced by or for political actors can be considered political discourse as well as family talk about political events since the topic of talk is about political events or issues (Chilton, 2004, pp. 124-134; Wodak, 2012). Some linguists even argue that all language is inherently political, therefore almost all language use could be seen as “political discourse” (Joseph, 2006).

To overcome the burden of the complexities around the term “political discourse”, its meaning will be restricted to cover a contextualized language use by particular language users in particular political settings. So, I will be using the term “American political discourse” to refer to political speeches delivered by American presidents at different formal occasions. According to some researchers (Austermühl, 2014; Chilton, 2017; Kranert, 2018; Lakoff, 1996; Reyes, 2014) contemporary American political discourse is characterized by a number of salient features among which are the use of political myths, appeal to emotions by discursive construction of a sense of threat, metaphorical reasoning, and the interplay between formal and informal register.

One of the typical features of contemporary American political discourse is the employment of political myths. Political myths are understood as “narratives accepted as valid in its essentials by the group and can be

understood as ideologically marked narratives which are associated with the values, assumptions and goals of a specific ideology or identifiable family of ideologies” (Kranert, 2018, p. 887). Myths tell stories about what exists and why, and these stories are presented as divinely revealed or inspired by inevitable, superhuman causes. They are deeply embedded in human thinking, because in their cognitive development people are exposed to many different culturally specific narratives on which behavior is based. The function of political myths is to facilitate an emotional connection with the audience. This can be achieved because myths manage to link the political reality with the private experience of the participants and make the social differences irrelevant. Therefore, they are a preferred rhetorical tool used by politicians (ibid., pp. 888-889).

According to Austermühl’s analysis and overview of literature (2014, pp. 116-121) political myths or civil religious themes in American presidential discourse have a prominent position. Four main themes or topoi can be distinguished:

- *Destiny under God* refers to the notion of Americans’ exceptional status as a chosen people. The settlement of America is considered as the opening of a grand scheme and design in Providence for the illumination of the ignorant and the emancipation of the slavish part of mankind all over the world.
- *Exodus* is associated with the idea of an American Israel and the narrative of the nation’s exodus. The Revolution is seen as the final act of the Exodus from the old lands across the waters. The Declaration of Independence and the Constitution were sacred scriptures and Washington the divinely appointed Moses who led his people out of the lands of tyranny. In this view Europe is Egypt; America, the promised land. God has led his people to establish a new sort of social order that shall shed light into all nations.
- *Sacrifice* is the theme of death, sacrifice and rebirth, the new birth of freedom after the Civil War.
- *International example* stresses America’s position as an international role model, as the antiwar movement and the black movement of the 1960s were hoped to result in a viable and coherent world order.

There are four additional themes which are recurrent in contemporary presidential speeches:

- *America’s status as a global role model* promotes America as the ideal of democracy. America is represented as the first truly democratic country where democracy is based on institutions and the constitution and understood as the government by the people, especially the rule of the majority, government in which the supreme power is vested in the people and exercised by them directly or indirectly through a system of representation with periodically held free elections.

- *The confrontation between good and evil* is the depiction of global politics as a Manichean struggle between good and evil. This rhetorically casts the United States and her allies as forces of good and those who oppose them and the values they represent as evil.
- *Nation's prosperity* construes an image of America as the most prosperous nation.
- Kranert (2018) has observed another recurrent use of political myths, particularly allusions to a past golden age in politics. The term “golden age” is used to describe a period in history remembered for its prosperity and happiness. The Golden Age for the USA is considered the period of economic prosperity between the end of the WWII in 1945 to the early 1970s when the Bretton Woods monetary system collapsed. This period marked the achievement of high and sustainable economic growth, high levels of labour productivity growth together with low unemployment. It is this period that is supposedly needed to come back to in order to overcome current problems. The golden age myth is represented by re-derivations in English such as ‘re-’ meaning again; ‘re-’ meaning ‘back again’, ‘back to the original’, ‘back to the good old times’, part of the nostalgia rhetoric, for example *renewal*, *reconstruct*, *restore*, *rebuild* (ibid., pp. 891-894). It is most obvious in a slogan such as ‘Make America great again’ in Donald Trump’s campaign.

The references to political myths have three main functions: culture building, culture affirmation, and most importantly legitimation of political actions.

According to Chilton (2017), another typical feature of American political discourse is the activation of exclusionary concepts which trigger fear responses. This is achieved by the verbal representation of threat to self (e.g. Mexican illegal immigrants) and the verbal (self-) representation of individuals as capable of removing external threats (e.g. the President as a hero building a partition wall); the speaker is representing himself in the role of protector of the people, in a context evoking emotions of threat and fear when home territory is threatened by an enemy who is countered by a hero and savior. Chilton (ibid.) even argues that emotional responses can also be triggered through person deixis (personal pronouns *I*, *we*, *they*) and the usage and repetition of lexical items. The lexical items have recurrent meanings. The word *wall*, for example, is linked to cognitions of spatial separation. It is linked to the container schema. The word *prison* also depends on the container schema. These words stimulate mental representations of the Other. The prison keeps us safe by containing the other; border walls keep us safe from the other’s intrusion into our inside space. These basic bodily schemas are in play in word meaning. Due to their repeated use by the speaker in the same speech, they acquire persuasive power. That is

how emotions or pathos manage to override argumentation and evidence or logos.

American political discourse can be understood within a metaphorical framework. In Lakoff's view (1996), what differentiates Republicans from Democrats, or conservatives from progressives as they are referred to in his works, is not their ideological positions. Rather, they have a distinctive way of thinking and talking about politics that is based on two specific family-based moral systems. Morality, according to Lakoff, is understood to a large extent metaphorically and conceptualized in terms of a limited number of metaphors. What characterizes American political discourse is the link between family-based morality and politics. According to this way of thinking, a nation is conceptualized as a family, the government as a parent and the citizens as the children. Lakoff (*ibid.*) distinguishes two basic family models: the Strict Father (SF) model, characterizing conservative morality, and the Nurturant parent (NP) model, which is typical of the progressive morality. Both models are idealized cognitive models, similar to frames, which are structures that enable the organization of knowledge.

The SF model revolves round the notion of discipline. The major assumption is that 'people are inherently bad, life is difficult, and the world is fundamentally dangerous' (Lakoff, 1996, pp. 4-19), so there is a need for a strong and strict father to make children good. Lakoff (*ibid.*) defines cognitive metaphors used by Republicans which reflect conservative moral values and revolve around strength, self-interest and self-reliance. He (*ibid.*) also provides a list of typical conservative terms and phrases, which include over 30 words among which are the following: *character, virtue, discipline, strong, self-reliance, individual responsibility*. Lakoff (*ibid.*) claims that the different SF moral metaphors find expression in actual conservative policies. For example, when the metaphor of moral order is applied to American foreign policy, we can notice how Republicans speak of America as being on top of all other nations as the world's moral authority and the leader to be followed and admired.

The Nurturant parent metaphor, on the other hand, is connected to a family model which gives priority to nurturance over discipline, where nurturance is understood as empathy and responsibility towards other people. The expressions that Lakoff (*ibid.*, pp. 20-31) finds indicative of progressive talk include: *social responsibility, free expression, human rights, equal rights, concern, care, help, and health*, among others. When NP moral metaphor is applied to politics, progressive American politicians talk about how America should protect its people from external threats by building and maintaining strong diplomatic alliances and pursuing wise foreign and domestic policy, and that America's leading role in the world will be strengthened by helping people around the world to have a better life. In line with this reasoning, America is represented

by Democrats as having the moral obligation and moral duty to help those who are weaker and less prosperous both internally and externally.

Another typical feature of contemporary American political discourse is the interplay between formality and informality which is used to convey a political message. Reyes (2014) traces it at the level of lexical choices and marked register usages, the textual organization of the speeches in terms of their structure and predictability, intertextuality, and non-verbal communication, especially the relationship of laughter with formality. The function of formality is to establish the ethos of the speaker, to show authority and command of the subject but results in distancing from the public. Informality, on the other hand, is responsible for the pathos of the speech, or the speaker's emotional connection with the audience, by placing the detail of the message at a secondary level. Pathos is extremely important for politicians today because information is shared most effectively at the emotional level. The emotional connection with the audience is reached by "displaying solidarity at different levels, for example by speaking like them, using cultural images shared by a social class, or narrating personal experiences that touch and move the audience, provoking sympathy" (Reyes, 2014, p. 543). Sometimes a speech resembles a pseudo-conversation with the audience, while the speaker resembles an entertainer. This colloquial manner makes a speech less predictable and creates a sense of authenticity (Montgomery, 2017).

3. Research Questions

In order to study the perceptions of Bulgarian students of American political discourse a small-scale survey was conducted. It is based on a questionnaire which aims to gather personal, subjective views on how political text and talk is perceived and whether this influences the attitudes towards America. The ten open-end questions have been devised in line with the contemporary assumptions of American political discourse. The following questions have been developed:

- Which political myths associated with American society are dominant today?
- How is America represented in public text and talk?
- In what role are American politicians representing themselves?
- In what role is the American politician representing other countries?
- What kind of emotions are American politicians evoking?
- Do you think it is OK when American politicians use informal language in formal situations?
- Do Bulgarian/native politicians structure their arguments in a similar way?

- What is your attitude towards such argumentation/ way of speaking by politicians?
- Which values of American society do you favor most/least?
- Would you like to visit, study or work in the USA? Why?

4. Methods

The paper focuses on American political discourse as represented in presidential speeches and aims to explore the way it is perceived by representatives of an outside culture. Therefore, the methods of analysis employed are Content and Critical Discourse Analysis. The corpus of answers given to the questions in the questionnaire was analyzed and the examples were extracted manually.

5. Data Analysis

A total of 25 Bulgarian and international students have been used as informants. They include 10 second and fourth year students of International Relations, 6 first year students of Psychology, 7 students of English and American Studies², and 2 Erasmus students of Political Sciences from Italy and Poland. Only three of them have visited the USA. Before giving their responses the students were asked to read excerpts from five speeches and to watch the full version of the speeches. The purpose of this preliminary task was to focus the attention of the students but not to limit their answers to cover only the speeches in the list. The speeches, given by three American presidents at different occasions and in front of different audiences, included George Bush's Remarks to Military Personnel and Their Families at Fort Benning, Georgia given on January 11, 2007; Barack Obama's first inaugural address given on January 20, 2009; Donald Trump's *Gettysburg speech* given during his election campaign on October 22, 2016; Donald Trump's inaugural address given on January 20, 2017; and Donald Trump's Remarks to the United Nations General Assembly in New York City given on September 19, 2017 (Woolley & Peters, 2010).

6. Results/ Key findings

The first question triggered various responses. According to 60% of the informants *Ideal of democracy* is a dominant political myth associated with American society today. Some of the responses in this group provide specific reasons on which the ranking is based: [1] "The USA is the first country which introduced the constitution for society. They have the oldest constitution in the

2. Special thanks to Prof. Dr. Romyana Todorova for conducting the survey among her students at Shumen University, Department of English Studies.

world and the other countries copied this idea”; [2] “Everyone in the USA is equal before the law despite the fact that the nation is formed from different cultures”; [3] “Americans think they are the best in the political field. They have the awareness that their democracy is an example for the other countries. That is why they are active in many parts of the world to bring democracy. However, democracy is a great regime only for the USA”. Other political myths include America as *Example for other nations* (for 56% of the informants), *Beacon or torch which shows the way* (for 40% of the informants) and America as a *Land of opportunities* (for 48% of the informants), *American dream* (for 40% of the informants) because [4] “America has unlimited capacity. With hard work and honest work everyone can achieve great success”; [5] “America gives more opportunities than other countries to study and live better”. The myths that the informants find less dominant are America as a *City upon a hill* (for 28% of the informants) and *Promised land* (for 20% of the informants). The myth that is hardly associated with America is the *Golden age* myth (for only 8% of the informants).

The findings of the study show that the most recognizable political myth associated with America according to the respondents is the *Ideal of democracy*. It is more popular than *American dream* or *Land of opportunities*. One explanation for this finding can be that the word *democracy* is recurrently exploited in political text and talk as a central notion in the contemporary world and is charged with a highly positive semantic prosody. It must be noted here that the biggest sub-group of the respondents is formed by the twelve students of International Relations who are conscious of the fact that democracy stands for institutions established by a constitution. The fact that America has the first written constitution that is used as a model is valued highly by the respondents. The least recognizable are the civil religious myths *Promised land*, *City upon a hill* and *Beacon/torch which shows the way*. This may be explained by the lack of familiarity with the cultural history of the USA. Despite the fact that the *Golden age* myth is well exploited by populist politicians both in America and throughout Europe, only two of the respondents noticed its presence.

The following answers were given to the second question. According to 56% of the respondents America is represented in public text and talk as a global leader, a model, a prime example of how a country should behave, has the appearance the rest of the world has to accept, flawless, a hero of the world and feels obliged to defend the world, a righteous arbiter. 40% of the respondents have noticed that America is represented as a great nation, the most prosperous and powerful nation on Earth. 36% of the respondents have come across representations of America as a country that has lost its way and everyone is getting advantage of that but its strength, wealth and greatness can be recovered. 28% of the students find America represented both as a country of democracy, based on equality and the rule of people and a friend to other nations because it [6] “seeks friendship

and goodwill with the nations of the world”; [7] “is capable of working in a team”; [8] “is ready to support and defend other nations and allies”; [9] “is ready to cooperate with other states as long as American people can benefit”. America is seen as a land of opportunities, freedom, happiness, equal rights, hope, dreams and aspirations which come true by 20% of the respondents. Another 12% of the respondents have noticed that America is shown as a nation based on values, such as family values, and respects the legacy of its values. Only 4% of the respondents have seen representations of America as a country that will chase its national interest over all.

More than half of the respondents have the impression that America is depicted in political text and talk as a global leader who is flawless to the extent of being a hero. Seeing America as a righteous arbiter and a model positions it as a Strict Father to other nations. About 40% of the respondents have noticed representations of America as the most prosperous and powerful nation of which the other countries are taking advantage. Less than 30% of the students have pointed out that America is shown as a friend to other nations, but ready for cooperation only if this is mutually beneficial.

The third question produced the following responses. American politicians represent themselves in the role of a close friend (according to 80% of the respondents), protector of the people (76%), savior/ messiah (56%), servant to the people (for 56% of the respondents), preacher and hero (for 44% of the respondents), nurturing parent (40%), strict father/ leader of the most powerful country who dictates the way to the world (28%). The students commented that [10] “American politicians represent themselves differently. The role they choose to identify with depends on the situation and the political purpose”; [11] “American politicians would consider to take action in world politics needed or not. They make sure they would work for a better world but they wouldn’t forget about America”.

The findings have proved that the respondents understand that self-representation depends on the situation, the audience, and the political purpose. They noticed that there are two roles of American politicians that are almost equally dominant despite being at the opposite sides of the spectrum. These are the self-representations as a close friend and protector of the people. Self-representations as savior and messiah, are well recognized as synonymous and are perceived as equally important. Interestingly, self-representations as servant to the people are perceived as frequently employed as that of savior and messiah. Self-representations formulated as *Nurturant parent* and *Strict father* are less recognizable as students might not be familiar with the broad range of metaphors used in International Relations.

The respondents gave the following answers to the fourth question. They recognized the role in which the American politicians represent the other

countries as allies (64%) and useful friends (48%) because [12] “American goals are more important than those of the other countries”; [13] “America puts its interest above all”; [14] “If friends do not satisfy requests, they become enemies”. 44% of the students have come across representations of other countries either as dangerous criminals, thieves and murderers, who create chaos and terror and pose threat to the whole world or as enemies (32%) and villains (24%). Only 4% of the respondents have seen the idea of other countries as helpless, incapable of surviving without the support of the USA.

Students commented that American politicians judge the other countries on the basis of their political convictions and actions. They insist that other countries change their policy and believe that those countries which are friends to America must follow America in its fight against the wrong positions. The respondents perceive the Other-representations as positive rather than negative. Students have the impression that other countries are more often represented as allies and friends who are useful for America to reach its goals than enemies and dangerous criminals who pose threat to the whole world. There are two interesting responses which lie somewhere in the middle of the spectrum according to which other countries are perceived as victims – they are either helpless and cannot survive without the help of the USA or will be used in some or other by the USA.

The answers to the fifth question reveal the respondents’ perceptions of the emotions politicians evoke in their speeches. These can be divided into positive emotions such as peace and security (for 64% of the respondents), intimacy (for 32%), happiness from being proud (for 32%), compassion (for 12%), gratefulness to people who fight for America (for 4%) and negative emotions which include fear (for 60%), threat (for 36%), anger (for 8%), contempt (4%), insecurity (for 4%). The students are well aware that politicians use complicated rhetoric and psychological tactics when they want to win the audience. Still they feel that positive emotions of peace and security, intimacy and happiness of being proud outweigh the negative emotions of fear and threat that are evoked in public discourse. What they are concerned about is that [14] “one of the main actors on the world stage can make such controversial speeches. This is worrying”.

The sixth question triggered the following responses. Most of the respondents (84%) perceive the use of informal language in formal situations as something very natural on condition that the situation allows it. They are aware of two important aspects of informality. First, informality may be an effective ice-breaking strategy, appealing to pathos, constructing solidarity, building trust as [15] “The message is conveyed more easily to the audience”; [16] “When politicians sound close and friendly, they can reach the heart of people and win their trust and respect”; [17] “It motivates people think more positively, leading to a better results”. Second, politicians can sound authentic rather than

speakers who have learnt their lines by heart, they [18] “show that they are themselves, reveal themselves to the audience”. Only a small number, one fifth of the respondents perceive the use of colloquial language in formal speeches as risky or disrespectful because [19] “formal political speeches should rely predominantly on clear argumentation”.

Responding to the seventh question, the students gave examples of how Bulgarian/native politicians structure their arguments similarly to American politicians. According to the respondents this represents strategic use of language as [20] “In order to achieve their goals Bulgarian politicians use tools and strategies similar to the ones used by American politicians”. These strategies include delegitimation of the political opponent, negative Other-representation, self-representations as heroes, better than their political opponents, empty and unjustified arguments instead of real ones, use of political myths, especially the myth of the messiah and the myth of the bright future, and use of informal language.

The respondents’ attitude towards the argumentation/ way of speaking by politicians has been expressed as a response to the eighth question. More than half of the respondents (61%) feel that the argumentation used currently by political leaders both native and foreign can be misleading even to people who study Political Sciences and who are familiar with political matters because [21] “The same political clichés are used by different politicians”; [22] “Politicians always come with loud promises, hopes and wishes for change”; [23] “Politicians tend to exaggerate during election campaigns”. Only 38% perceive this type of argumentation in a positive rather than negative light as [24] “Combining formal and informal style can win more respect when a politician presents him/herself as a harsh leader with a soft side”.

The ninth question asked about the values of American society which students favor most or least. Despite the way in which American politicians talk about America and other countries and the respondents’ perceptions of American political discourse, about two thirds of the respondents (72%) have a positive attitude towards America and Americans. The values of American society that are appreciated can form three broad groups. The first group of values focus on the rules that exist at every level of society, both institutional and interpersonal. This group includes such values as democracy, the constitution, the rule of law, fair play: [25] “There are rules for everybody and people respect each other”; [26] “American society is based on equality and individual freedom to express your opinion therefore Americans always have opinion about everything”. The second group of values towards which the respondents have a positive attitude concern the Americans: their work life, their attitude towards themselves and their country: [27] “American people are hardworking and achievement oriented”; [28] “Americans are filled with self-confidence and self-

determination, have motivation for development and progress”; [29] “American people are polite, kind, supportive, always want to help you and appreciate what you do”. The third group of values refers to American leaders and American standard of living: [30] “American leaders’ first interest is America and they will do everything to recover the country, will not work with other countries unless they give something in return”; [31] “President Obama and his rhetoric”; [32] “How President Bush switches from formal to informal style”. Only less than one third of the respondents (27%) express criticism. The critical attitude is directed not towards American values, but rather towards American political text and talk and American foreign policy: [33] “I agree with American values and in part with American positions. It’s true that America is a powerful and prosperous nation. But now America and all the western civilization discuss the issues of democracy, human rights and freedoms only as a way to achieve their goals”; [34] “America is often represented as a leader to other countries. However, America has its defects, for instance, racism. Therefore I can’t understand how this country can be the right example for others. In America people can buy guns freely. How can American politicians promise their people to make America safe again when even citizens with mental problems can own a gun and use it. I don’t agree that all countries should repeat such actions”; [35] “I don’t like it when the USA defines itself as the best nation on earth. Patriotism is very important but it mustn’t become drastic. I don’t like the over-patriotic and patronizing tone used in political text and talk”.

The tenth question asked the students for the reasons behind their motivation to gain insight and embodied experience of the USA. Two thirds of the respondents would like to visit, study or work in the USA. This reflects their positive attitude to the country which is viewed as amazing as [36] “It’s a beautiful country with stunning sights, skyscrapers and cities”; [37] “It’s different from Europe and gives you a different point of view”, to the Americans who are different but in a positive way because [38] “American people are polite, kind, supportive and appreciate the work you do”, to intercultural encounters which are part of International Relations studies and [39] “it is a unique experience to get to know American culture better”. Some of the students wish to continue their studies in the USA because of the prestige they can achieve as [40] “Every employer will hire a person with a diploma from the USA”. However, most of them would like to participate in short-term work and travel programs because [41] “There are a lot of jobs and lower taxes”.

One of the students is more ambitious wishing to work for an international organization based in the USA. Only one third of the respondents have a critical attitude. They are either not interested in visiting the USA or think that unlike Europe, American society has many problems and they wouldn’t fit in there because [42] “It is not a country where I could build a family”; [43] “The tuition fees are very expensive unless you get a scholarship”; [44] “I’ve never been

attracted to the lifestyle of the USA. American society is too complicated, there are many problems and there's too much difference between the wealthy and the poor. This is probably due to the big competition that exists in all aspects of society". There is only one respondent who expresses a straightforward negative attitude towards America: [45] "Visiting America had been a dream of mine while I was growing up. I had pictured it as a paradise land, land of opportunities and riches. Recently I have changed my mind. In my opinion, you can make your dreams come true wherever you are as long as you're working hard and never give up. Now I prefer living in Europe. Europe is my safe place even if the recent events show otherwise. I would like to make my mark in Europe and to be successful in Europe".

7. Conclusion

The findings of the survey show that students, those studying International Relations and Psychology in particular, are very realistic about how politicians use language for persuasion. They are able to recognize the strategies of legitimation of certain policies or of a candidate during election campaigns – employment of political myths, self- and Other-representations and informality. They noticed that there is a similarity between how American and Bulgarian politicians use these strategies although in their view Bulgarian politicians are much more modest in this respect. Unlike some researchers of political discourse (Chilton, 2017; Wodak, 2017), who are concerned about the scarcity of real arguments, populist appeals to emotions, the activation of exclusionary concepts, the respondents do not find the strategic use of language as a dangerous socio-political behavior. They may not like the over patriotic tone of the political speeches or the return to the idea of self-interest and self-help in contemporary international relations, but they do not find it problematic. Despite how the political text and talk is realized and how the media recontextualizes it, the respondents have preserved their positive attitude towards the core values of the American society, i.e. respect for rules, the individual and hard work. On the other hand, they do not see themselves as part of American society or as potential political or economic emigrants. For the most part, the respondents wish to be visitors and gain intercultural and/or work experience.

8. Implications

The findings of the survey have important implications for pedagogical intervention. The respondents of the study are young people who need to develop more insight into political text and talk. The study showed that they have little familiarity with the political myths arising from American civil religion. Also, the respondents do not realize the seriousness of the fact that

political discourse and American political discourse in particular has more functions than argumentative legitimation or delegitimation. Because of being in the focus of all media, it does not only represent reality, but it construes reality, projects social identities and asserts models of behavior.

The way political myths are used as ideologically marked narratives and how language is used for persuasion and legitimation are not included in the courses of political science or international relations. The place of such topics is within specialized language courses devoted to language, culture and civilization. This can broaden the agenda of university foreign language courses to focus not only on teaching and learning language for international communication in terms of the four communicative skills. The teaching materials should be designed around the rhetorical strategies of public communication and develop knowledge of the broader socio-political context and the specifics of the genres of public communication, an understanding of the audience, practice of the skills for comprehension and production of texts which belong to certain dominant genres. Such an approach can result in deeper understanding of the hidden mechanisms of political discourse and possibly to critical attitude to political text and talk.

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POLISH ACADEMIC ONLINE JOURNALS CONNECTED WITH JOURNALISM AND MEDIA. THE CHARACTERISTICS OF JOURNALISM GENRES.

Joanna Mikosz¹

Abstract: *The article presents academic Polish online journals which focus on media and journalism. In the first part, the author discusses the history of Polish academic publications and the profiles of chosen journals. The second part of the article describes the characteristics of journalism genres as they appear in journals.*

Key words: *Polish online journals, Polish academic journals*

1. Introduction

The beginning of the academic press in Poland dates back to the 19th century. The weakness of national science at the time, with only a small circle of people involved in it, meant that academic journals were not of a very high level, nor did they have original content. The poverty of intellectual life and the lack of universities meant that in the first decade after the November Uprising of 1883², the tendency to only celebrate the achievements of the leading centres of academic life abroad, mainly in Germany, France and England, prevailed in national journalism. Over the years, the situation improved, and academic journals began to be revived, with more and more native works being published in them. This breakthrough was already visible in the mid-1830's both in the Kingdom of Poland and in the borderlands, and could be seen clearly on the pages of certain journals e.g. *Wizerunki i Roztrząsania Naukowych* (*Academic Images and Debate*), *Muzeum Domowe* (*Home Museum*), *Pamiętnika Sztuk Pięknych* (*Diary of Fine Arts*), *Atheneum* as well as the *Przegląd Naukowy* (*Academic Review*) (Łojek, 1976, p. 181). These trends deepened further with the easing of political repression and general development of journalism in the 1840s. This was followed by the stimulation of cultural life in the country, and some (though to a limited extent) academic institutions were also restored. Moreover, an interesting initiative, going beyond the university structures, was

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2. The November Uprising in Poland (1930-1931).

the creation of an academic society by members of the editorial staff of the *Biblioteka Warszawska* (Warsaw Library) in 1859.

As Jerzy Łojek stresses: “the negative feature of academic journalism was its one-sidedness. Journals were mainly devoted to social and theoretical sciences, as well as humanities sections in general-interest magazines” (Łojek, 1976, p. 181).

It is also worth presenting the findings of Danuta Hombek, who claims that: the proper development of academic journals began with *Polnische Bibliothek* (Polish Library), edited in Gdansk in 1718-1719 by Gotfryd Lengnich – a historian who was also the author of most of the printed texts (Hombek, 2016, p. 66). The periodical was supposed to “provide reliable academic information, making a critical review of false, legendary opinions about our past and reveal the historical truth” (Hombek, 2016, p. 66). In his publications, the author was sceptical about medieval historiography.

Toruń was the second centre of academic publishing, according to the researcher. In the first half of the eighteenth century, Jerzy Piotr Schulz began to publish the journal *Das Gelehrte Preussen* (The Prussian Scholar) (1722-1725). The editor collaborated with many authors, professors from schools in Toruń, as well as Elbląg, Gdańsk and Królewiec. The journal provided varied information on academic life (Hombek, 2016, p. 66). In Toruń, the *Pressische Todes-Temple* (The Todes-Temple Press) (1728-1730), edited by Jerzy Piotr Schulz, was also published. The periodical was historical (Hombek, 2016, p. 67).

The third publishing centre was Warsaw. In the years 1753-1755, on the initiative of Mitzer de Kolof, a journal dealing with nature and medicine titled *Warschauer Bibliothek* (Warsaw Library) was published, and in the years 1755-1763 *Acta Litteraria Regni Poloniae et Magni Ducatus Lithuaniae* (Literary Act of the Polish Crown and the Grand Duchy of Lithuania) was also published there (Hombek, 2016, p. 68).

In the 1850s, there were journals devoted to academic issues, and even such specializing in specific fields of knowledge, as, for instance: *Bibliografia Krajowa* (National Bibliography) from 1856 (Łojek, 1976, p. 182). It is worth adding that in the period under discussion, alongside academic articles, popular science publications were printed. However, the academic and popular science functions of this period overlapped, which was “a reflection of the weakness of the journals of the first decade after the November Uprising” (Łojek 1976, p. 182).

Up to 1905, an important role in organizing and inspiring academic research was played by monthly journals of an encyclopaedic nature: *Biblioteka Warszawska* (Warsaw Library) (1841-1915), *Atheneum* (1876-1901) and *Przegląd Filmowy* (Film Review) (1896-1949). In these periodicals, not only mathematicians

and naturalists, but also doctors and economists published their works. *Wisła (Vistula)* (1887-1916), a geographical and economic periodical, and *Przegląd Pedagogiczny (Pedagogical Works)* (1885-1939) also had an influence on the development of academic life in the period. Part of the pedagogical body until 1882 was *Przegląd Pedagogiczny (Pedagogical Review)* (Łojek, 1976, p. 103). As Jerzy Łojek emphasizes the natural sciences were developed thanks to positivist propaganda. The titles include: *Przyroda i Przemysł (Nature and Industry)* (1872-1881), *Gazeta Lekarska (Medical Gazette)* (1866-1939), *Kronika Dentystyczna (Dental Chronicle)* (1908-1939) and *Neurologia Polska (Polish Neurology)* (1910-1917) (Łojek, 1976, p. 104).

The researcher emphasizes that “it was a time of rapid development in comparison with the years preceding this period” (Łojek, 1976, p. 302). Academic journals - in terms of the number of titles published – were the largest group of periodicals next to general-interest periodicals (Łojek, 1976, p. 302). The confirmation of this hypothesis is statistical data revealing that in 1926, 216 academic journals were issued, in 1930 - 284, and in 1935 - 400 (Łojek, 1976, p. 302).

However, journals representing the social sciences had a dominant position, while mathematics and natural sciences were poorly represented (Łojek, 1976, p. 303). Until the end of the 1920s, publishing activities were conducted by higher education institutions, academic societies and academic institutes, not directly related to the didactic work of academic schools.

After the outbreak of World War II, the underground press emerged in Poland. The press at that time “lost its character solely as a tool of information and apolitical struggle against the enemy, turning to the ideological and political upbringing of society and clearly taking on the characteristics of a political press” (Myśliński, Władyka, 1988, p. 149). The secret press also had socio-cultural, educational or even professional functions, allowing survival of the period of war without the functioning of the institutions of an independent state. Examples include: *Sztuka i Naród (Art and Nation)* (1942-1944), *Przełom (Breakthrough)* (1942-1943), *Miesięcznik Literacki (Literary Monthly)* (1942-1943) or *Kultura Polska (Polish Culture)* (1943).

1945-1952 were the organizational/publishing years when the pre-war academic journals were re-established. During this period, new titles were also set up, in accordance with the then requirements resulting from the political-constitutional transformations. At that time, the tenets of Marxist philosophy and science were popularized, which was evident, for example, in the journal *Nowe Drogi (New Paths)* (1946-1948) (Maślanka, 1976, p. 49). According to statistics in 1973, 1417 academic journals were published in Poland. They were devoted to engineering, technology, industry, construction, medicine, economic sciences, as well as history and literary studies. The publishers included: the Polish Academy of Sciences and its individual institutions, colleges, specialized

academic societies, departmental institutes of the Polish Academic Publishers, the Ossoliński/ Ossolineum State Publishing House (Maślanka, 1976, p. 49).

In the 1990s, Poland moved away from state media which was subject to state control. Starting from 1989, the Polish media market changed drastically, which marked the largest and most extensive changes in the entire 20th century. The changes in Poland after the political transformation included the collapse of communism and the opening of the borders with Western European countries. New legal regulations concerning the publishing press were passed in 1990 and they included: the abolition of censorship and liquidation of the Central Office for the Control of Press, Publications and Cultural Events. The previous licence-based press system was transformed into a registration-based one and thus the only condition for the publishing of a newspaper became the court registration of the title, which accelerated the establishment of new papers whose existence depended on the market only. Besides, under a parliamentary resolution, the communist concern RSW – Prasa-Książka-Ruch (Press-Book-Movement) was dissolved, which meant the end of the state monopoly in the field of distribution and, consequently, all the papers published by RSW were sold to companies owned by Polish and foreign publishing houses. In 1992, the Law of Broadcasting was passed³. Subsequently, other laws adjusting Polish law European Union law were enacted. In 1997, the new Polish Constitution was introduced. According to it, the freedom of the press and other media in Poland was guaranteed. Censorship and licensing of the press was prohibited, yet licensing of broadcasting was accepted. Press titles had only to be registered in court.⁴

3. The Broadcasting Act made possible the launch of private, commercial radio and television stations.

4. Political transformation brought a lot of new rules to the Press Market. We can point out the following changes:

- Polish press, for the first time since 1945, was able to fully develop and express different points of view and opinions as well as provide information that was previously left unspoken (such as social protests);
- previous “underground” papers (like for example: the Roman–Catholic Church press) as well as the papers published abroad began to be published officially (for example: *Kultura* (Culture));
- Poland also started to be an attractive investment destination for foreign companies from many countries like: France, Germany, Italy or Scandinavia. We can indicate for example such companies as: Orkla Media, Passauer Neue Press or Jurg Marquard;
- in Poland there also appeared Polish press companies like *Agora*, which was established in 1989 by Andrzej Wajda, Aleksander Paszyński and Zbigniew Bujak;
- the number of newspapers and magazines increased by almost half, from 3,007 in 1990, to 4,340 in 1995. By 2001, there were already 5,837 press titles - nationwide and local ones (Filas, 1999, p. 112);
- in the Press Market there appeared new newspapers – one of the most important was

After the political transformation, thanks to the invasion of large western press and publishing groups, many new press titles were created in Poland. As Zbigniew Bajka explains: “after the collapse of the communist system, 800 titles from the academic and popular-science press emerged in Poland” (Bajka, 2012, p. 187). Among them were periodicals appearing irregularly, as well as quarterlies and yearlies (Jarowiecki, 1995, p. 184).

The political changes in the country, and hence the transformations in the press market, coincided with the IT revolution. The Internet has become not only a source of information, a communication tool, but also a platform on which it publishes, among other things, the electronic press. The transfer of journalistic

Gazeta Wyborcza (Electoral Gazette) – the first totally independent newspaper in post-communist Poland” (Oniszczyk, 2010, p. 197);

- the cultural changes led to the rise of the commercial mass press (for example: Super Express) based on tabloids: as well as sensational and erotic magazines addressed to the reader who expects rather unrefined entertainment;

- the transformation also led to the vulgarization of the media and brutalization of the language (the weekly Nie (No) published by Jerzy Urban);

- the political changes after 1989 also brought changes to the situation of social-cultural magazines in Poland. Titles connected with the previous system no longer exist; there appeared many new titles (most of them influenced by the process of commercialization). In this group we can distinguish film, theatre, art, photography and music magazines like: Machina (Machine) Film, Wiadomości Kulturalne (Cultural News) or Notatnik Teatralny (Theatrical News) (Fiut, 2000, p. 64-66);

- on the other hand, elegantly illustrated magazines were published (for example: Twój Styl (Your Style) magazine for women), addressed to wealthier people;

- magazines for young people which were edited before 1989 *Płomyk* (Glimmer) began to lose popularity. Their place was taken by colourful magazines edited abroad like *Popcorn* or *Dziewczyna* (Girl) which did not have any educational or didactic value;

- besides, there appeared a number of magazines connected with new parties and political groups, for example: *Gazeta Polska* (Polish Gazette) (centre-right circles). The catholic press, such as *Niedziela* (Sunday) (Częstochowa); or *Gość Niedzielny* (Sunday Guest) (Katowice) also won substantial readership;

- specialized titles like *Komputer Świat* (Computer World), *Dom i Wnętrze* (Home and Interior), *Magazyn Budowlany* (Building Magazine) also started to be printed (Fiut, 2000, p. 66);

- the abolishment of state monopoly along with the privatization after 1989 led to the creation of a politically diversified press market. The law of supply and demand began to work there, which resulted in competitiveness. This, in turn, made the publishers adapt to the tastes and expectations of the readers. The content and graphic formula of papers got more attractive as well. The computerization of editorial offices after 1990 led to new technologies and made possible the editing of newspapers and magazines in accordance with the highest European standards;

- diversity in terms of subjects, typography and political allegiances leads to publisher competitiveness in terms of: modern layouts, advertising becoming the main source of income, special interest supplements like, for example *Budownictwo* (Building) or *Motoryzacja* (Motorization) added to *Dziennik Łódzki* (Łódź Daily).

forms to the communication space of cyberspace can be considered in a variety of ways. The costs of publishing journals on the web are lower than the printed versions. The advantages also include lower prices or free access and the speed of publishing texts. In addition, it is possible to link to other websites on the Internet while reading, adapt the font to the individual needs of the reader and combine in one message content transmitted by text, images (photos, videos) or audio. Undoubtedly, the technological factors influence the variety of forms: “The net creates the possibility of combining all traditional media together: the recipient decides which channel of contact with the content he will choose” (Bauer, 2015, p. 82).

We can divide the online press into two groups: journals that only exist in electronic form⁵ and journals that appear online in identical version to paper journals (Pisarek, 2006, p. 155).

2. Previous research in the field

Academic journals are special-issue journals and general-interest magazines for disseminating knowledge to a wide audience, in colloquial terms - magazines popularizing knowledge (Maślanka, 1976, p. 50). Their aim is to disseminate the original results of academic research. They are issued by academic institutions and are intended for the academic community. Julian Maślanka adds: “they play an important role in the process of integrating the circles of people professionally connected with science. They are characterized by a large range of regularity and a consistent graphic layout, format, arrangement of internal sections, volumes of individual issues (numbers, volumes)” (Maślanka, 1976, p. 47).

Academic journals have been and are being analyzed by researchers. Among the studies on the history of the Polish press, in which we can include academic journals, we can point out : *Prasa polska 1661-1864 (Polish press 1661-1864)* (Łojek, 1976), *Prasa polska 1864-1918 (Polish press 1864-1918)* (Łojek, 1976), *Prasa polska 1918-1939 (Polish press 1918-1939)* (Łojek, 1980), *Prasa polska 1939-1945 (Polish Press 1939-1945)* (Łojek, 1980), *Dzieje prasy polskiej do 1795 (History of the Polish press until 1795)* (Hombek, 2016), *Dzieje prasy polskiej (History of the Polish press)* (Łojek, Myśliński, W. Władysław, 1988) and *Encyklopedia wiedzy o prasie (Encyclopedia of knowledge about the press)* (Maślanka, 1976). In addition, we can include: *Transformacja prasy polskiej w latach 1989-1994 (Transformation of the Polish press 1989-1994)* (Jarowiecki,

5. It should be added that the oldest Polish academic journal (peer-reviewed) has been published continuously since 2001. and is called *Kultura i Historia (Culture and History)* published by the Maria Curie-Skłodowska University of Lublin. Retrieved from (<http://www.kulturaihistoria.umcs.lublin.pl/czasopismo>).

1995), as well as *Rynek mediów w Polsce (Dziennikarstwo i świat mediów, 2012)* (*the Media Market in Poland (Journalism and the Media World, 2012)*).

It should be emphasized that there has been no academic publication so far that has presented journalistic genres appearing in the pages of Polish academic journals in electronic or printed version related to journalism and media science. The above studies are therefore pioneering. Very useful for research into journalistic genres appearing in the pages of academic journals available on the Internet are the following studies: *Gatunki prasowe (Press genres)* (Wojtak, 2004), *Analiza gatunków prasowych. Zręby teorii i elementy dydaktyki (Analysis of press genres. Foundations of theory and elements of didactics)* (Wojtak, 2006), *Gatunki dziennikarskie w Sieci. Co się zmieniło i jak bardzo (E-gatunki. Dziennikarz w nowej przestrzeni edukacyjnej, 2015)* (*Journalistic genres on the Net. What has changed and how much (E-genre: Journalist in the new educational space, 2015)*), and also *O artykule naukowym słów kilka (A few words about the academic article)* (Wolańska, 2008).

3. Research Questions

The aim of the undertaken research was to determine what journalistic genres appear on the pages of Polish academic journals available on the Internet, where the subject is journalism and the media. The query confirms the hypothesis put forward by Julian Maślanka that: “in academic journals there are the following journalistic genres: articles and dissertations, reviews, chronicles, polemics and reports (*Encyklopedia wiedzy o prasie, (Encyclopedia of knowledge about the press)* 1976, p. 50). However, not all of the listed genres can be found in the analysed editions of academic publications found on the Internet. This is due to the fact that only the current issues from the most recent editions of the periodicals were examined. The rich exemplification of a given journalistic genre stems from the issues to which a specific edition of the journal was devoted.

4. Methods

Among the many methods and research techniques used during the writing of this article - due to the way in which the topic is constructed. The historical method was used - which we owe primarily to the possibility of chronological and thematic ordering, embedding analysis of its activities and determining the status in specific historical circumstances and the accompanying social, political, economic and cultural conditions. The fundamental method used in the description and characteristics of the academic press appearing in cyberspace is the analysis of its content, which amounts to identifying the subject, method and form of the message. A self-constructed categorization key was used for the research. It contains categories referring to the content and form of the message.

Apart from the thematic threads that appeared in the selected magazines, journalistic genres were also researched. The following were used as units of measurement: a sign (to study the subject) and a statement (to study the genre).

5. Data Analysis

Among the Polish academic journals dealing with media and journalism, one can distinguish journals that appear only in the printed version, those both printed and available online, and those issued only in cyberspace. However, it should be added that the academic journal is a press title, therefore it must operate in accordance with the provisions of the Act of 26 January 1984. Press law (Journal of Laws 1984, No. 5, item 24, as amended) and the Regulation of the Minister of Justice from 9 July 1990 on the register of newspapers and magazines (Journal of Laws of 1990, No. 46, item 275), which means that:

- it was registered in the district court competent for the publisher's registered office, and thus entered in the register of newspapers and magazines;
- the journal data submitted to the register of journals and magazines is current: title, name of the publisher, seat and address of the editor and publisher, details of the editor-in-chief, frequency of publishing;
- it has a permanent title;
- it appears at specified intervals, not more often than once a week and at least once a year;
- each issue contains the date and designation of the ISSN number⁶.
- according to data presented by the Ministry of Science and Higher Education, academic journals are divided into the following groups:

6. The academic journal has an ISSN number, and the publisher operates in accordance with the Act of 7 November 1996 on obligatory library copies (Journal of Laws of 1996, No. 152, item 722) and the Regulation of the Minister of Culture and Art of March 6, 1997. on the list of libraries entitled to receive obligatory copies of particular types of publications and the rules and procedure for their transmission (Journal of Laws 1997, No. 29, item 161), which means that: 1. The journal has an ISSN number assigned to each journal carrier (e.g. print version, online). 2. The Publisher regularly provides the eligible libraries (indicated in the Act and Regulation) with obligatory copies immediately after their publication: the National Library up to 5 days from publication, and the remaining eligible libraries up to 14 days from publication. 3. In the case of an electronic journal, the publisher submits a file with a new issue of the journal to the Digital Library Repository up to 5 days from publication. ISSN - The basic identifier, which should be taken care of by the publisher of the journal, is the International Standard Serial Number, or ISSN. <https://www.rpo.gov.pl/sites/default/files/Wyst%C4%85pienie%20do%20Ministra%20Nauki%20i%20Szkolnictwa%20Wy%C5%Bcszego%20ws.%20czasopism%20naukowych.pdf> (2019, April 20).

- academic journals with impact factor (IF)⁷, located in the journal citation reports database (JCR) along with the number of points awarded for academic publications in these journals. There are 11737 titles in this group⁸.
- academic journals without an impact factor (IF) factor along with the number of credits awarded for academic publications in these journals. There are 2209 titles in this group⁹;
- in the European reference index for the humanities (ERIH) database, along with the number of points awarded for academic publications in these journals. According to the data, there are 4197 titles¹⁰.

A source of information on academic journals is also ARIANTA, a database of academic and professional Polish e-journals¹¹. The number of academic journals registered in the database is 3080¹².

Among the titles of journals publishing academic content related to journalism and media studies are: *Acta Universitatis Lodziensis. Folia Litteraria Polonica* – the journal is a quarterly (articles are also available in online version) published since 1998 by the University of Lodz Publisher. The periodical presents results from two research areas – in addition to issues related to literary studies, it also publishes content related to journalism and media science¹³;

- *Acta Universitatis Wratislaviensis. Journalism and Media* – the journal has been published since 2010 in its printed version, and since 2011 also in electronic form. The periodical comes from the University of Wroclaw and is being developed by the Institute of Journalism and Social Communication.

7. The Impact Factor identifies the frequency with which an average article from a journal is cited in a particular year. You can use this number to evaluate or compare a journal's relative importance to others in the same field or see how frequently articles are cited to determine which journals may be better for your collection (<http://impactfactor.pl/>).

8. Retrieved from (http://www.bip.nauka.gov.pl/g2/oryginal/2017_01/1ec97396461f9c95e4af247a813246bf.pdf) (2019, April 22).

9. Retrieved from (http://www.bip.nauka.gov.pl/g2/oryginal/2017_01/c29e70c65b118a894482fc9eea33f35c.pdf) (2019, April 20).

10. Retrieved from (http://www.bip.nauka.gov.pl/g2/oryginal/2017_01/0e2788d2d4b19e1a754b0daf96ce7be7.pdf) (2019, April 20).

11. The database is available at the following address <http://arianta.pl/>.

12. Retrieved from (arianta.pl) (2019, April 22).

13. Retrieved from (<https://wydawnictwo.uni.lodz.pl/redakcje-czasopism/acta-universitatis-lodziensis-fovia-litteraria-polonica/>).

The annual publication concerns broadly understood social communication, communication research, media and their social and cultural functions¹⁴;

- *Cognitive Science - New Media - Education* – this is a bi-annual (also in the online version), and it has been published in English since 2016. It is being developed in Toruń by scholars associated with the Nicolaus Copernicus University. The journal presents the latest researches and theoretical reflections on the cognitive aspects of Media Pedagogy and the use of new media in widely understood education, daily life, culture, art, education therapy and speech therapy, among others areas¹⁵;
- *Comm.press* – is an electronic quarterly journal edited by the Institute of Journalism, Media and Social Communication of the Jagiellonian University. The periodical appeared in 2018 and is a bi-monthly journal. - *Comm.press* publishes articles in the fields of media science, communication science as well as interdisciplinary articles¹⁶;
- *Dziennikarstwo i Media (Journalism and Media)* – a journal issued since 2011, is published by the Institute of Journalism and Social Communication of the University of Wrocław. Articles are also available in pdf version. The annual refers to broadly understood social communication, communication research, media and their social and cultural functions¹⁷;
- *Fides, Ratio et Patria. Studia Toruńskie* – a half-yearly magazine, published in Toruń since 2014 by the College of Social and Media Culture. The periodical appears only in the printed version. The editorial team invites scholars from such fields as history, economics, political science, sociology, theology, philosophy, media studies, cultural studies, social communication and literary studies and IT¹⁸;
- *Global Media Journal. Edycja polska (Global Media Journal. Polish edition)* The magazine has been published since 2006 by Collegium Civitas in Warsaw. This is the Polish version of the media journal Global Media Journal (GMJ), published in the USA by Purdue University. The magazine is available online. Research areas are: media, social communication and public relations. The last available issue is from 2015¹⁹;

14. Retrieved from (<http://dzm.wuwr.pl/>).

15. Retrieved from (<http://apcz.umk.pl/czasopisma/index.php/CSNME/index>).

16. Retrieved from (<https://compress.edu.pl>).

17. Retrieved from (<http://dzm.sjol.eu/catalog/-16>).

18. Retrieved from (<http://wsksim.edu.pl/fides-ratio-et-patria-studia-torunskie/>).

19. Retrieved from (<http://www.globalmediajournal.collegium.edu.pl/od-redaktora.htm>).

- *Kultura Media Teologia (Culture Media Theology)* – it is an academic quarterly available only in an online version. The periodical is published by the Institute of Media Education and Journalism of the Cardinal Stefan Wyszyński University in Warsaw. The editors publish texts in the fields of media studies, journalism and social communication²⁰;
- *Kwartalnik Nauk o Mediach (Academic Quarterly Media)* – is a periodical, which appeared only in the online version from 2015. The publication was suspended on March 1, 2018. The quarterly was published by the University of Cardinal Stanisław Wyszyński at the Faculty of Theology in the Institute of Media Education and Journalism. Research areas were: media studies, journalism, social communication²¹;
- *Media-Kultura-Komunikacja Społeczna (Media-Culture-Social Communication)* – the journal has been published since 2005. It is a quarterly (also available in an online version) published at the University of Warmia and Mazury in Olsztyn. The journal is edited by the Institute of Journalism and Social Communication. The profile of the journal assumes the study of the media spectrum and methodological diversity²²;
- *Media i Medioznawstwo (Media and Media Studies)* – this is a quarterly journal that was issued in 2011-2014. It was edited by Wydawnictwo Naukowe Scriptorium (Scriptorium Academic Publishers) in Opole. The periodical was available only in paper form. It focused on the media and media studies in general sense²³;
- *Media i Społeczeństwo (Media and Society)* – a journal (annual) which has been published since 2011 on behalf of the University of Technology and Humanities in Bielsko-Biała. The areas touched upon in the publications includes: communication, semiology, media sociology and media pedagogy²⁴;
- *Media, Biznes, Kultura (Media, Business, Culture)* – a half-yearly, published since 2016 at the University of Gdańsk. It is edited by the Institute of Philosophy, Sociology and Journalism. The research areas are: media studies, communication, semiotics and media sociology²⁵;

20. Retrieved from (<https://kmt.uksw.edu.pl/>).

21. Retrieved from (<http://knm.uksw.edu.pl/>).

22. Retrieved from (<http://uwm.edu.pl/mkks/>).

23. Retrieved from (<http://www.scriptorium.net.pl/?sekcja=produkty&opcja=kategoria&id=17>).

24. Retrieved from (<http://www.mediaispoleczenstwo.ath.bielsko.pl/>).

25. Retrieved from (<http://www.ejournals.eu/MBK/>).

- *Mediatization Studies* – is a half-yearly journal, published in English by the Maria Curie-Skłodowska University from 2017. It focuses on media science and media communication²⁶;
- *Nowy Przegląd Dziennikarski (New Journalism Review)* is a quarterly magazine, edited since 2012 by the Association of Journalistic Studies in Rzeszów. The research area is broadly understood journalism²⁷;
- *Nowe Media (New Media)* – is a yearly journal issued since 2010 on behalf of the Nicolaus Copernicus University of Toruń. It is prepared by the Department of Journalism and Social Communication, and published by the Institute of Journalism and Social Communication of the University of Wrocław. The editors deal with research on social communication, journalism, sociology and political science. The last issue of the magazine in a digital version was released in 2014²⁸;
- *Replay. The Polish Journal of Game Studies* – an annual, which has been published in English since 2014 at the University of Lodz. The editorial sections include culture, sociology and philosophy²⁹;
- *Studia Medioznawcze (Media Studies)* is a quarterly journal of the Faculty of Journalism, Information and Bibliology of the University of Warsaw, focusing on broadly understood media studies, which was set up in 2000 at the Institute of Journalism at the Faculty of Journalism and Political Sciences of the University of Warsaw. The texts are published and made available on the quarterly's website³⁰.

It should be emphasized that only current journals have been selected for the needs of the following publication. Among them are periodicals appearing both in printed and electronic versions and such available only on the web. The analyzed numbers come from the latest (available in digital version) editions of academic periodicals. These include: *Acta Universitatis Lodzianensis. Folia Litteraria Polonica* (the date analysed is from 2018), *Acta Universitatis Wratislaviensis. Journalism and Media* (analyzed numbers come from 2017), *Cognitive Science - New Media - Education* (from 2016), *Comm.press* (from 2018), *Journalism and Media* (from 2017), *Culture Media Theology* (from 2019), *Media-Culture-Social Communication* (from 2018), *Media and Society* (analyzed numbers from 2018 year), *Media, Business, Culture* (research

26. Retrieved from (<https://journals.umcs.pl/ms>).

27. Retrieved from (<http://www.naukowy-przeglad-dziennikarski.org/>).

28. Retrieved from (<http://www.nowemedia.umk.pl/>).

29. Retrieved from (<http://www.replay.uni.lodz.pl/about.html>).

30. Retrieved from (<http://studiamedioznawcze.pl/>).

numbers come from 2018), *Mediatization Studies* (from 2018), *New Journalism Review* (from 2018), *Replay. The Polish Journal of Game Studies* (from 2016) and *Media Studies* (from 2018).

6. Results/Key Findings. Discussion of Finding

The analysis of the selected issues of the academic journals available on the Internet indicates that only selected journalistic genres appear in their pages. Among them we can distinguish: academic articles, reviews and reports. There are neither polemics³¹ nor chronicles³² in the examined issues.

6.1. Academic articles

Among the communication genres belonging to academic discourse, the academic article occupies a particularly privileged place. It is the most popular genre appearing in the pages of academic journalism. It is considered an elementary means of communication between scientists around the world. It serves the consolidation and dissemination of new and original knowledge obtained as a result of the conducted research. When talking about the structure of an academic article, one should distinguish its paratextual elements, i.e. subsidiary texts, which include: title, author's details (name and surname, academic title, affiliate academic institution, contact details, personal note/academic biography), keywords, abstract, summary, index of names and footnotes. Abstracts and key words should most often be recalled in English or another common language indicated by the editors. Each academic article is accompanied by a bibliography of academic papers that served in the presentation of the current state of knowledge or were cited in the text. While observing

31. A polemic is an intertextual statement, constituting a critical reaction to the opinion of another author. Polemics allows the presenting of positions, the pointing out of points of disagreement, the confronting of views, sometimes showing the rightness of some of them, thus influencing public opinion and inspiring recipients to independent thinking (Słownik terminologii medialnej (Dictionary of media terminology), 2006, p. 151). It can be persuasive and it usually uses eristic techniques, which distinguishes it from the voice of factual discussion. Polemics is also a way of conducting a dispute, in which participants are not so much partners, intending to determine the situation and work out a consistent position, but rather rivals, seeking to convince others of their reasons and demonstrate the skill of verbal fencing. The order of referenced arguments usually results from the logic of reasoning presented in the inspirational text, however the author uses it to show his own way of seeing the problem and he does not limit himself to undermining the opponent's arguments.

32. The chronicle is one of the informational journalistic genres, containing chronologically ordered information on a given issue. It can be independent journalistic material or a separate supplement to journalistic material (Słownik terminologii medialnej (Dictionary of media terminology), 2006, p. 107). The academic journals in the chronicle contain information on academic events.

copyrights and respecting the intellectual property of other researchers, it is necessary to clearly distinguish segments of the author's own statements from cited segments (the statements of others).

The Act on Copyright and Related Rights states that it is permissible to cite in works constituting an intrinsic whole, extracts of disseminated works or small works in their entirety within the scope justified by an explanation, critical analysis, teaching or the law of the genre of creativity (Wolański, 2008, p. 198).

In the academic article we deal with “communication characterized by elitism” (Wojtak 2015, p. 65), that is, the article is addressed to specific recipients. They are bound by a community of knowledge and interests captured by Maria Wojtak in the formula “their talk to their own, enthusiasts communicate with enthusiasts” (Wojtak, 2015, p. 65). There is common knowledge between the sender of the article and its recipients, which allows the use of specialist terms and concepts to facilitate free movement within one discipline. Each branch of science has developed its own conceptual instruments, and their use serves the precise and economical communication between scientists.

It should be added that the main function of the academic article is to inform. Taking into account the theory of speech acts, the academic article is an act of assertion, or declaration. The intention of the sender is to build a text that coherently transmits intellectual material.

When writing an academic article, one should constantly keep in mind the potential recipient and use such words and sentence constructs that will reliably convey one's thoughts and intentions. Correct and efficient communication, free from language errors and complying with accepted standards, is of no less importance than knowledge and interests connecting the sender and the recipient. An understandable and interesting academic article gives an opportunity to engage the recipient and start a discussion.

Academic articles are a permanent element of all selected academic journals. Examples include: *Motywy podróży w reportażu radiowym (Travel themes in radio reports)* by Joanna Bachura-Wojtasik, Kinga Sygizman (*Acta Universitatis Lodziensis. Folia Litteraria Polonica*, 2018, No. 5, pp. 11-29); *Reprezentacja zawarta w odbiciu (Representation contained in reflection)* by Jerzy Olek (*Acta Universitatis Wratislaviensis Journalism and Media*, 2017, No. 8, pp. 17-28); and *The dictatorship of democracy or democratic dictatorship in the new media* by Sabahudin Hadzialić (*Cognitive Science - New Media - Education*, 2016, No. 1, pp. 11-25). In addition, *Personalizacja internetu – zagrożenia czy naturalny proces rozwoju sieci? (Personalization of the Internet – a threat or the natural process of network development?)* by Monika Jabłońska (*Comm. press*, 2018, No. 1, pp. 56-71); *Dyskursywny obraz miłości w tekstach disco polo*

z lat 2014-2016 (*A discursive picture of love in disco polo texts from 2014-2016*) by Jakub Łączniak (*Journalism and Media*, 2017, No. 8, pp. 79-100); as well as *Analiza zjawiskowa katolickiej blogosfery w Polsce w kontekście jej rozwoju profesjonalizmu* (*Analysis of the phenomenon of the Catholic blogosphere in Poland in the context of its professional development*) by Karolina Padlewska (*Culture Media Theology*, 2019, No. 1 (36), pp. 30-49) and *O krótkich formach internetowych zachęcających do kliknięcia* (*Short internet forms as clickbait*) by Izabela Ławecka (*Media-Culture-Social Communication*, 2018, No. 14, pp. 51-62). Other examples include: *Dialog obywatelski w Krakowie. Reprezentacje medialne aktorów dialogu obywatelskiego* (*Public dialogue in Krakow. Media representation of actors in public dialogue*) Joanna Grzenik (*Media and Society*, 2018, vol. 9, pp. 21-32); *Wieczorne serwisy informacyjne a kształtowanie opinii* (*Evening information services and the shaping of opinion*) by Klaudia Kamieniarz (*Media, Business, Culture*, 2018, No. 2 (5), pp. 11-23). In addition, there are: *The present in mediatization studies* by Łukasz Wojtkowski (*Mediatization Studies*, 2017, No. 1, 2017, pp. 9-22) and *Dialog, monolog, interakcja? Portal społecznościowy jako kanał komunikowania online samorządu gminnego. Studium przypadku miasta Kielce* (*Dialog, monologue, interaction? A social networking site as an online communication channel for the municipal government. A case study of the city of Kielce*), Krzysztof Kowalik (*New Journalism Review*, 2018, No. 1, pp. 7-25). The academic article is an inseparable element of the two remaining research journals: David Chircop's *An Experiential Comparative Tool for Board Games* (*Replay, The Polish Journal of Game Studies*, 2016, No. 1 (3), pp. 11-28), as well as *Komunikowanie społeczne i media – federacja, a nie inkorporacja* (*Social Communication and media - federation, not incorporation*) by Marek Jabłonowski and Tomasz Mielczarek (*Media Studies*, 2018, No. 4 (5), pp. 13-30).

6.2. Reviews

An academic review is a review of an academic work (dissertation, book, publication in an academic journal), which aims to evaluate the academic content of this work. It is written by a scientist specializing in a given field of knowledge. It is an evaluative and informational text, characterized by the topicality of the theme and the clear subjectivity of opinion. The aim of the review is also to send the recipient postulates – “for” or “against”, so it should be the starting point of the conversation about the academic publication. The reader who accesses the review expects information about what the work is about, help in understanding it and clearly formulated assessments (Worsowicz, 2006, p. 52).

The vocabulary of the review is characterized by the high frequency or at least the definite presence of words and judgments evaluating, evaluating and expressing (*Encyklopedia wiedzy o prasie [Encyclopedia of knowledge about the press]*, 1976, p. 209).

The task of the review is to eliminate publications that put forward theses that are not covered in the description of the conducted experiments or collected historical data. The reviewing of academic papers is aimed at ensuring a high standard of science – provided the integrity and respect of ethical standards relevant to this process are maintained.

Academic reviews do not appear regularly in every issue of a periodical. This genre appears sporadically. In the analyzed issues one can distinguish: *Algorytmy wobec demokracji (Algorithms in the face of democracy)* by Anna Łozowska³³ (*Media-Culture-Social Communication*, 2018, No. 14, pp. 105-114), *Tygodniki opinii w zmieniającej się rzeczywistości (Weeklies' opinions in the changing reality)*³⁴ by Olga Dąbrowska-Cendrowska (*Media and Society*, 2018, vol. 9, pp. 263-267) and the review³⁵ of Katarzyna Maciejewska-Mieszkowska (*Media, Business, Culture*, 2018, No. 2 (5), pp. 199-201). Examples of reviews also include: Ewa Nowak-Teter's review of *How to Do Critical Discourse Analysis* by David Machin and Andrea Mayr, Sage, Los Angeles 2012, p. 236 (*Mediatization Studies*, 2017, No. 1, pp. 105-108) and *Ile emersji w grach (How much emersion in games)*³⁶ by Stanisław Krawczyk (*Replay. The Polish Journal of Game Studies*, 2016, No. 1 (3), pp. 156-161). Reviews can also be found in *Media Studies*. An example of this is *Fenomen reklamy religijnej (The phenomenon of religious advertising)*³⁷ by Wojciech Jakubowski (*Media Studies*, 2018, No. 4 (5), pp. 131-134) and *Książka. Najpotężniejszy przedmiot naszych czasów zbadany od deski do deski (The Book. The most powerful object*

33. Review of the book *Jak Facebook oddala nas od siebie i zagraża demokracji (How Facebook Dooms Away from Us and Endangers the Democracy)* by Siva Vaidhyanathan from 2018 published by Antisocial Media with translation by Weronika Mincer and Katarzyna Sosnowska - Warsaw: Grupa Wydawnicza Foksal, pp. 322.

34. Review of Tomasz Mielczarek's book *Tygodniki opinii w zmieniającej się rzeczywistości (Weeklies' opinions in the changing reality)* of 2018, pp. 260.

35. Review of the book by Weronika Świerczyńska-Głownia titled *Działalność programowa telewizji publicznej. Kluczowe determinanty programowania i dystrybucja oferty (Programming activity of public television. Key determinants of programming and distribution of the offer)* of 2017, pp. 321.

36. A review of Piotr Kubiński's book *Gry wideo. Zarys poetyki (Video games. Outline of poetics)* of 2016, pp. 113.

37. A review of the book by Krzysztof Stępiak *Fenomen reklamy religijnej (The phenomenon of religious advertising)* of 2017, pp. 283.

of our time, examined from cover to cover)³⁸ by Kalina Kukięłko-Rogozińska (*Media Studies*, 2018, No. 4 (5), pp. 135-139).

6.3. Reports

A report is a presentation of exceptional events (in this case academic) that have already culminated in their finale. The characteristic feature is presenting the facts in a dynamic manner, in a timely order, faithfully if possible, while keeping the chronological sequence of events as mandatory. The report is not characterized by the persons participating in the event; it is limited only to giving first and last names, titles, functions and positions held. You can also interlace the text with the characters' statements as well as summaries of their public appearances. The report is characterized by presenting events from many points of view to maintain objectivity (often the statements of the presented characters are given) (*Słownik terminologii medialnej (Dictionary of media terminology)*, 2006, p. 201).

The report appears sporadically in the *Kultura Mediów Teologii (Culture of Theological Media)*. This genre is placed in the "Information" section. Examples include the report from the academic conference on "*Oryginal i kopia. Znikająca tożsamość*" ("*Original and copy. Disappearing identity*"), which took place on October 19, 2011 in the John Paul II Hall at the UKSW campus in Warsaw. The conference website was also presented on the website of the journal; the composition of the organizing committee and the academic council were showed³⁹, as well as a report from the academic conference that took place on May 14, 2010 at the UKSW campus on 5 Dewajtis Street as part of the *Wyzwania nowych mediów (New Media Challenges)* series on *Etyczne i prawne wyzwania Internetu (Ethical and Legal Internet Challenges)*. The organizer of the session was the Department of Media Pedagogy, headed by prof. dr hab. Krystyna Czuba. The editors of the conference report made a short description of the deliberations in individual sections⁴⁰. Reports from conferences can also be found in the *Media Studies*. An illustration of this are two examples: A report on the 3rd International Conference & *Media Studies*, Berkeley, 18-19 October 2018 Karolina Brylska, Tomasz Gackowski, Anna Mierzecka (*Media Studies*, 2018, No. 4 (5), pp. 121-125), as well as a report from the international conference "*Sprawiedliwe wynagradzanie w opinii współczesnych pracowników*" "*Fair*

38. Book review of *Książka. Najpotężniejszy przedmiot naszych czasów zbadany od deski do deski (The Book. The most powerful subject of our time, examined from cover to cover)* by Keith Houtson, translated by Paweł Lipszyc from 2017, pp. 464.

39. Retrieved from (<https://kmt.uksw.edu.pl/konferencja-oryginal-i-kopia-tekst>) (2019, April 23).

40. Retrieved from (<https://kmt.uksw.edu.pl/konferencja-oryginal-i-kopia-tekst>) (2019, April 23).

remuneration in the opinion of contemporary employees”, Warsaw, October 18-19, 2018 Agata Kostrzewy (*Media Studies*, 2018, No. 4 (5), pp. 126- 128).

7. Conclusion

Academic journals are one of the main communication channels in science, being a platform for the exchange of researchers' thoughts not only from Poland, but from around the world. Initially, they appeared in the form of printed volumes, to which academic institutions and individual scholars aspired. A huge increase in the number of publications meant that institutions began to look for ways to identify those with the greatest impact on the academic environment, because these institutions were not able to collect all the journals appearing in a given field. At the same time, the environment of science changed, new possibilities of recording and sending content (digital media and the Internet) appeared, which were used by the publishers to create electronic and hybrid journals, i.e. printed in both paper and electronic form. There were also citation indexes, covering journals that meet many different criteria. Citation indexes, as part of such websites as Scopus or Web of Science, perform several functions. First of all, they make it easier for scholars to reach articles and magazines, not only through the use of key words, but also thanks to links placed on quoted and cited objects (authors, articles, magazines). Secondly, they show which articles and magazines are the most appreciated in the academic community. Thirdly, they support the evaluation of science. They play one more important role - they raise the editorial and publishing standards of academic journals.

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STYLISTIC FEATURES OF BRITISH NEWSPAPER HEADLINES IN THE DIACHRONIC ASPECT¹

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Abstract: *The paper focuses on the tendencies in the linguistic evolution of newspaper headlines in the diachronic aspect – of two time periods: the beginning of the 20th and the 21st centuries. The article considers the structural types of newspaper headlines, their stylistic composition and predominant expressive means. On the basis of the obtained results an attempt to identify the main pragmatic function of the excerpted headlines has been made.*

Key words: *media discourse, newspaper headline, expressive means, pragmatic function, diachronic aspect.*

1. Introduction

Media discourse represents current tendencies in the development of any national language. The proof of this idea is the suggestion to consider BBC English as the standard variant of the English language. At the same time, media discourse is not stable. It is in its constant development and evolution. The norms of the mass-media are changing so rapidly that scholars do not manage to present them in the dictionaries; moreover, they are often quite affected by individual styles in operating with the language.

Journalistic discourse makes a part in the paradigm of the media discourse. It is the oldest and most traditional among the other genres of the more general media discourse. Newspapers and magazines have been changing their “paper life-span” for digital one. This technical process is going hand in hand with the change of its pragmatic side and the roles they play of manipulation and commercialization as revealed by E. Herman and N. Chomsky (2002). Discourse

1. The research was carried out within the framework of the research and development program “Trends in the development and functioning of the Belarusian-language media discourse in the context of globalization and intercultural dialogue” (State registration No. 20161437) of the subprogram “Belarusian language and literature” of the state program of research “Economy and Humanitarian Development of the Belarusian Society” for 2016-2020.

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analysts have been attracted by the linguistic realization of headlines as the main tools of the functions mentioned above.

Headlines are very specific structural units of texts. They are studied as independent and effective persuasive elements of articles [...] They are the first elements of articles the readers face and, to a great extent, they determine the interpretation of texts. It is essential for journalists to implement the most powerful persuasion strategies in the headlines of articles, as very often readers only look through the headlines and stop to read those articles with the most attractive headings (Marcoci, 2014).

2. Previous research in the field

In scientific literature newspaper headlines are analyzed from different perspectives. Teun A. van Dijk (1985, pp. 69-93) has studied the thematic and schematic structures of news from a discourse analytic point of view, drawing the conclusion that news should be studied only in the cognitive and socio-cultural contexts embracing all their structural elements, including headlines. The scholar believes that headlines have a very specific thematic function: they usually express the most important topic of the news item (van Dijk, 1985, p. 69). Headlines and lead may therefore be used as expedient signals to make effective guesses about the most important information of the text. However, they express the macrostructure of the writer, rather than that of the reader: the reader may infer a different thematic structure, depending on his/ her own beliefs and attitudes. And when a headline or lead does not provide an adequate summary of the full overall meaning of a text, we may, either formally or subjectively, say that they are biased (van Dijk, 1985, p. 69). Radostina Iglíkova calls headlines “labels” of the actual content of articles (Iglíkova, 2017, p. 71), and she mentions the practical importance of studying the effectiveness of headlines – what features a headline should possess in order to achieve its main goal, i.e. to attract readers to the content of the article (Iglíkova, 2018, p. 59). The researcher also studies the differences between the traditional headlines of the print press and those used in the web which belong to the representation of New Media.

Danuta Reah indicates the ephemeral nature of newspaper texts, that is, the fact that they are intended only for the day they are delivering the news (Reah, 2001, p.13).

The headlines have the capacity to encapsulate a story, and the headlines in a particular edition give the reader the overall picture of the current news, its relative importance, its classification (Reah, 2001, p.14). The researcher points out the main tendencies in the linguistic realization of headlines: headlines play on the potential for ambiguity that can exist in the relationship between words

and meaning; frequent use of intertextuality; appeal to the reader's awareness of sound (phonological aspect); selection of words that carry particularly strong connotations – an emotional loading beyond their literal meaning (Reah, 2001, p. 17).

Shaeda Isani shares the idea of the unique reputation of the British press in the area of headline creativity. The researcher adopts two parallel terms – headlines as a sub-genre which is proposed to distinguish from the parent genre by the term “headlinese”. The latter is viewed as the genre construct with regard to headlines focusing on their communicative functions (Isani, 2011). According to Daniel Dor (2003), headlines provide the readers with the optimal ratio between contextual effect and processing effort, and direct readers to construct the optimal context for interpretation. D. Dor explains that the construction of a successful headline requires the understanding of the readers – their state of knowledge, their beliefs and expectations and their cognitive styles (Dor, 2003, p. 696). As relevance-optimizers and relevance-based selection-devices, headlines function as negotiators between stories and readers. The researcher states that the headline is neither a semantic summary of the story nor a pragmatic attracting-device for the reader, but a communicative device whose function is to produce the optimal level of affinity between the content of the story and the reader's context of interpretation, in order to render the story optimally relevant for the reader (Dor, 2003, p. 720).

Akshay Gattani (2007) singles out three main types of headlines according to their functions: indicative headlines indicate what topics are covered by the news story; informative headlines convey what particular concept, theme or event is covered in the news story and eye-catchers do not inform about the content of the story but are designed to attract attention and entice people to read the story (Gattani, 2007, p. 13). The researcher studies the possible ways to generate natural language headlines automatically with the help of a computer program. In this respect it would be useful to consider the tendencies in the development of the linguistic realization of headlines.

The issue of different and common characteristics in the verbalization of headlines in different linguo-cultures has already been discussed from various perspectives and in combinations of different languages. For example, Kniffka (1980) identified regular structures of headlines across German and American English texts. But, as Christine Develotte and Elizabeth Rechniewski state, the majority of studies analyze headlines from only one country (Develotte & Rechniewski, 2002, pp. 173-190): Allan Bell analyzes the “distinctive telegraphic syntax” of English newspaper headlines (Bell, 1989, p.185). Ingrid Mardh (1980) discusses a whole range of typical linguistic features of English newspapers: the omission of articles; the omission of verbs and of auxiliaries; nominalisations; the frequent use of complex noun phrases in subject position;

adverbial headlines, with the omission of both verb and subject; the use of short words; the widespread use of puns, word play and alliteration; the importance of word order, with the most important items placed first, even, in some cases, a verb (Mardh, 1980). Morrow (2012) as quoted by Radostina Iglíkova (Iglíkova, 2018, p. 60) proposes several patterns to organize headlines and gives his classification of headlines: threat headlines, zen headlines, piggyback headlines, mistake headlines, how to headlines, list headlines.

Christine Develotte and Elizabeth Rechnieweski (2001) operate with the term “national representations” when they affirm that headlines refer to the knowledge systems that encapsulate data about our own or any other nation. The researchers believe that the interrelation between these two categories of representation, the contrasts and binary oppositions that can be created, and the role played by representations of the other in defining one’s own nationality and identity, these are issues which we have explored elsewhere (Develotte & Rechnieweski, 2002). The scholars suggest three specific linguistic features relevant to the analysis of national representations: designation – the process of naming; appraisal – the process of characterization and evaluation; presupposition – reference to the elements in discourse which are presupposed (Develotte & Rechnieweski, 2001).

Tatiana Vorontsova (2017, p. 21) shares the idea that the main function of headlines is to form the initial image of the event described in the article. The researcher analyses the main causes of the deformation of the image of the event: a part of the event is presented as an independent event; a shift of semantic accents; incorrect or misleading choice of language means, intentional negative coloring of the image of the event (Vorontsova, 2017, pp. 21-25). The enumerated ways to distort the correct understanding of the presented event are used for the manipulation of the readers.

3. Research Questions

The present research aims at showing how the linguistic content and pragmatic functions of newspaper headlines are changing in time, what linguistic means and stylistic devices are involved to achieve the desired effect and impact on the targeted audience. A special attention is paid to the role of different structural types of newspaper headlines, the interconnection between the identified types and pragmatic functions of headlines. There is a hypothesis that the pragmatic role of the newspaper headline has been changing. Moreover, it has not been revealed yet what the balance between the two main functions of newspaper headlines is – informative and manipulative (eye-catching/ opinion-forming, and so on), and what linguistic means are used to realize these functions.

4. Methods

The methods used for the analysis are the method of logical and comparative analysis, the elements of quantitative analysis, contextual analysis as well as the method of interpretation.

5. Data Analysis

The paper is a part of a bigger study embracing data from several typologically different languages: English, Russian and Belarusian, French. Within this paper we are focusing our attention on the dynamic character and evolution of stylistic features of the newspaper headlines in English. As the language of media discourse changes quite rapidly we consider that it is possible to reveal a number of new tendencies throughout a century. So the material for the analysis consists of excerpts of newspaper headlines from British (predominantly London) print press from the end of the nineteenth century and the beginning of the twentieth century (*the Globe, the Times, Daily Mirror*) – for the past period; and the headlines from the fresh print press of 2019 (*the Times, the Guardian*). A total of 400 English language headlines have been used to study the structural organization and stylistic content focusing on the domineering pragmatic functions.

The analysis of the stylistic peculiarities of the excerpted newspaper headlines of the two defined periods is based on the modern approach towards the understanding of stylistics in general and functional stylistics in particular. Margarita Kozhina (2011) defines stylistics as a linguistic science of the means of speech expressiveness and the laws governing the functioning of language, due to the appropriate use of language units depending on the content of the utterance, goals, situation, sphere of communication and other extra-linguistic factors. Within the frames of functional stylistics, the central purpose of the analysis is to identify which multi-level linguistic and speech means realize the basic functions of different types of speech works (functional styles, sub-styles, genres), how the extra-linguistic basis of styles influences the formation of speech organization, speech systematic styles. Margarita Kozhina also singles out diachronic and comparative stylistics as branches (varieties) of the stylistics of resources and functional stylistics (Kozhina, 2011). The methodology suggested by the researcher allowed to identify the procedure of the analysis presented in the paper.

The main task at the first stage of the analysis is to determine the main structures of the excerpted newspaper headlines of the two periods and their semantic load. This is followed by a careful study of all the details and features of the headlines. According to Margarita Kozhina, style is a phenomenon that can only

be understood when considering goals, objectives, situations and the sphere of communication and the very content of the utterance (Kozhina, 2011).

6. Key Findings

The excerpted headlines of the past period can be classified into several structural groups: mononuclear nominative headlines (32%); headlines-sentences which include both a subject and a predicate (26%); complex headlines with crossheadings (20%); compound asyndetic headlines (8%); interrogative headlines (7%) and headlines-quotations (4%). There are some other types (3%) which are used sporadically (ex. mononuclear infinitive, etc.). We have not assigned them as separate classes for analysis as we focused our attention on the most frequently used types.

Mononuclear nominative headlines are predominant among the other types of the headlines selected from the newspapers of a century ago. The informative function of the headlines is realized through simple naming of events: *Gloom in Buenos Aires; Chronicle of the conflict; Cheap return tickets to the East; Government's proposals; Statements in Commons; Arrests in Cairo; The true wireless by Nikola Tesla*. However mononuclear nominative headlines also embrace exclamations which consist of a noun or nouns with some descriptive lexical elements: *The great Boston Molasses flood!; Wall Street crash! Black Thursday in America*. Although in general exclamative headlines are more or less stylistically neutral as they do not contain a great number of expressive means, in the examples presented herewith this type of headlines sound more emotional and realize the eye-catching function.

The second type – headlines-sentences which include both a subject and a predicate – is characterized by a greater potential capacity to effect readers' feeling and emotions. There have been identified different stylistic devices. On the phonetic level the most popular device is alliteration (*The team led from tragedy to triumph*). On the lexical and syntactic levels – epithets (*Batchy dog shot after biting girl*), metaphors (*Firm US grip on Pacific Islands; Germans in a trap*), metonymies (*Belgium not satisfied; Washington welcomes end to the fighting; America expects actions*). The concentration of expressive means and stylistic devices in the headlines of this type is not too high. They are registered in about 30% of the excerpted newspaper headlines. The majority of the material of this type is quite neutral and is aimed at information sharing, ex. *Man of 80 charged with the murder of his wife; World tallest building opens*.

Complex headlines with crossheadings were quite popular in newspapers a century ago. The lead was not so widely spread in the articles of that time, and journalists tried to specify the information in the main headline with the help of smaller in size subheadings, or crossheadings: *Alcock and Brown fly across*

Atlantic. Make 1,980 miles in 16 hours, 12 minutes. Sometimes upside down in dense, icy fog; Titanic sinks. Great loss of life. World's greatest liner strikes iceberg. The complexes of two or more sentences facilitated the provision of information presented in the core of the articles, ex. *Lord Hardinge for peace table. F.O. Head as British delegate. First meeting may sit twelve days hence.* The headlines of the type are characterized by a number of stylistic devices – alliterations (*Premier's important announcement to conference of masters and men. Hours bill being drafted*); epithets (*Huns' last word. Hypocritical excuses of Wily Germans for atrocities. Pamphlet for prisoners*); antithesis (*Hours and wages decision. Minimum wages and maximum hours for all*); metaphors (*Petrograd may fall soon. Story of Bolshevik evacuation. Finns cut railway*).

Compound asyndetic headlines consist of two or three interconnected parts but still they make one headline entity. These parts complement each other and give a more detailed picture of the event presented in the article. For example: *Barbers' strike: latest siege of Posen: Paderewski as army leader* or *Italian Cabinet crisis over 1919: high hopes – and some fears*. The elements of such compound asyndetic headlines can be of equal value – the presentation of several events, their enumeration. In some cases, still the parts can be semantically disparate. For example, a headline from a rather later newspaper of the World War II period: *Churchill to Stalin: I had to speak my mind: Moscow talks cordial*. Here the first two parts present main personages and the thoughts or words of one of them. And the third element is a sort of conclusion – the attitude of the journalist, his subjective interpretation of the described situation

Separate independent interrogative headlines and headlines-quotations are used quite rarely. More often they comprise a part of compound asyndetic headlines or complex headlines with crossheadings: *Another axe attack? Wife found badly injured: husband missing; King Albert at council of ministers: "extremely strong measures"; "Strong measures". Won't-sign-treaty threat repeated; "How I flew the Atlantic" by Capt. Alcock. Britain's magnificent Atlantic air triumph.*

As the conducted analysis has shown only about 35% of all types of the excerpted headlines of the past period contain stylistic devices and expressive means. The most popular among them is alliteration: *Death and devastation in wake of North end disaster*. Alliteration is a "very English" means that has been a principal ornamental tool to help indicate the underlying metrical structure as opposed to rhyme in alliterative verse in the oldest literature in English (Beowulf, Sir Gawain and the Green Knight, etc.). Since that time alliteration has been the preferred choice to create a musical effect in the text that enhances the pleasure of reading a whole article. It creates an attractive and appealing image of the text.

One more peculiar detail about the English headlines of the past period is that they occasionally contain non-assimilated French lexical items: *Grand opening*

ceremony of the Eiffel Tower in Paris. Monsieur Eiffel has created the Wonder of the Age with the tallest tower in the World for the Exposition Universelle; Messageries maritimes de France (a company dispatches mail steamers to France). I can assume that some inclusions of French lexemes are intended to create the authentic atmosphere of the news covered in the articles, moreover this fact can point out close cultural and social links between France and Great Britain at that time.

As regards the excerpted headlines of the modern period (2019), we must admit that the trend observed is of a more limited range of frequently used types of headlines. We have singled out 4 main classes: simple headlines-sentences which include both a subject and a predicate (36%); headlines-quotations (20%); mononuclear nominative headlines (15%) and compound headlines with semantically coordinated or subordinate elements (12%). Complex headlines with crossheadings have become rare in use (3%, ex. *My nuclear button is bigger than yours. Trump taunts Kim as he steps up war of words with North Korea tyrant*) against the increased amount of full extended headlines-sentences with subjects, predicates and other sentence parts. In the modern press there quite often occur imperative sentences with a single infinitive (4%, ex. *Beware the posh boy's hollow self-confidence*) and independent questions (6%) as headlines. These are rhetorical questions or questions addressed to the readers: *When your local has praises like this to sing who needs a juke box?; Will history judge May to be our worst prime minister?* There have been registered 4 cases of “question-answer complexes” which have become headlines as a whole: *So what made Teresa tick? Self-pity and lack of empathy; Out of her depth or an impossible job? She has still failed.* Compound asyndetic headlines now are not used very often (4%). As a rule they include a nominative component followed by its details or comments: *The Times view on today's EU polls: Invisible Election; Speech unspun: what the PM really meant.*

The most popular structure of modern headlines is a simple full sentence with a subject, a predicate and other sentence parts. Quite often these are expanded sentences full of various expressive means and stylistic devices: rhyme (*Tussles in Brussels won respect for PM*); alliteration (*Bercow's bold agenda bender*); slang words (*Trump starts beef over missile tests before bonding over burgers*); metaphors (*“Russian” sting holds poison yet for Kurz; Predators flock to Snapchat, a “heaven” for child abuse*); epithets (*Lawyers play their part in flagging up dirty money; Next leader must be less wooden than the Maybot*); irony (*Impeachment could make Trump even more popular*); similes (*Purist Remainers are as bad as Brexiteers*); break (*And they are off ... with Johnson leading the field in race for №10*); parenthesis (*Harry (but not Meghan) will join president for lunch at the palace*). The analysis has shown an extraordinary distribution of punctuation symbols which are aimed to draw attention to a particular part of the headline *Suddenly, harshest critics full of praise for duty and dignity.*

Headlines-quotations are more frequent in the modern headlines than a century ago. A special attention should be paid to the character of these quotations. Usually they are bright and intriguing: *Trump: I can't work with the Democrats plotting my downfall; Hospitals must close to save NHS, say doctors; EU putting lives at risk over Brexit, warns May.*

Mononuclear nominative headlines are also not so frequent in today's newspapers as they used to be. However this type has become more extended and includes a whole range of stylistic devices: oxymorons (*Warning from history to expect the unexpected*); epithets (*The meager legacy of a leader's short reign*); rhyme (*Miles of smiles*); alliteration (*From fashion to food*).

Compound sentences with semantically coordinated or subordinate elements make successful, from my point of view, headlines as they usually contain a problem or interesting extra details about a burning issue which are able to involve the audience into reading the whole article. Compound headlines can substitute complex headlines with crossheadings in their informative function being more compact and making reading less time-consuming. For example: *Walking holiday but premier on path to oblivion* – a very emotional headline with a picture of Teresa May having a walk with her husband in a Scandinavian walking-style. However, through the use of a metaphor the journalist alludes to the fact that the Prime Minister will soon leave her office. One more headline of the same topic: *Farewell to Downing Street after three years but she remains PM for now*. And an example of the same type with antithesis: *Shed no tears for Teresa – she's not a victim of events but an abject failure*. Some headlines of this type contain statements which are paradoxical and that is what stimulates the readers' interest: *Fat people will have to diet if they want to see the doctor*. For the sake of headline compression the journalists resort to apocope, apheresis and abbreviation: *MMR jabs stockpiled as measles threat rises; May braced for historic defeat on Brexit D-Day; Don't refund all fraud victims, says top cop*.

As the research has shown in the modern headlines there is a greater concentration of expressive means and stylistic devices – about 80% of headlines contain expressive means and stylistic devices of at least one language level (phonetic, morphological, lexical or syntactical).

7. Conclusion

In general, the newspaper headlines of both time periods are quite multifarious in their structural types and prevalence of stylistic means. It is demonstrative that the predominant structural types of the newspaper headlines are mononuclear nominative headlines, headlines-sentences which include both a subject and a predicate and complex headlines with crossheadings. These types are of an informative character and are aimed at statements of facts or giving details of

the befallen events. Only 35% of all the excerpted items contain any stylistic devices as compared to the headlined from 2019 newspapers with a denser concentration of expressive means – 80%. Moreover, the modern headlines are formed according to the structural pattern “simple headlines-sentences which include both a subject and a predicate” as number one in their frequency of use, followed by headlines-quotations, mononuclear nominative headlines and compound headlines with semantically coordinated or subordinate elements. From the perspective of the context together with structural types and frequency of the use of stylistic devices it is possible to make a conclusion about an increasing appealing role of modern headlines.

8. Implications

As it has been stated above, this paper is a part of a wider-in-scale research project. The implications for future research in this field can be to extend the analysis to a greater number of other languages including Belarusian, Russian and French. An interesting perspective for the complex research will be the revealing of common and specific tendencies in the evolution of newspaper headlines in different linguo-cultures. It will also make sense to extend the number of excerpted material for analysis. In this case the results would sound more convincing and significant.

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SOURCE-IN-TARGET METONYMY AND TARGET-IN-SOURCE METONYMY IN TEXTS ON INTERNATIONAL AFFAIRS

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Abstract: *The paper deals with the way source-in-target metonymy and target-in-source metonymy are used in text on international affairs. In such texts, the notion in the source domain is typically a toponym, but there are cases in which the source can be an ethnonym derived from a toponym. With target-in-source metonymies, the source domain stands for a target sub-domain. With source-in-target metonymies, a source sub-domain stands for a target domain. Both types of metonymy are unidirectional, as the target concept activated by the source concept does not in its turn activate the source concept in the same text. The study traces the way those types of metonymy are exploited in the media and studies the similarities and differences in their use in Bulgarian and English language texts.*

Key words: *source-in-target metonymy, target-in-source metonymy, media texts, place names*

1. Introduction

The paper deals with the way source-in-target metonymy and target-in-source metonymy are exploited in media texts discussing foreign affairs. It traces the main types of source-in-target metonymy and target-in-source metonymy used in such texts and the characteristic features of their use.

Ruiz de Mendoza Ibáñez and Pérez Hernández (2001) divide metonymies into two types: target-in-source metonymy and source-in-target metonymy. With target-in-source metonymies, the source domain stands for a target sub-domain. With source-in-target metonymies, a source sub-domain stands for a target domain. An example of a target-in-source metonymy is *Wall Street is in crisis*, while *The ham sandwich is waiting for his bill* is a source-in-target metonymy. According to Croft, domains play a significant role in most metonymies (Croft, 2002). As stated by Mendoza Ibáñez, in their interaction with metaphor, source-in-target metonymies signal the central inference of the metaphoric mapping, while target-in-source metonymies highlight some aspects of the target. According to Castillo, source-in target metonymies are processes of domain expansion, while target-in-source metonymies are processes of domain reduction (Castillo,

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2004). As stated by Mendoza Ibáñez and Velasco, source-in-target metonymies need “either the context or the semantic domain typically associated with the expression to trigger the metonymic shift, while target-in-source metonymies need the predicate” (Velasco, 2002, p.489). In Barcelona’s view, metonymies are reversible, but unidirectional (Barcelona, 2011). This means that the source and the target do not simultaneously map onto each other (ibid.). There is also a case for saying that certain deviations in implied meanings are observed with regard to source and target language comparative analysis (Peneva, 2019).

2. Analysis

Well-exploited metonymies in media are the continent or the geographical region for a country situated on that continent/ region, and the continent for a group of countries situated on that continent. A widely-spread is the use of *America* for the *United States of America*:

One of *America*’s most able diplomats – and his demons

Kurt Campbell on why Richard Holbrooke, architect of the Dayton peace accord, was haunted by Vietnam

The *US* Department of State is an unsentimental institution. Generations of *American* diplomats have laboured there, negotiating treaties, engaging enemies and friends alike, and advancing the national interest overseas. The top two floors of its headquarters in Foggy Bottom, one of Washington’s oldest neighbourhoods, are ostentatiously ornate, with colonial-era furniture and gold-framed portraits adorning the walls of former secretaries and diplomatic emissaries such as Benjamin Franklin (FT/ 05.03.2019).

In the above excerpt, *America* is used to stand for the USA. This is not exactly an example of a geographical region for the country, nor is it a metonymy of the type the continent for the country, since there is not a continent called America. The proprial lexeme America is part of the continents names South America and North America, but standing by itself it does not refer to any of the two. In any case, both South America and North America are home to other countries apart from the US, which is only one of the countries, situated in North America.

In the above example, *America* and the *US* are used interchangeably and are contextually synonymous:

America = US

The source *America* activates the target *US*:

America ⇔ US

However, the opposite direction is not valid – the target *US* does not activate the source *America* in the above text.

US ⇔ America

The metonymy is unidirectional.

Another well exploited metonymy in media texts, especially in those related to international affairs is the continent for an organization of countries, situated on the continent. The toponym *Europe* is typically used to refer to the European Union, as illustrated in the following excerpt:

Europe must rethink fiscal rules to combat populism

Tight spending policy and stagnant incomes have stoked political anger. The campaign for the UK to remain in the *EU* lost for many reasons, none more important than a general failure to understand the multiple anxieties of lower to middle-income voters. This shortcoming is not unique to the UK. It is a broad phenomenon of late-cycle liberal capitalism. The situation in the *EU* ahead of the *European* parliamentary elections between May 23 and 26 is not quite as binary as it was in the UK three years ago. The insurrection against pro-*European* liberalism is proceeding in smaller steps. (FT/ 12.08.2019)

This type of metonymy is so well established that the derivative words formed from *Europe*, such as the ethnonym *European* are also used metonymically.

Source	Target
Europe	The European Union
European (parliamentary) elections	Elections for members of the parliament of the European Union
Pro-European	Supporting the idea of the EU

The source is a notion from the domain of geography and it activates the target—a notion from the domain of (international) politics. This type of metonymy can be regarded as a whole-for-the part metonymy, as the target, the EU does not include all the countries on the territory of Europe. As in the previous excerpt, the metonymy is uni-directional, as it does not function in the opposite direction (*EU* does not activate *Europe* in that text).

While the above texts illustrate the use of target in source metonymies, the next text demonstrate the use of both target in source and source in target metonymy:

Russia divides *Europe's* eurosceptic parties

Divisions on how to handle Russia's "neo-imperial appetite", among other factors, are set to block Italian far-right deputy prime minister Matteo Salvini's ambitions

to spearhead a new European Parliament (EP) league, Jan Zahradil, a leading Czech MEP and candidate for European Commission president has said.

Britain's departure from the *EU* will also shift the balance of power toward the more Russia-friendly France and Germany, stoking tension with **central European** and Baltic countries, the Czech politician told EUobserver in an interview (EUobserver/12.08.2019)

Europe for the European Union is an example of target-in-source metonymy. *Britain* standing for the UK, however, is a source-in-target metonymy. Both metonymies are unidirectional, since in the above text neither EU automatically invokes Europe, nor does UK necessarily stand for *Britain*.

In the following article, *Britain* stands for the UK, forming source-in-target metonymy. The ethnonym derived from *Britain*, *British*, is also used metonymically. 'British identity' in the text below stands for identity of the people, living in the UK.

Leavers v remainers: how Britain's tribes compare

Survey reveals surprising consensus – but big divisions exist over identity, culture and gender

Whatever happens with Brexit, the EU referendum has spawned two political tribes. The identities "leaver" and "remainer" cut across traditional party divides: research suggests they are replacing Conservative, Labour and Liberal Democrat as indicators of political identity. But how much do they really differ?

Graphs plotting the distributions of their answers to a range of questions often show a bell curve in which both sides mostly overlap, even on divisive issues such as immigration. It seems the starkest differences relate to **British** identity itself – with a notable divergence on gender politics (G/ 02.05.2019)

It could also be suggested that the already well established neologism *Brexit* is constructed on the basis of source-in-target metonymy, since the referendum was whether the whole UK, not only Britain, to leave the EU.

The target *UK* is often activated by the toponym *England* in the source domain, as is the case in the following excerpt:

England and France: a tale of two coastlines

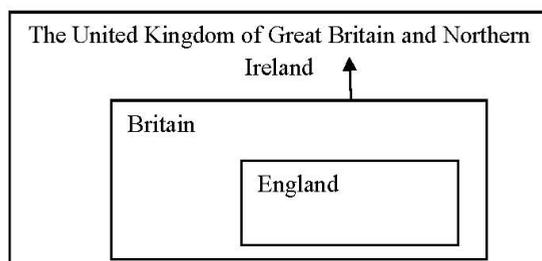
On the eve of D-day's 75th anniversary, with Brexit looming, how do those on either side of the Channel feel?

The landscape remains as it was then," says Mark Worthington, waving across marshland and poplar trees laden with mistletoe. He stands beside Pegasus Bridge, across the Caen Canal at Ranville, Normandy, taken on 5

June 1944 by an allied advance party that arrived to clear the way for D-day, and the liberation of western Europe.

Worthington, curator of the Pegasus Bridge commemorative museum on this site, proceeds to the cemetery of **British** soldiers killed on, or soon after, D-day – rows and rows of lost lives. In the graveyard of the lovely church next door “are German graves, and that of the first man to die at D-day, on Pegasus Bridge, Pte Den Brotheridge” – of whom a statue was unveiled in Portsmouth during the week of our visit to Ranville, where it later went for display (G/ 12.08.2019)

From geographical point of view, England is a part of Great Britain, which in turn is a part of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland. However, the three notions do not create a metonymic tier of the type England → Britain → United Kingdom. Instead, England refers directly to the United Kingdom. Schematically, it can be presented in the following way:



In the next excerpt, *Европа* referring to the EU is an example of target-in-source metonymy:

Нови цени за роуминг в *Европа*

Цената на минута разговор с ДДС не трябва да е над 45 ст., а на СМС - 14 ст., доставчиците трябва да съобщят за промените

От 15 май започва да се прилага регулация на цените на международните повиквания и на кратките текстови съобщения в рамките на **ЕС**. След тази дата цените на дребно за мобилни и фиксирани повиквания от една до друга държава в **ЕС** не трябва да превишават 19 евроцента на минута. Ценовият таван за кратко текстово съобщение в рамките на **Съюза** ще бъде 6 евроцента за съобщение, съобщават от Комисията за регулиране на съобщенията (Vesti/ 12.08.2019)

New roaming charges in Europe

The price for a minute phone call should not exceed 45 stotinki with VAT, and an SMS should not exceed 14 stotinki. The providers should inform about the changes.

*A regulation of international calls and SMS charges within the EU will be applied from May 15th. After that date the retail roaming charges for mobile or fixed phone calls between countries in the EU should not exceed 19 eurocent per minute. The price ceiling for an SMS in the Union will be 6 eurocent per message, as stated by the Commission for communications regulation.*²

Европа, *ЕС* and *Съюза* are contextual synonyms because of the same identity of the named object (Todorova, 2012), but it is only *Европа* that activates the target *ЕС/ Съюза* and not vice versa.

A target-in-source metonymy is also observed in use of ethnonyms. In the next excerpt, the ethnonym *американците* refers to the US citizens, just as the toponym *America* was used to stand for the USA in one of the above excerpts from *the Financial Times*:

Американците не харесват външната политика на Тръмп

Те не смятат, че международната позиция на САЩ се подобрява

Мнозинството от *американци* не харесват начина, по който президентът Доналд Тръмп води външната политика на САЩ (Fakti/ 28.01.2019)

The Americans do not like Trump's international policy

They do not believe that the US international position improves.

The majority of Americans do not like the way President Donald Trump leads US international policy.

In the next excerpt, the toponym *Англия* referring to the United Kingdom is a source-in-target metonymy:

Българин изчезна в Англия, разследват убийство

Българският гражданин на възраст 27 години е бил видян за последно в търговския център в Есекс

Двадесет и две годишен мъж е арестуван в хода на разследване за изчезнал във **Великобритания** български гражданин (Vesti/ 02.05.2019)

A Bulgarian disappeared in England, a murder investigation is carried out

The 27 year old Bulgarian citizen has been last seen in a shopping centre in Essex

2. Translations of the articles in Bulgarian provided by the author.

A 22 year old man was arrested during an investigation on a Bulgarian citizen who disappeared in Great Britain.

Великобритания (Great Britain) used to stand for the United Kingdom is also an example of source-in-target metonymy.

Великобритания (Great Britain)



United Kingdom

Англия (England) ↗

3. Conclusion

The use of source-in-target and target-in-source metonymy is widely exploited in both Bulgarian and English-language media text dealing with international affairs. In such texts, the notion in the source domain is typically a toponym, but there are cases in which the source can be an ethnonym derived from a toponym. Both source-in-target and target-in-source metonymy are unidirectional, as the target concept activated by the source concept does not in its turn activate the source concept in the same text.

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