

UNIVERSITY OF DIYALA

**A STUDY OF DEICTIC
EXPRESSIONS IN ENGLISH**

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EDUCATION IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIRMENTS FOR
THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF ARTS IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE AND
LINGUISTICS**

BY

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1426 A.H.

بِسْمِ اللَّهِ الرَّحْمَنِ الرَّحِيمِ

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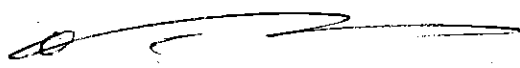
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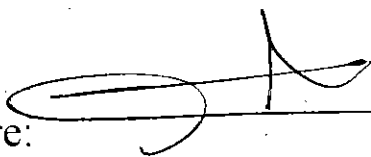
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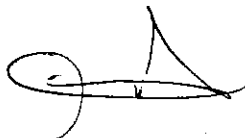
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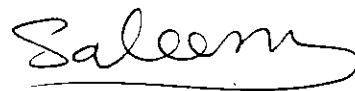
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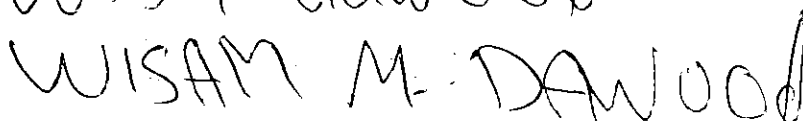
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Abstract

Language is a main communicative instrument especially in face to face interlocation. Context plays a crucial role in this process. Contexts explored in the study of deixis have come to be restricted to those that are phenomenally immediate. Deixis has been taken to be the clearest example of languages embeddedness in context.

This study shows that the theory of deixis is just part of linguistic pragmatics which strives to account for inferences about meaning licensed by the situatedness of utterance in contexts.

Utterances are inherently context-bound, they are presented by a speaker to a hearer at a certain time in a certain place. Hence, it is important to study deixis with its kinds and functions.

The study aims to

1. account for phenomenon of deixis.
2. examine the pragmatic nature of deixis.
3. show the relation between deixis and reference.

It is hypothesized that deixis belongs to the pragmatic aspect of language rather than the semantic one. Deixis is context-bound and is the base form which the other types of reference uses derive.

The study has proved that deixis is crucial to account for the process of communication and it depends on pragmatic clues for its adequate interpretation. Deictic expressions are a particular kind of referential expressions but not a synonym of them and the meaning of deictic

expressions changes with the speaker of an utterance and with his or her position in space and time.

The study comprises five chapters:

Chapter one is introductory which briefly introduces and specifies the notion of deixis. It also deals with the nature of the problem being investigated, aims, hypotheses, procedures and value of the study.

Chapter two is devoted to the definitions of deictic expressions. It discusses Karl Bühler's theory of the deictic field and its implications for grammaticalization theory.

Chapter three contains the description and analysis of the categories of deictic expressions.

Chapter four displays the functions of deictic expressions. Deictic expressions are discussed as one of the most basic functions of human communications.

Chapter five sums up the conclusions and findings mentioned in the preceding chapters besides recommendations and suggestions for further studies.

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Chapter One

Introduction

1.1 The Problem

Deixis introduces subjective, attentional and of course context-dependent properties into natural languages. Deixis seems critical for our ability to acquire a language.

Deixis has always been at the heart of reference research in semantics and pragmatics. Despite the importance of deixis with its types and functions, this area has not been thoroughly investigated. This observation has provided sufficient motivation to conduct a study on how deictic expressions can be utilized.

The researcher finds that, there is an urgent need for investigation. It can be taken as a virgin subject and thus needs an extensive piece of work.

1.2 Aims of the Study

This study aims at:

1. Showing how deictic expressions are closely related to the context of the utterance. So, the main aim is to identify the strong pragmatic nature of deixis.
2. Presenting an acceptable interpretation of the deictic expressions.
3. Showing how deictic expressions differ from other expressions in language.

1.3 The Hypotheses

It is hypothesized that;

1. Deixis belongs to pragmatics rather than to semantics.
2. Deictic expressions are context-bound.
3. Deictic reference is more important than endophoric one in many cases.

1.4 Procedures of the Study

The procedures to be adopted in handling the deictic expressions in English can be summed up as follows;

1. Presenting a theoretical background to discuss deixis.
2. Providing an outline of the definitions of deictic expressions and other relevant terms.
3. Surveying the different views about deixis.
4. Accounting for the function of deixis.
5. Conclusions, recommendations and suggestions for further studies are offered.

1.5 Value of the Study

This study tries to constitute a significant contribution to the area of pragmatics and semantics. It is hoped to be useful for linguists, language teachers and students.

Chapter Two

The Concept of Deixis

2.1 What is Deixis ?

There are some expressions in the language such as *I, you, her, now, yesterday* that cannot be construed perfectly unless the physical context especially of the speaker is known. These expressions are called **deixis** or **deictic expressions** (Yule, 1996(a): 129). Deixis is a Greek word used as a technical term in linguistics to refer to those expressions which serve the linguistic function (Wales, 1981: 241; Lyons, 1977: 636).

Deixis is a noun pronounced as / daɪksɪs /, deictic is an adjective pronounced as /daɪktɪk/ or /deɪ'ɪktɪk/.

In stylistics **deixis** refers to those features of language which orientate our utterances in time, space and it also shows the speaker's standpoint (Finch, 2000: 214). For example, personal pronouns and tense system are deictic because they locate events in the present or the past. Similarly, words such as *there, here, this* and *that* are deictic because they locate items in space relative to the person who is speaking. Philosophers such as C.S. Lewis prefer to use the term "indexical expressions" because the referents of deictic expressions are effectively indexed by the location of the speaker and hearer. Linguists have used other terms for deixis such as "Shifters" by Roman Jakobson, "Embrayeurs" by Emile Benveniste and also "Exophoric Reference" is used in some texts as synonymous to deictic expressions.

2.2 Bühler's Theory of Language

The concept of deixis derives mainly from the work of the German psychologist and philosopher of language Karl-Bühler (1930/1934). He is the first to point out the universal existence of deictic expressions across languages. Bühler's analysis of deictic expressions primarily covers the person deixis as well as the temporal and spatial deixis. But as we shall see in the next chapter these types of deixis do not cover the whole scope of deictic expressions in languages. Bühler singles out the three most primitive deictic expressions *I*, *now* and *here* indicating person, time and place respectively. Lyons calls them "pure deictic field". Bühler places them at the centre of index field (to which deixis belongs), which he represents graphically through a circle. He calls this centre, the ego of the field. All the other deictic expressions such as *you*, *he*, *then*, *there*, *that*, etc radiate.

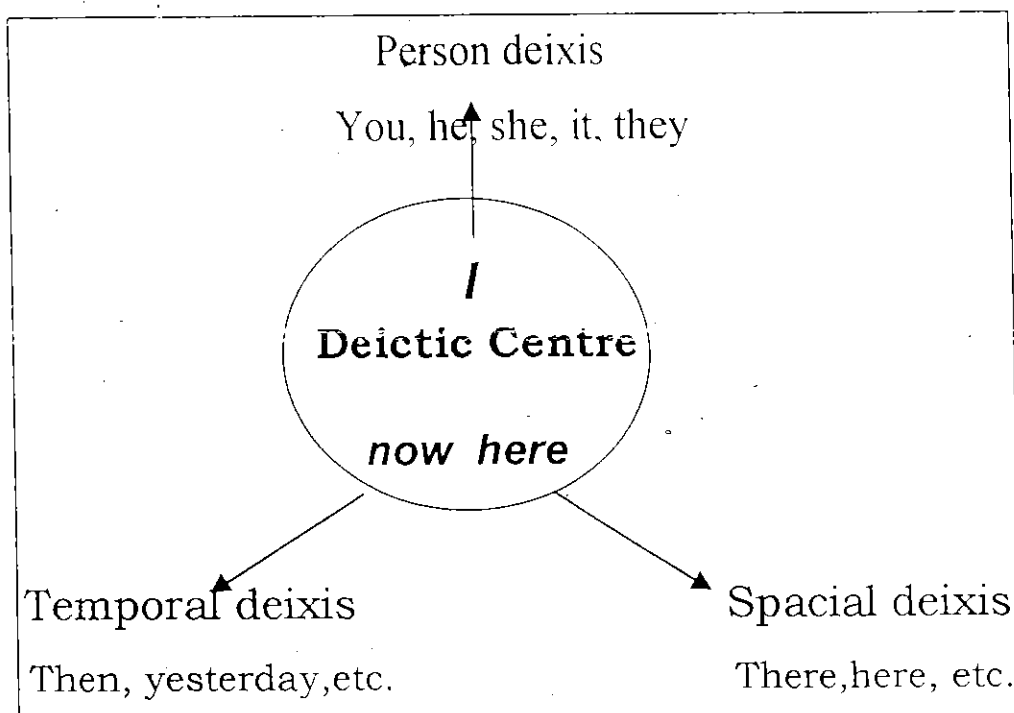


Figure (1) Classification of Deixis in Bühler's (1934: 34)

I, here, now are also described as the zero point and they are grouped under the name of index. Each index or orientation centre distinguishes a possible world or discourse situation from an alternative (Lyons, 1995: 305).

Deictic expressions foreground the relationship between the language system, the subjectivity of the encoder and the context of utterance (Green, 1995: 12).

Deixis is considered to be egocentric or an expression of subjectivity because an opposition is usually established between *I, here, now* which contextually indicate what is close to the speaker and distant terms such as those in the following table.

Table (1) Deictic centre and distal terms

Deictic centre (zero point)	Distal terms
I	You, him, her, it
Here, now	There, then

These are the most important parameters of the communicative situation and they determine the deictic context of the communicative situation.

I reveals the identity of a speaker; the adverb *now* indicates the moment of speaking and the adverb *here* reveals the place of speaking. *I, here, now* define the primary level of deixis, namely the deictic centre (Botha, 1996:5).

Following in Bühler's footsteps, others have claimed that deixis is present in all languages. Klein (1978: 18) writes "there is an assortment of deictic expressions in all languages which are particularly closely intertwined with the specific coordinates of a situation".

Deixis is in fact part of the modality function of languages. Thus, deixis can be said to have two main components, spatio-temporality and egocentricity (Werth, 1995: 65).

The concept of deixis has been explored and developed by linguists such as Lyons (1973; 1977); Levinson (1983); Fillmore (1997) and others.

A number of definitions of deixis have been propounded. Fillmore (1982: 35) defines it as "the name given to uses and items and categories of lexicon and grammar that are controlled by certain details of the interlocational situation in which the utterances are produced". Levinson (1983: 54) says that "the clear way in which the relation between language and context is reflected in the structures of languages themselves is by the phenomenon of deixis". Bates (1996: 105) says the structure of deixis is psychologically easier than spelling out full propositions. So, deixis is easier and ontogenetically prior to full expression of prepositional arguments, e.g. it is easier to say;

1. (a) He hit the ball, than
- (b) The man hit the ball.

Lyons (1968: 275) writes "some items that include component of deixis are the personal pronouns and some adverbials of place and time as *here* and *there* and the referents are supposed to be actually present in the

immediate context of utterance". Lyons (1975) as cited in Levinson (1983:60) proposes that deictic expressions can be ontogenetically prior to the other kinds of reference and provide the basis for the acquisition of other kinds of reference. Fillmore (1997:59) says lexical items and grammatical forms which can be construed only when the sentences in which they occur are understood as being anchored in some social context, which is defined in such a way as to identify the participants in the communication act, their location in space and time during which the communication is performed.

2.3 The Pragmatic Nature of Deixis

Deictic expressions require contextual information that includes knowledge of the identity of the speaker, hearer and other participants. Consider these examples:

2. *I ate here yesterday.*

In this sentence there are three deictic words *I*; the actual referent depends on who uttered the sentence. *Here* the actual location depends on where the sentence was uttered. *Yesterday*; the actual time depends on when the sentence was uttered.

3. *Meet me here at noon tomorrow with a stick about this big (Fillmore, 1997: 60).*

Fillmore explains this example by saying that a bottle is found floating in the ocean and containing this note, we do not know *who* to meet, *where* and *when* to meet *him* or *her* or *how big* a stick to bring.

4. *You will have to bring that back tomorrow, because they are not here now.*

Unless we identify the persons referred to by *you* and *they*, the place denoted by *here*, the time specified by *tomorrow* and *now*, we cannot construe this sentence correctly. These sentences are vague and out of context.

Deictic expressions constitute an irruption of discourse within language. *Speaker, hearer, time* and *place* are four dimensions of context that are encoded through deictic expressions. In order to understand the complexity of deictic expressions, one should imagine a typical communication situation like the following, Pankow (1995: 71) writes;

A student is to give a book review in front of his peers starting his paper in the following way; " I've read this big book *here* and *now*, I want to talk about it". An accidental listener of this sentence could decode the meaning without a problem but he does not really know what book (title and author) the student is going to talk about. This communication situation is often accompanied by additional indicators not restricted to language. The student holds the book in one hand and points at the book with the index finger of his other hand looking in the direction of the book, then showing between the index finger and the thumb how big the book is.

We only know that *I* refers to the student but we do not know who the student is. *This* refers to the book, but we know neither the title and the author nor the size of the book, it is therefore, obvious that personal and demonstrative pronouns, adverbs of place and time require additional indicators to enable us to interpret a communication situation. For that reason deictic expressions are also called pragmatic signs. In spite of deictic words' ambiguity, they are understood when a communication situation or a context is given.

Context is, therefore, very essential. It plays a crucial role in construing deictic or situational reference items without which they cannot convey a meaning. So, a deictic expression is one whose referent is determined by the speech context. Sperber and Wilson (1986: 137) argue that the notion of context should be incorporated in pragmatic theory. Caron (1987: 577) states that pragmatic aspects of language include the extralinguistic factors such as the physical environment of a text, general knowledge, shared beliefs and rules of conversation. Adopting a similar view, Levinson (1983: 24) claims that "at least the one that focuses on the nature of context makes it clear that one of the goals of a pragmatic theory should be to explicate that nature".

Deixis, which concerns the relationship between the structure of languages and the context of situation, falls within the domain of pragmatics.

2.3.1 Pragmatics / Semantics Boundary

Kaplan (1989: 562) says "the special semantic character of deictic expressions is one of the abiding puzzles of the philosophy of language". On the one hand, expressions like *today* have a constant meaning, on the other hand they have systematically varying referents since the reference of *today* will always be different tomorrow.

Montague (1975) as cited in Levinson (1983: 24) states that the study of any natural language is pragmatics and not semantics. The semantic deficiency of deictic expressions directs the hearers' attention to the speaker's gesture. For example, the semantic generality of *he* without any prior discourse context forces a contextual resolution in the circumstances of the speech event, e.g.,

5. *He is my father* (said of a man entering the room) (ibid, 2002: 9).

Third-person referring expressions that are semantically deficient, in the sense that their descriptive content does not suffice to identify a referent, invite pragmatic resolution (ibid).

The pragmatic factor is crucial, while semantics is not concerned directly with natural language at all, but only with abstract entities propositions, which sentences and contexts jointly pick out. In many situations a pragmatic interpretation of an utterance will be favoured even if it contradicts the literal semantic component of the proposition.

In traditional semantics, it is assumed that on saying an utterance a speaker is committed to the truth of the proposition uttered and to the fact he believes that the entities to exist. However, very often in everyday communication we may say utterances which are not strictly speaking true, but which can be understood on the basis of contextual clues. In this regard, Higgins (1976: 137) states that "the use of deictic expressions imply that the user has the referent pointed to before him in a direct way, but it does not suggest any knowledge about the referent but merely *here* and *now*. Consider these examples;

6. *I like your shirt.*

The utterance exemplified in this sentence will successfully be understood as referring to the shirt I am wearing at the moment of utterance, even if the speaker may not know that it is not actually my shirt, but my sister's from whom I have borrowed. An interpretation of this kind favours a context-based inferencing process rather than assumption that the literal

meaning expressed by the existential presupposition, i.e, the shirt belongs to me must be true.

7 - Take off your hat, the king said to the hatter.

- It isn't mine, said the hatter.

- Stolen! the king exclaimed, turning to the jury who instantly made a memorandum of the fact.

- I keep them to sell, the hatter added as an explanation: I've none of my own, I am a hatter (Downing, 2000: 4).

This example illustrates clearly the pragmatic nature of deixis and to what extent its successful interpretation depends on the appropriate inferencing on the part of the hearer.

These two examples show that, in ordinary communication we are able to assign reference even if the referring expressions may not be true. A successful inferencing process would hinge upon the understanding of the reference of the deictic *your* as conveying what is most relevant in the context, that is, interpretation in the above examples.

Levinson (2000: 2) argues that a good test for whether an expression is deictic or not is whether an utterance in which it plays a part would be equally true or false regardless of speaker, hearer, time and place of utterance. Thus a sentence like "*the square root of nine is three*" has no obvious deictics, whereas "*we are coming soon*" has only deictic expressions.

All kinds of deictic expressions need to develop a pragmatic framework. So, when there is a doubt a hint should be added within the

sentence to clarify the situation. Consider the case of *person*, if we say; *To the left*, we can either specify it as; *To your left* or leave the point of view implicit in the context as it happens at an army training camp when a sergeant gives an order to his soldiers and shouts 'left' which of course is understood as *to their left* not *his* (Mey, 1992: 93).

Consider the case of *time*, if it said;

8. *I will meet you next month.*

The point of time is *next month* depends on the point of time I am at now. So, *next month* means the month that comes after the current month, it cannot be used *next month* for any new month that has come after some other month.

In order to make the context more explicit we can add coordinate of place, Mey (ibid: 24) says;

If I write to a colleague in Australia that I would like to teach at his university during the summer quarter, chances are that he will not know when to arrange my stay. Am I writing from my point of view (my summer) or am I adopting his? And what does a colleague from Newzealand mean, who (while on a sabbatical in Europe) is telling a story that is supposed to have happened to her last summer.

We can add "in Australia" to last summer; therefore, if we say; *last summer in Australia*, there will be no ambiguity.

It is necessary for a listener to identify the speaker and the time and place of utterance in order to construe fully what is said, and what is meant by what was said. For example

9. *Johny Henry MeTavitty is six feet tall (Levinson, 1983: 58).*

In this example, an English hearer would be expected to understand *six feet tall* as indicating a certain height of the person uttering the words, the meaning is given by what the individual words mean but the asserted height can only be decided by looking at the context in which the words are uttered. In such a case we can understand that the height is indeed of this speaker.

Deictic expressions are inherently unfocusable simply because the referent can never be stated explicitly. It is always determined by the speech environment. What is especially fascinating about deictics is the strong relationship between their forms and context of situation.

In short, pragmatics focuses on a number of special relations between linguistic meaning and context. It concerns itself with context-dependent meaning and thus deixis comes to be one of the central topics.

2.4 Symbolic Deixis and Gestural Deixis

Symbolic deixis refers to a deictic expression whose construing does not necessarily depend on the physical circumstances, but their knowledge of certain aspects of speech communication, e.g.,

10. *Is Johnny there?*

In this example, *there* does not require the hearer to know where exactly the speaker is referring to; therefore, there is no need to point to somewhere. The hearer understands that *there* refers to the room, home, town depending on the context where the hearer is located (Fillmore, 1997:63).

Faerch (1975: 326) shows that besides the linguistic system, the speaker can use deictic gestures either by pointing at the objects and uttering the expressions, e.g,

11. You, you but not you are dismissed.

12. This finger hurts me.

Or, just by pointing. Gestures are not equivalent to speech, but gestures and speech complement each other, consider this example;

13. Put it over there.

If the hearer cannot see where the speaker is pointing to, then he cannot construe what *there* refers to. So, the purest form of deixis is when the participants have to be visible to each other. So, we can say that gestures describe the basic meaning of the deictic expression.

Pointing by a finger is the natural instrument of the demonstratives and it can be replaced by equivalent pointing aids. But without pointing help the specific linguistic pointing procedure could not be fulfilled (Buhler, 1934: 80-81). Pointing by bodily gesture is one method of identification on the part of the speaker. In this etymological definition, personal and demonstrative pronouns are clearly deictic expressions (Levinson, 1983: 60). For example instead of saying; *I am happy*, a speaker can point to himself and say; *happy* instead of saying; *that is beautiful*, a speaker can point to a particular painting at an exhibition and say *beautiful* (Lyons, 1981: 229). Gestural deixis can serve as a substratum for the development of the linguistic and social abilities in human as they grow from pre-linguistic infants into adults (see 2.10 Deixis and Children).

Deictic gesture can provide information about the localisation of a referent that is explicitly or implicitly addressed by a natural language expression.

In the explicit case, the utterance contains a deictic noun phrase that may be resolved by the localisation.

14. *This room is hot.*

In the implicit case, the deictic gesture provides referent for accomplishing an elliptic utterance which is very natural with graphical user interfaces. For example, a speaker may look at a picture and say; *Beautiful* in this case a great deal of information that is given in the situation is elliptic verb phrases without corresponding deictic expressions. Such a command style in the interaction is very likely to occur in human computer interaction. For example, the user may utter *delete* instead of *delete this*.

Some deictic expressions may obligatorily require some gesture, as in *yea big* (American English meaning *this big*), while some like tense inflections may not occur with gestures at all (Levinson, 2002: 31).

The pointing of finger, hand movements, and glances also belong to deictic expressions (Frége, 1967: 24).

Deixis is hardly viewed from the same perspective. The more the subject is probed, the more it discloses itself as difficult to extract clear conceptions.

Halliday and Hassan study deictic expressions focusing on their cohesive properties in a text. They make the view that the primary

determination of whether a set of sentences do or do not constitute a text depends on cohesive relationships within and between the sentences which create a texture (Brown and Yule, 1983: 19).

Muhsin (2000) studies the deictic properties of evidentiality as a way to understand its role in language use (ibid).

Glover (2000) studies deixis to show the relationship between a speaker's attitude towards the object of reference and its sequential placement within the talk along with the impact of deixis of the phenomenon of politeness (ibid).

Tallberg (2001) is concerned with the biological bases of language and investigates the relationship between deictic disturbances and the stroke in the right posterior hemisphere (Ozcan, 2003:2).

Deixis is not a simple unitary concept, it is one of the most argumentative issues in modern linguistics. In the following sections, types of relationships with other subjects will be discussed.

2.5 Deictic Expressions in Computer

The computer media use linguistic expressions, pictures, numerals, colours and abstract signs these expressions are considered as deictic expressions. For example, instead of saying *here* or *this*, the computer media use *an arrow*, *a hand*, *underlining* or *colour*. Instead of saying *soon*, it shows a clock that is blinking (Martinovski, 1995: 3).

The pointing hand shows that the pointed text contains information, pointing to something with a hand activates the information base and leads to another part of the text.

Underlining is a symbol for possibility for further research or activation, its deictic character follows its relation to other parts of the text which are not underlined and from the fact that it shows which parts are to be activated.

These signs are easy to understand and help us to deduce where to find the information.

2.6 Deictic Expressions and Other Words in Language

The lexicon of a language can be divided into: symbol words and pointing words. Therefore, Bühler describes his theory of language as a "two-field theory". He uses the classical terminology and calls them deictic expressions or pointing signs (Bühler, 1934: 372).

Calcagno (2004: 3) summarizes the differences between deictic field and symbolic field as follows:

In linguistic messages there are two fundamental processes which we can and must distinguish in order to understand what is going on, there is first pointing: things and process are indicated. I prefer the Greek word Deixis. Second, there is also representing objects and states of affairs are given a formulation in language and are symbolized by words that designate them in the symbolic field of language.

Deictic field and symbolic field point to two autonomous and separate functions of language with respect to reality (Diessel, 2003: 6).

Deictic expressions are different from symbolic ones (words that are members of large, open group such as nouns and verbs) because they are very few and because new ones rarely enter into a language. For example,

new nouns are adopted by a language quite often, while, deictic expressions are the result of slow and gradual language evolution that can take centuries. Proper nouns are not normally modifier or qualifier at all. Their job is to name something or someone uniquely, so they are unlikely to need deictics (Sinclair, 1972: 137).

Another difference between deictic and other words is that deictic expressions do not indicate in any way at all the nature of their referents. For example; on hearing the noun *teacher* we immediately know a lot about the referent. However, the pronoun *you* or *that* or the adjectives *my* or *this* or the locatives *here* or *there* tell the hearer nothing about their referents instead, they simply point to the actual referent.

Deictic expressions are different in that, they have different kinds of meanings which are context dependent in ways that the meaning of names and descriptions are not and also their meanings play a different kind of role in the interpretations of the utterances that contain them (Nunberg, 1992: 1).

2.7 Deixis and Reference

Reference is defined from a semantic view by Lyons (1981: 168) as a "relation which holds between the linguistic elements (pronoun, demonstrative or comparative) and the non-linguistic world of experience (entities, properties or situations in the outside world)". Kempson (1975: 31) states that "the relationship that holds between the abstract symbols of language (words) and the external world (things) is the relationship of reference". Other similar definitions are given in Lyons (1968); Palmer (1981); Granham (1985) and Bates (1996).

Pragmatic reference is concerned with the study of referential items when referring to the physical characteristics of the context surrounding their utterances or texts (see Lyon's discussion of reference 1977: chapter 7).

Halliday and Hassan (1976) differentiate between two types of reference; situational (exophoric reference) and textual (endophoric reference).

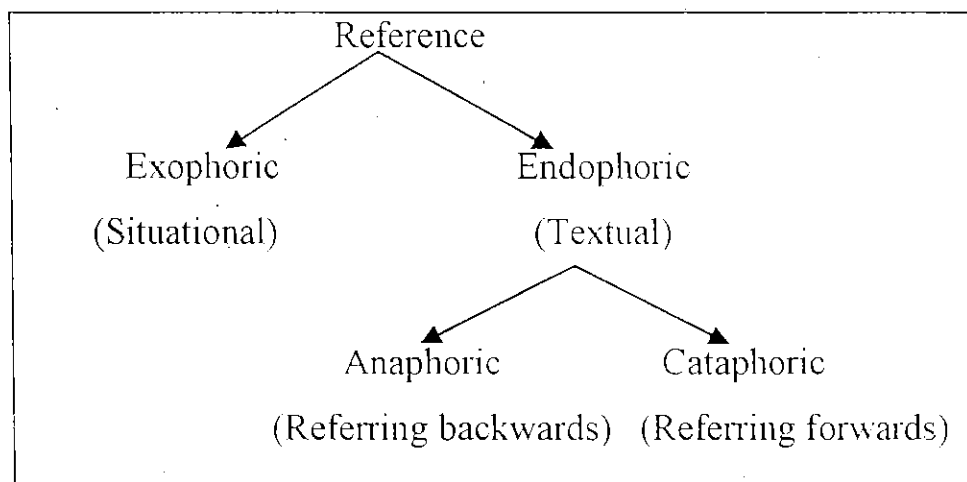


Figure (2) classification of reference system in Halliday and Hassan's (1976)

Exophoric reference signals that the referent must be in the context-dependence, without the context we cannot construe what is said. Exophoric reference does not contribute to the cohesion of a text since its referent is not available in the text, but in the context of situation (see Higgins, 1976: 139).

Endophoric Reference signals the information is found in the text itself. The referent item is derived from the text falls into two categories (anaphoric) or the following one (cataphoric). It uses as a cohesive device to shorten the surface text (Beaugrande and Dressler, 1981: 60).

AL-Tamimi (1998) studies the uses of exophoric and endophoric reference by first and fourth-year college students. The data are collected by asking the students to write a story through looking at pictures.

The researcher has found that the frequency of the use of exophoric reference, decreases with increasing age. It has been found out that the first-year students refer to objects and characters by using exophoric reference (deictic expressions), so they produce narrative texts that cannot be understood or construed without reference to the pictures themselves. This means that the series of pictures must be present if the reader is to understand who and what is being referred to. Their written narratives are therefore, tied to the context of situation whereby the event of the story occurs.

Fourth-year undergraduate college students are more specific in using nominal groups than first-year students. They refer to objects and characters by names. Their narrative texts can be construed on their own without pictures. They make no assumption that the readers can see the picture in front of them and therefore, know who is meant for example by *he*, *she*, *they*, etc.

The main function of the endophoric reference is to create a kind of network or relational cohesion that makes a text perceived as a whole unit (Pike and Pike, 1977: 377).

Reference items are not always textually construed. It has been suggested in fact as Halliday and Hassan (1976: 32) state that reference to the situation is the prior form of reference, while reference within the text is a secondary or derived form of this relation. The success of construing

pragmatic reference depends on identifying the appropriate physical referent and not only on finding a preceding or following linguistic referent (Yule, 1979: 28). In the evolution of language, situational reference precedes text reference since, it is easier to refer to things in face-to-face than to refer to things mentioned in the text (Halliday and Hassan, 1976: 32).

Deixis does not necessarily involve reference because deictic expressions do not name anything but as the etymology of the words says, they point to someone or something. They just signal that reference must be made to the context of situation, like; *John, tree, cat* have referential meaning since they are names for person or objects.

Deixis is like reference because it participates in the creation of text; it links language with the context of occurrence. But it does not participate directly in the cohesion since it does not bind the two elements together into a text (ibid: 36-37).

Halliday and Hassan (ibid: 32) argue that "each utterance or text has its own context as the term 'context' means literally "accompanying text".

2.7.1 Kinds of Reference

2.7.1.1 Personal Reference

Personal reference is reference by means of function in the speech situation by the category of person (ibid: 37). Personal reference is performed by three classes: *personal pronouns, possessive pronouns* and *possessive determiners* (see Lyons, 1977: 638).

18. *An old Negro was one day fishing from a boat near the middle of a river in Africa. There was also a little boy in the boat who kept looking into the water. Suddenly he lost his balance. He fell over the side of the boat into the water. At once, the old man took off his coat and dived after the boy* (Werlich, 1983:36).

2.7.1.2 Demonstrative Reference

Demonstrative reference is essentially a form of verbal pointing. Demonstratives specify which of several possible referents the speaker means.

The forms *this* and *that* are used as exophoric more than endophoric, within the dichotomy of anaphora and cataphora. Halliday and Hassan (1976:68) assert that *that* is always anaphoric, while *this* may be, either anaphoric or cataphoric.

19. (a) *He bought a vase Yesterday.*
 (b) *That vase was expensive.*
20. (a) *I prefer veal and oyster.*
 (b) *Those are my favorites, too (ibid: 60).*

2.7.1.3 Comparative Reference

Comparative reference is indirect reference by means of identity, similarity or difference (ibid: 76). It is construed by being compared with the referent.

Halliday and Hassan (ibid: 76) divide this type into two subtypes: general (deictic) and particular (non--deictic). The general type expresses the identity, similarity or difference between things. The particular subtype, on the other hand is interpreted in terms of quantity or quality. The following classification illustrates the whole system of comparison:

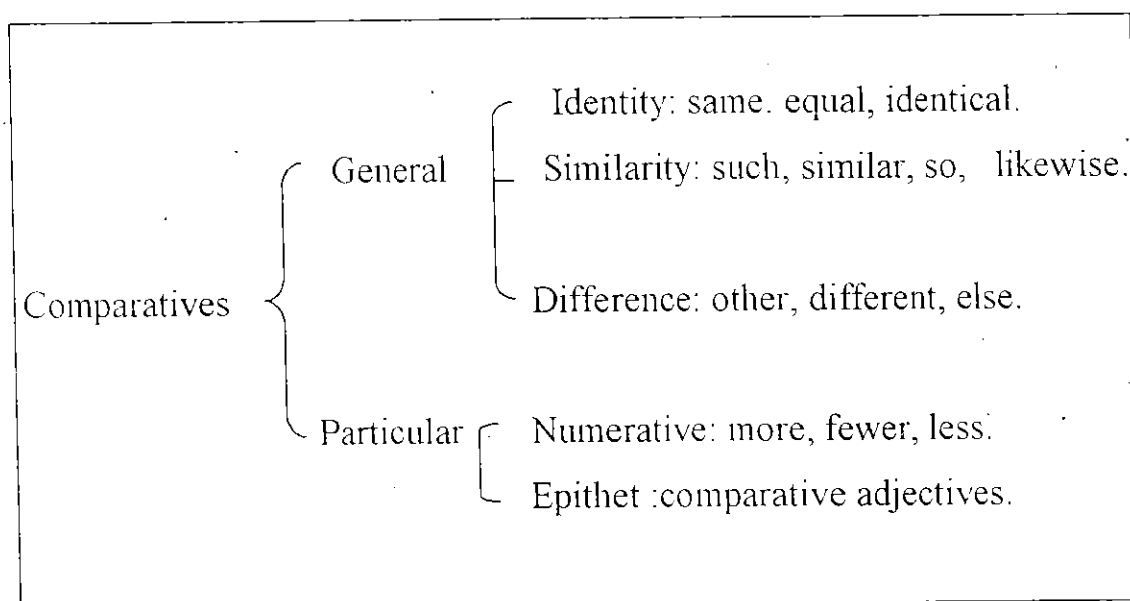


Figure (3)Comparative Reference in Halliday
and Hassan's (1976)

2.7.1.3.1 General Comparison

General comparison expresses likeness between things (persons or objects). The likeness may take the form of identity where two things are the same or of similarity or of difference which includes both not the same and not similar (ibid: 77). Consider the following examples:

property. They are more specific than general comparison (ALTamimi, 1998: 34). If the comparison is in terms of quantity it is expressed by an adjective, e.g, *more* in *more pens*. If the comparison is in terms of quality, it is expressed by a comparative adjective, e.g, *more* in *more difficult tasks* or by an adverb of comparison submodifying an adjective, e.g, *so* in *so difficult question*. Or by an adjunct in the clause, e.g, *slower* in *they drive slower* (Halliday and Hassan, 1976: 80).

In general; personal and demonstrative references involve a sense of reference that is inherently extra linguistic because reference to speech roles, and proximity to the speaker is essentially reference to the situation.

Comparison tends to be more endophoric than exophoric because of the specific nature of the relationship between things that of likeness or comparability.

Deixis is manifested in specific word classes such as; *personal*, *demonstrative* and *possessive pronouns* and *comparative reference*. It can be said that deictic terms introduce the spatio-temporal coordinates of a discourse situation with regard to a deictic centre or point of reference which is egocentric, or oriented from the point of view of the speaker.

Reference; however, is context-dependent by nature and is speaker-motivated. For example; the word *cat* alone does not refer, but we need referring expressions, such as the possessive genitive as in; *Suha's cat*, or the demonstratives; *this cat*.

Reference is typically grammaticalized in the form of articles and pronouns or lexicalised in the form of adverb *here* and *now* (Downing, 2000: 3).

2.8 Deixis and Grammar

It is often argued in grammar books that immediate contexts and deixis are crucial if we want to provide a comprehensive account of reported speech, e.g.

28. (a) Bill said "I shall leave here tomorrow".

(b) Bill said that he would leave there today.

Person (*I*), time (*shall, tomorrow*) and place (*here*) deixis can be converted into the corresponding; person (*he*), time (*would, today*) and place (*there*) deixis from the view point of the current utterances. So in this example, four adjustments are made in the reported speech in order to preserve the correct relationship with the situation of the original utterance.

An utterance reporting an utterance in a different situation cannot faithfully use the deictic terms of the original utterance since deictic terms take their meaning from the situation of utterance (Hurford and Heasley, 1983: 67).

These regular changes in reported speech that arise by the nature of deictic terms make a distinction between the proximal deictic forms in direct speech and the distal ones in indirect speech (Yule, 1996(b): 15).

In English, the proximal terms (near speaker) as *this, here, now* communicate a sense of being in the same context in which the utterance occurs. The distal terms (away from speaker) as *that, there, then* in indirect speech make the original speech events seem more remote (ibid).

29. (a) John "I don't live in this house any more".

(b) John said that he didn't live in that house any more.

30. (a) Suha "I need your help right now".
 (b) Suha said that she needed my help then.

Person, place, and time deixis are firmly anchored in speech situations. In reported speech or thought two different situations are involved: the situation of current utterance and the situation in which the reported utterance was originally produced. This suggests that deictic information can be at least dual, in the same sense that *here* can mean; here in the immediate contexts of the current utterance, or *here* in the speech situation where *here* was originally used, consider the following example;

31. *I shall tell you about the matter here tomorrow.*

Suppose in this example that the speaker is directly addressing the hearer, so that (*I*) refers to the speaker, (*you*) to the hearer, (*here*) to the place of the sentence uttered and (*tomorrow*) to the day after the utterance (Harman, 1997: 6).

Suppose then that the hearer says:

32. *Okay with me, but Bill might say, I do want to do know
 right now*

In this sentence, it is obvious that (*me*) refers to the present speaker. (*I*) refers to Bill, and (*right now*) does not mean the time when the sentence is uttered. Therefore, there are two kinds of deictic information that can interact with each other.

In the second sentence the two first person pronouns refer to different entities and *now* is not the main speaker and hearer's now, i.e, it is possible that conversationalists are involved in at least two kinds of immediate context. Harman (ibid) calls them primary immediate context (PIC) and secondary immediate context (SIC) respectively.

PIC means immediate context anchored to the speech situation in which the present speaker and hearer are deictically involved. SIC means immediate context providing referents for deictic items which do not belong to PIC.

Direct speech is influenced by PIC and SIC while indirect speech is based on PIC, e.g,

33. (a) *John : Mary said , "I want to do it now".*

(b) *John: Mary said she wanted to do it then.*

The first sentence consists of two parts: one is the reporting clause, "Mary said" and the other reported direct speech clause, "I want to do it" now.

In the second sentence, the time 'Mary said she wanted to do it then' is in the past because the time reference is determined by the time when John spoke. In the same way the word *then* is chosen based on speech time of the second sentence.

2.9 Deixis and Arts

Since the theory of deixis has been widely developed not only in linguistic pragmatics but also in such diverse fields as theatre semiotics, poetry, anthropology and graphic arts which are becoming as a fruitful notion as that of the performative utterance also originating in linguistics. For example reading poetry for its deictic features can open new lines of study in older, topics specifically poetic and literary critical such as diction and prosody.

Prosodic and paralinguistic effects are in fact deictic to a certain extent. They involve speaking within a given range of relative loudness, pitch tempo and with a given voice quality (Laver, 1990: 94). In the default case loudness pitch and tempo ranges together with voice quality are anchored to the prosodic / paralinguistic habits of the speaker. That is, speakers are accustomed to deploy and their interlocutors are accustomed to expect certain prosodic and paralinguistic 'reference values'.

A noticeable shift to these values is by using a pitch, loudness or tempo range or voice quality which departs from the speaker's habitus will be heard as shifted deixis and can evoke the presence of a second deictic centre (ibid).

An actor speaks and acts differently according to his character's social status (prince, servant, wife); age (young girl, old, child); actions and feelings.

A singer may choose to reinforce the meaning of deictic words through a gesture directed first toward himself and then toward the audience, deictic words are suited to being associated with body movements (Calcagno, 2004: 4).

2.10 Deixis and Children

Linguists interested in child language which begins from eye-gaze and pointing until it reaches linguistic means, find that deictic expressions are among the first forms to be used by the very young children.

The earliest means of deixis is gaze, infants between two and fourteen months of age can follow an adults' gaze.

Pointing is a later development than gaze. Children are able to reach for objects at about five months and by about nine months reaching and pointing have assumed distinct body gestures.

Children acquire deictic expressions before the other kinds of reference and they prefer to use them more frequently. Ochs (1979: 11) states that speech that is related to here and now is easily acquired at an early stage in the child language development. For this reason children prefer things in front of them as referent than a linguistic referent. Halliday and Hassan (1976: 34-35) give two examples concerning this. The first example occurs between one of the present authors and her three- year-old son.

34. (a) *Child* : why does that one come out ?

(b) *Parent*: that what?

(a) *Child*: That one

(b) *Parent*: *That* what?

(a) *Child*: *That* one

(b) *Parent*: *That* one what?

(a) *Child*: *That* river there *that* you push to let the water out.

In this example, the referent is present in the immediate environment. In the same way his mother tries to pick up the keys from the context of situation.

The other example consists of a series of four pictures which tell a story that is given to two groups of children. The first group is middle class five-year-old, the other is working class five-year-old. The first picture shows some boys playing football, in the second the ball goes through the window of a house, in the third it shows a woman looking out of the window and a man is making an ominous gesture, and in the fourth, the children are moving away.

The two groups of children are invited to tell the story. Here are the two stories;

(1) Three boys are playing football and one boy kicks the ball and it goes through the window and the ball breaks the window and the boys are looking at it and a man comes out and shouts at them because they've broken the window so they run away and then that lady looks out of her window and she tells the boys off.

(2) They're playing football and he kicks it and it goes through there it breaks the window and they're looking at it and he comes out and shouts at them because they have broken it so they run away and then she looks out and she tells them off.

The first story (by middle class children) is free of the context that we can call "less context bound", while the second one (by working class children) is much more closely tied to its context, i.e., "context-bound"(ibid). In the first story the reader does not require the four pictures which are used as the basis for the story, while in the second story the reader requires the initial pictures in order to understand the story. Therefore, it

depends on exophoric reference *he, she, they* and *there* cannot be construed without the pictures. The equals of *they, he,* and *she* are *three boys, one boy, a man* and *that lady*. We find out know the sex from the pronouns and we can assess which are children and which are adults from the story, and it is not hard to conclude that *through there* means *through the window*, and there is nothing ungrammatical.

There is a stronger tendency towards a context-bound use of reference in narratives told by children of working class than in the children of middle class. Children try to relate to things and to relate to each other through things. In peer group interaction the context of situation is the material environment, the things are physically present, so deictic reference poses no problems and any more explicit naming would be unnatural. Children are particularly likely to overgeneralize the exophoric use of article.

Ozcan (2003) has studied the use of deictic expressions by children from three to nine year-old successively and plus thirteen-year-old. Each age group contains fourteen children which sum up 112 participants. The data are collected by having the children tell a story of a boy and his dog who are in search of a pet frog. Children produce the stories by looking at the picture book *Frog, where are you?* by Mayer (1969), in a joint attention context. The stories are audiotaped.

The researcher has found that the frequency of the use of deictic terms, in general, decreases systematically with increasing age. It is found out in this study that age level is an important determiner in the use of deixis in a joint attention context.

Sometimes deixis is hard for a child to understand because it requires switching perspective. Deixis is as confusing as a hall of mirrors; my "I" is your "you", my "this" is your "that", my "here" is your "there" and so forth (Tanz, 1980:145). The child cannot simply imitate the adult usage because the roles of the speaker and hearer switch when this happens, and deictic words like *I* and *you* change their referents, so when the speaker uses the word "you" to refer to the child, the child may also use the word "you" to refer to himself, who is now the speaker, i.e., the child has understood a word like "you" from the perspective of the speaker realizing that person then fills the you role when he becomes the speaker instead of me, e.g., children say things like; *Give you a water, read you a story*.

In a related way, third person pronouns are difficult for children, their appropriate use depends on the ability to know whether the hearer can construe them, that is, in some sense on the ability to put oneself in the position of the hearer because this is apparently difficult for children. They often produce sentences like the following sentence; *He* hit me, in a situation the hearer would have no way of figuring out who *he* is.

Chapter Three

Categories of Deictic Expressions

3.1 Introduction

Speech heavily depends on knowledge of the context: by *whom*, *where* and *when* the utterance is uttered. These three dimensions make up the deictic centre of all linguistic events without which no linguistic expression can be totally construed. This can be seen in this example;

35. He told me to leave it there tomorrow.

Unless the underlined expressions are said in a context, it is impossible for us to identify exactly the entities referred to by pronouns; *he*, *me* and *it*, or the place reference for the adverbs *there*, or the time reference of *tomorrow*.

Discourse and social conditions are also relevant factors in the deictic anchorage of language as well as to demonstratives. So, it is conventional to consider six main notional parameters.

First, there is person deixis reflected in the traditional grammatical categories of three-part division of pronouns (Levinson, 2002: 3).

3.2 Person Deixis

Person deixis localises an entity in relation to the position of speaker and / or hearer. It is a deictic reference to the participant role of a referent (Trask, 1993: 206). Person deixis is commonly expressed by *first*, *second*

and *third* person; where first and second person refer to members of the speech event (current speaker and current hearer respectively) in contrast to the third person. These categories are reflected in pronoun systems (Levinson, 1983: 62).

Personal pronouns as Quirk, et al (1985: 347) say are reference items, the first and the second persons are exophoric, while the third persons are anaphoric and also may be exophoric. Personal pronouns occur more frequently and have more special characteristics than any other type of pronouns. They are called "personal" because they refer to the people involved in the act of communication.

Pronouns are referring expressions, they refer to persons and things in language, they are syntactically equivalent to nominals (Lyons, 1977: 637). Thus when we say;

36. (a) The boy killed the rat,

both nouns in the sentence can be substituted by the pronouns *he* and *it* respectively. So, *he* and *it* stand for the nouns *the boy* and *the rat*. The sentence will become :

(b) *He* killed *it*.

This sentence has different meanings. The meaning changes from one utterance context to another. It gets its meaning from the utterance context, i.e, without knowing the utterance context, or at least knowing who the hearer is, we have no idea what the referents of *he* and *it* are. So, we can say that *he*, *it* and other personal pronouns get their meaning directly from utterance context.

Table (2) Forms of Person Deixis

Person	Singular	Plural
First person pronouns	I	We
Second person pronoun	You	You
Third person pronouns	He / she / it	They

3.2.1 First Person Pronouns

First person pronouns are the grammaticalization of the speaker's reference to himself as a subject of discourse, i.e, first persons are used for reference to the speaker(s) (Levinson, 1983:62).

There are two types of first person pronouns;

3.2.1.1 First Person Singular (I)

The meaning of the pronoun *I* can be described as the speaker of the utterance. The linguistic meaning of the word is restricted to a deictic component, *I* generally seems to conform to standard-direct reference picture of how deixis works. *I* seems to be highly restricted in its possibilities of reference. *Me* is accusative form of *I*, while *mine* and *my* are the possessive forms.

The person pronoun *I* takes its meaning from situation (the speaker) of the utterance in which it is used. Hurdford and Heasley (1983: 63) show that

by saying; "when Ben Heasley says; *I've lost the contract*, the word *I* here refers to Ben Heasley. When Penny Carter says; *I'll send you another one*, the *I* here refers to Penny Carter".

3.2.1.2 First Person Plural (we)

The meaning of the pronoun *we* can be described as the group of people instantiated by the speakers of utterance, *we* has a deictic component which picks out the speaker(s) of one of its occurrences. *We* includes the speaker as well as the person spoken to, but exclude the person(s) spoken about. For this reason it is called an inclusive personal pronoun (Clair, 1973:43).

The pronoun *we* is semantically identical to *I*; therefore, *we* and *I* pick out the same index, *we* can also be exclusive ,e.g,

37. We go home.

We in this sentence can mean ; *I* go home and *he/she/they* go home .

It is customary to distinguish between an inclusive and an exclusive use of the pronoun (Lyons, 1968: 278).

The pronoun *we* does not mean the plural of the first person singular pronoun *I* as *boys* is the plural form of *boy*. But it merely includes a reference to *I* and another person(s).

We can refer either to males or females or to both of them. This can be demonstrated in the following example

38. We can get somewhere.

We in this example can refer to *I* and *you* or *he* or *she*.

The pronoun *we* is used for the plural but is also used to refer to the singular by kings or by those with highly status. When *we* is used in this way, it expresses majesty.

Us is the accusative form of *we*, while *our*, *ours* are the possessive forms.

39. *They are ours.*

3.2.2 Second Person Pronoun

Second person pronoun is the grammaticalization of the speaker's reference to one or more hearers (ibid: 276) i.e, reference that does not include the speaker but includes at least the hearer. The second person is *you* which may be either singular or plural.

The meaning of *you* can be described as the hearer(s). The pronoun *you* may be either inclusive or exclusive *you* may include the hearer's presence in which case it is the plural of the singular *you* in some sense as *boys* the plural of *boy*. Therefore, *you* is called an inclusive personal pronoun or *you* may refer to some other person or persons in addition to the hearer(s), in this case *you* is an exclusive pronoun (ibid: 276). Consider these examples;

40. (a) *You are a clever student.*

(b) *You are clever students.*

It is clear that *you* in the first sentence is singular since it is followed by a singular noun, while in the second it is plural because it is followed by the plural noun. *You* is the accusative form of *you*, while, *your* and *yours* are the possessive forms.

3.2.3 Third Person Pronouns

Third person pronouns are used to refer to persons and entities other than the speakers and hearers of the utterance (Levinson, 1983: 62). Reference which is not first person or second person belongs to this category which is known as "third-person".

The third person pronouns are:

1. *He*; refers to someone that is not the speaker or hearer and is perceived as male.
2. *She*; refers to someone that is not the speaker or hearer and is perceived as female.
3. *It*; refers to something which is perceived as non-human whether it is feminine or masculine. It is part of the personal pronoun system, even though it refers to non-personal entities.
4. *They*; comprises the singular male human *he*, and singular human *she* and non-human *it*.

Him, here, it and them are the accusative forms for *he, she, it* and *they* respectively, while *his, here, hers, its, and their, theirs* are the possessive forms.

Sometimes person deixis is hard to realize especially for children because it requires a change in perspective, i.e, deictic centre shifts from one participant to another. This change in perspective can be illustrated in the following joke.

A melamed [Hebrew teacher] discovering that he had left his comfortable slippers back in the house, sent a student after them with a note for his wife. The note read "Send me your Slippers with this boy". When the student asked why he had written "your" slippers, the melamed answered: "Yold! if I wrote "my" slippers, she would read "my" slippers, what Could I do with her slippers ? So I wrote "your" slippers, she'll read "your" slippers and send me mine" (Rosten, 1968: 443-4) as cited in (Levinson, 1983: 68).

This story shows that it is important to have the right point of view so the speaker can be distinct from the source of an utterance.

It is important to note that third person is quite unlike first or second person because it does not correspond to any specific participant role in the speech event (Lyons, 1977: 638). The speaker and hearer are necessarily present in the situation, whereas other persons and things to which reference is made may not only be absent from the situation of utterance. They may be left unidentified. The third person is negatively defined with respect to first person and second person since only the speaker and hearer are actually participating in the drama.

3.2.4 Classification of Person Deixis

Lyons (1981:233) divides person deixis into two kinds; "pure deixis" and "impure deixis".

1. **Pure deixis**; includes first-persons and second-person. They refer to the locutionary agent and the hearer without adding information about them so they are the positive members of person deixis .
2. **Impure deixis**; includes the third-persons that do not refer to participants in the situation of utterance; therefore, they are considered as negative members and they are dispensable.

In a similar way Halliday and Hassan (1976:44) give a person two kinds of roles: “speech roles” and “other roles”.

1. **Speech roles**; comprise the role of speaker and hearer (first and second person).
2. **Other roles**; comprise all other relevant entities other than the speaker and hearer.

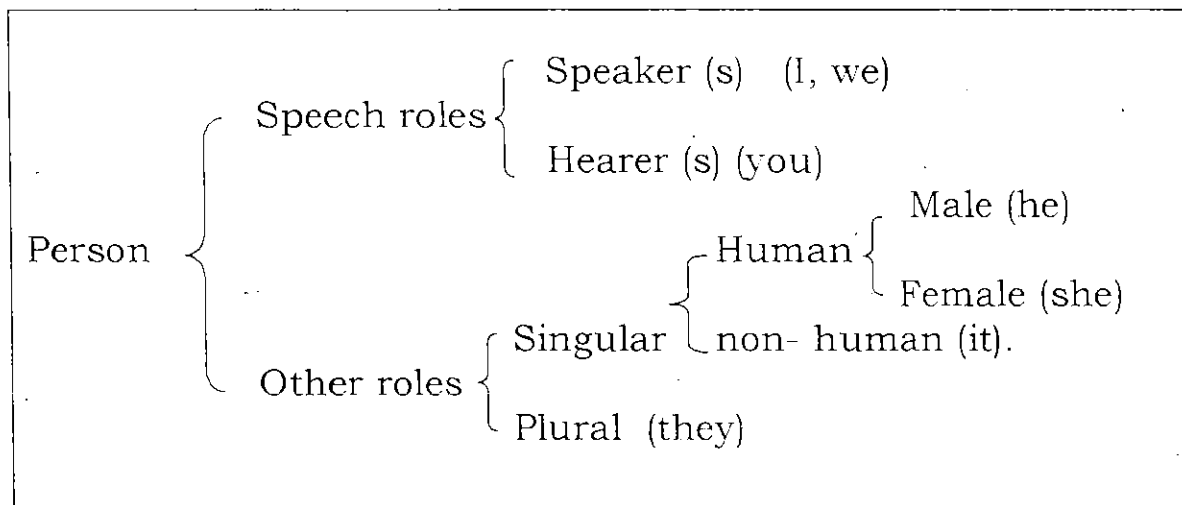


Figure (4) Classification of person in Halliday and Hassan's 1976

Many traditional grammars have a category of third person imperative covering essentially the same situation: in such a scenario, the speaker is analytically dividing the notion of a “hearer” into two distinct sub-roles; a person actually spoken to by the speaker, and an illocutionary target of the utterance (Levinson, 2002: 36).

In a similar way, some languages have specific ways of indicating that the speaker is merely the mouth-piece for someone else, thus distinguishing the actual speaking role from the illocutionary source of the message (ibid).

In English, we can use the same imperative forms, as in,

41. *You are to bring it now.*

to indicate that the speaker is not the originator of the message.

Another important phenomenon related to person is the whole field of honorifics, which typically make reference to speaking and recipient roles, but which are dealt with separately below under the rubric of social deixis (3.6).

In short; person deixis has a special importance because of its omnipresence, it is a grammatical category marked or implicit in every utterance which is indicated by *first*, *second* and *third* person in normal or verbal paradigms either explicitly or implicitly.

3.3 Temporal Deixis

Temporal deixis localises the speech event in time by means of tense inflection on verbs, adverbs (*now*, *then*) or nouns (*Tuesday*, *March*) which can be analysed as temporal deixis.

3.3.1 Tense

Temporal deixis is grammaticalized mainly in the tense system of the particular language. Lyons (1968: 305) as cited in (Abdul-Wahid, 1982: 17) defines tense as "a deictic category which is like all syntactic features partly or wholly dependent upon deixis". The suitable definition is that of Jespersen (1931:1) who states that "tense is a deictic category which expresses the temporal relationship between the event described by the verb

and actual utterance". So tense is considered as a property of the sentence and the utterance whose function is to relate the time of the event or state of affairs mentioned in the sentence to the time of utterance.

Lyons (1977: 668) writes "tense grammaticalizes the relationship that links between the time of the situation and temporal zero-point of the deictic context". Therefore, the most pervasive aspect of temporal deixis in English is in the choice of verb tense (Yule, 1996(b): 14). The temporal zero-point is the moment at which the utterance is issued. The distinction of past, present and future is essential to the notion of tense (Lyons, 1977: 677). In English, all sentences are tensed, and tense is deictic as in; *It is Friday*, where *is* locates the reference time as today. True tenses locate time relative to the moment of speaking, so that past tense is used for events of situations preceding it and present for events including it, future tense for events succeeding it. So tense system is deictic because it locates events in the present or past (Finch, 2000: 214).

Morphologically, English has no future form of the verb in addition to present and past forms, most grammarians state that English has only two basic forms of tense; present and past.

Some grammarians talk about a "future time" arguing that English realizes this time by the use of an auxiliary verb construction (Quirk et al, 1985, 171; Eckersley and Eckersley, 1960: 161). Therefore, futurity is never a purely temporal concept, certain grammatical constructions are capable of expressing the semantic category of future time. The tense of the following sentences are present and past respectively.

42. (a) He plays football here now .
 (b) He played football there then.

In the case of the present tense the action takes place at the same time of the utterance, it is the proximal form while in the past tense the action takes place prior to the utterance point .

Some grammarians go further in reference to tense. They prefer the term “non-past” for the present tense (Brown and Miller, 1980: 109; Greenbaum, 2000: 247). Present tense is realized by the base form of the verb; therefore, it is treated as unmarked tense, present tense may be used to express not only present but also future time. For example:

43. Tomorrow is Monday.

Tenses are traditionally categorized as absolute (deictic) and relative (anterior or posterior to a textually specified time) (Levinson, 2002: 39).

Absolute tense is the kind of tense which uses only one orientation point such as *now* or the simple English past, such tenses are called simple while, relative tenses use a secondary orientation point such as a second past moment as in the past perfect tense, e.g,

44. When he came to the park, his wife had already eaten
 a hamburger (see Quirk et al., 1985:1080).

3.3.1.1 Tensed and Tenseless

The terms tensed and tenseless are sometimes used in a way that tends to confuse the distinction between deictic and non-deictic temporal reference. Lyons (1977:679) writes,

If a language is without tense, then all its sentences will be tenseless (though some of them would contain deictic adverbs) or language has tense, then in principle some of its sentences may be tenseless and others will be tensed.

For languages that have tense, this grammatical category is normally obligatory, and ensure that nearly all sentences are deictically anchored and have interpretations relativized to context. So, in English, nearly all sentences are tensed, and tense is deictic as in;

45. *It is Sunday*, where is locates the reference time as today.

Many languages in fact have no absolute deictic tenses (Classical Arabic is a case in point), although they may pick up deictic interpretations by implicature (Levinson, 2002: 401). Yet, other languages like Chinese and Malay do not have tense at all. They do not obligatory relate the time of the event to the time of utterance. All languages have deictic adverbs of time comparable with the English words; *now, then, recently, today*, etc.

3.3.2 Temporal Adverbs

Bronzwaer (1975:55) classifies deictic time adverbs into two paradigms, the first one is "now paradigm" as in;

46. (a) *I write now*, and the second is "then paradigm" in;

(b) *I wrote then*.

Accordingly "this paradigm" can be considered as belonging to the "now paradigm", while "that paradigm" belongs to "then paradigm". The following examples explain it.

At this time

At that time

On this time

Since that time

Utterances may also place events in relation to a deictic centre other than the time of utterance, often relations to such a referent time are indicated with temporal adverbs, such as *when*, *after*, *before*, *until* (Quirk et al, 1985: 1080).

47. *He waited until he came back.*

48. *Give him the books when you reach the library.*

3.3.3 Calendrical Nouns

There are many other manifestations of temporal deixis from calendrical specifications that refer to specific time periods such as, *today*, *tomorrow*, *yesterday*, etc.

The nature of calendrical nouns varies across cultures. Some languages recognize the day as a diurnal unit, and has words for yesterday and the day before, and special monomorphemic words for tomorrow, the day after tomorrow and so forth for ten days into the future, and thereafter a generative system for specifying days after that (Levinson, 2002: 38). Units of temporal measurement in English, may either be fixed by reference to the calendar or not thus;

49. *I will do it this month,*

is ambiguous between guaranteeing achievement within thirty days from utterance time or within the calendar unit beginning in *January* or *February* including the time of utterance (ibid). We can modify, the deictic adverb by a previous modifier version of the measure word (Morneau, 2004: 112). Here are some examples,

Today = pre + day

Yesterday = past + day

Tomorrow = future + day

Earlier today = past, same time unit + day

Later today = future, same time unit + day

Expressions like *today* and *tonight* can replace *this day* and *this night* unless modifiers are added as in,

50. *This beautiful night* (Bedir, 1979: 66).

Frege (1967:24) writes;

If someone wants to say the same today as he expressed yesterday using the word today, he must replace this word with yesterday. Although the thought is the same, its verbal expression must be different so that the sense, which would otherwise be affected by the differing times of utterance is readjusted.

51. "It's very good jam", said the Queen "well, I don't want any today, at any rate". "You couldn't have it if you did want it", the queen said. "The rule is, jam tomorrow and jam yesterday, but nevery jam today" "It must come sometimes to jam today. Alice objected. "No, it can't". said the queen. it's jam every other day: today isn't any other day ; you know". (Downing, 2000: 4).

The deictic *today* has a lexical meaning component which stands for the current day, while the indexical component will single out different instances of days depending on the context of utterance. The indexical component of the deictic *today* corresponds to its function as "pointer", or its ability to single out the specific date which corresponds to the expression

today in a given context. *Today* stands for the current day. It is a proximal deictic because it indicates closeness with the time-reference of the speaker and contrasts with other time expressions such as *tomorrow* and *yesterday*.

Distal deictics are the expressions that indicate distant time reference from the point of view of the speaker. Deictic expressions are thus, relative to their context of utterance.

This point is also made by many owners of shops, bars, etc, who have notes put up in their establishment saying that credit is always granted *yesterday* and *tomorrow*, but never *today*.

We also use elaborate systems of non-deictic temporal reference such as: calendar time (date) or clock time (hours) as in the following examples;

52. *November 22nd 1963? I was in Scotland then.*

(Levinson, 1983: 73).

53. *Dinner at 8:30 on Saturday? Okay I'll see you then*

(Yule, 1996 (b): 14).

If we don't know the utterance time of a note as in; *back in two hours* on an office door we don't know if we have a short or along wait ahead. We cannot predict when he will come back unless the time he wrote the note is explicitly stated.

There are connections among *tense*, *aspect* and *mood* that may be conveniently made here.

3.3.4 Mood and Modality

Mood categories are like tense categories in that they are deictic. Mood is a grammatical category related to the inflectional form of verbs which is exploited in languages to express attitudes of the mind of the speaker towards the content of the sentence (Jespersen, 1924: 313). Three moods are distinguished in English as follows,

1. **The imperative mood**; the mood of request, command, warning, etc.
2. **The subjunctive mood**; refers to an event taking place in an imaginary sphere, e.g,

54. *I will write as soon as I can.*

3. **The indicative mood**: refers to an event occurring in the real world.

55. *The sun rises every morning.*

Jespersen (*ibid*: 319) describes these moods as the mood of *will*, *thought* and *fact* respectively.

Mood relates the verbal action to such conditions as *certainty*, *obligation*, *necessity* and *possibility* (Greenbaum, 2000: 67).

55. *“It was much pleasanter at home, thought poor Alice, “when one wasn’t growing larger and smaller, and being ordered about my mice and rabbits. I almost wish I hadn’t gone down that rabbit hole- and yet- and yet- it’s rather curious. You know this sort of life!” (Downing, 2000: 9).*

In this example, we see a contrast between the situation in which Alice finds herself at present, this sort of life, and what used to be her life at home. This shift, (i.e; it was much pleasanter at home to this sort of life) indicates that there is a change in possible world in linguistic terms.

In temporal deixis the remote or distal form can be used to communicate not only distal form current time but also distant from current reality or facts (Yule 1996 (b): 15). Therefore, there is a close relation between the subjunctive forms and the past or the future time forms (Ikegami, 1976: 42). For example, *then* can refer to future time as well as past.

57. *I will see you then.*

58. *I was in Britain then.*

Modality is sometimes used to include mood and it may be expressed by prosodic and paralinguistic features such as stress or gestures; therefore, deixis is in fact part of modality function of language.

There is a relationship between future time and modality since future can be used to express *supposition, intention, inference, permission, wish*(Lyons, 1977: 816).

Halliday (1976: 205) states that "both tense and modality are deictic but they differ only in the type of deixis involved ,i.e, at the time of speaking or in the opinion". Modality deals with judgements which are grammaticalized through the use of modal auxiliaries and it is expressed by the judgements that include *certainity, possibility, ability, permission, intention and obligation*.

59. Can I take your pen?
 60. They may go tomorrow.
 61. You must work hard.

Modality can be understood if we think of modalized utterance as semantically consisting of modal and non-modal (Householder, 1971: 84 as cited in Abdul -Wahid, 1982: 15), for example the sentence;

62. *It may be raining*, contains the non-modal component.
it be raining.

3.3.5 Aspect

Levinson(2002:39)writes;

The grammatical categories called tenses usually encode a mixture of deictic time distinctions, which are often hard to distinguish. Analysts tend to set up a series of pure temporal distinctions that roughly correspond to the temporal aspects of natural language tenses and then catalogue the discrepancies.

One might gloss the English present tense as specifying that the event holds during the time of utterance, the past tense as specifying that the event held before the time of utterance, the future time as specifying that the event succeeds the time of utterance, the pluperfect as in; he had *gone*, as specifying that the event happened at a time before the event described in the past tense and so on (ibid).

Aspect refers to a grammatical category which reflects different ways of viewing the internal temporal constituency of situation (Comrie, 1976: 3).

Lyons (1977: 705) states that "it is grammatically agreed that while tense is deictic, aspect is non-deictic". This means that aspect is not relative

to the time of utterance, rather it describes the internal time of the situation.

English has two aspects: *perfect* and *progressive*. The perfect aspect indicates that an action has or had been completed as in:

63. (a) *he had played football.*

The progressive aspect indicates that an action is or was in progress like:

(b) *He is playing football.*

Aspect is always combined with tense. Thus, *had played* is past perfect because *had* is past tense.

3.4 Spatial Deixis

Spatial deixis refers to how languages show the relationship between space and location of the participants in the discourse. It localizes the speech participants and narrates participants in space by uses of verbs (come, go), adverbs (behind, in front of) and place names such as (London).

Deictic locations always have to be specified with respect to the location of a participant at coding time (the time of utterance), i.e, place deixis always incorporates a covert time deixis element while the converse is not true (Levinson, 1983:85).

The importance of spatial deixis can be gauged by means of two ways of referring expressions to objects either by informing the hearer where it is, i.e, by locating it for him or by telling him what properties it has, i.e, by naming or describing it for him (Lyons, 1977: 684). It is very easy for the hearer to identify its referent by the information whether locative or

qualitative that is encoded in a deictic expression. English makes use of two adverbs *here* and *there*. These two adverbs include the meaning of motion toward or away from the speaker (Yule, 1996 (b): 12).

Levinson (1983:79) says that "the pure place deixis includes the adverbs *here* and *there* and the pronouns *this* and *that*". Adopting a similar view, Diessel (1999: 38) writes the deictic adverbs, like *here* and *there* may be the most direct and most universal examples of spatial deixis.

3.4.1 Places and Entities

There is an important distinction between places and entities. Places are not entities. So entities are not places, but in so far as they occupy space, entities may serve to identify the spaces that they occupy (Lyons, 1977: 693).

64. (a) *I will meet you at the car.*
 65. (a) *John is by Susan.*
 66. (a) *My luggage is with Peter.*

These sentences can be paraphrased as;

64. (b) *I will meet you at the place where the car is.*
 65. (b) *John is where Susan is.*
 66. (b) *My luggage is where Peter is.*

In example (64) the car is used indirectly to identify a place. In all such examples we are relating an entity to a place but we refer to the place indirectly in terms of the entity that it contains and this is tantamount to treating the entity as a property of a place.

3.4.2 Orientation

Most prepositions like; *by, over, under, above, below, behind* and *in front of* can be used in a static sense of orientation, indicating a point where in reality or imagination the speaker standing (Quirk et al., 1973: 151).

67. *He lives across the moors.*

68. *The house is beyond the castle.*

Point of orientation shows deictic features of meaning similar to that of the demonstrative use of *this* in these phrases.

69. *This side of the box.*

70. *This side of the tree (Levinson, 1983: 82).*

In the first sentence *this side* means the surface of the box that can be called a side which is nearest to the location of the time of utterance, while in the second sentence means area of the tree visible from the point where the speaker is at the time of utterance.

Spatial reference is usually relative to perspective, which can be either utterer space or reference space. The latter has a deictic centre distinct from the perspective of the utterer, consider these two examples;

71. *The car is behind the bus.*

72. *Suha stood to the left of Zeki.*

It is obvious that in the first sentence the bus is visible and the car is hidden from the view of speaker, *behind* can have a deictic usage, i.e, the

bus may simply mean between the speaker and the car. *Behind* may have a non-deictic usage, i.e., the car may locate on that side of the bus usually seen at its intrinsic rear end.

The second sentence can have a deictic usage where Suha may be understood to be on the left from the speaker's point of view, or a non-deictic usage where Suha may be to Zeki's own left. Spatial expressions like *left* and *right* require a perspective determined by the spatial orientation of the utterer. But any thing outside the utterer can be made into the deictic centre.

3.4.3 Horizontal and Vertical Directions

Lyons (1977: 282) draws a distinction between horizontal and vertical relations. There are two horizontal dimensions neither of which is fixed while vertical dimension, i.e., the difference between upwards and downwards, is fixed by the effects of the force of gravity or anything comparable.

Horizontal directions include the prepositions; *in front of* and *behind*, while the prepositions; *above*, *over*, *under*, *on the top*, *underneath*, and *beneath* express relative positions in a vertical direction (see Lecchi, 1974:130).

73. *The computer is above the TV.*

74. *The TV is below the computer.*

75. *The car is in front of the bus.*

76. *The bus is behind the car.*

These distinctions are combined with the deictic distinction of *here* versus *there*.

3.4.4 Polarity

There is not only directionality but also polarity in the case of *up-down*, *front-back* and *above-below* relations. What is above the ground and in front of us is visible to us and available for interaction and what is beneath the ground or behind us is not (Lyons, 1977: 691).

This fact may be represented by a featural notation with *up*, *front* and *above* [+vertical], [+polar] whereas *down*, *back* and *below* as [+vertical], [-polar] (Clark, 1980: 58).

Polarity and markedness in pairs of directional opposites derive, not only in the vocabulary of location but also from natural properties of the egocentric perceptual space but there is no reason for recognizing a positive and negative polarity in the right-left dimension rather we can say right-hand side as positive and left hand side as negative (Lyons, 1977: 69).

Lyons (ibid: 695) distinguishes between the oppositions of the two sets north-south and east-west and says that the use of such terms exemplifies one method for specifying the location of objects not objects

3.4.5 Verbs of Motion

There is a small set of verbs, such as *come-go*, *bring-take* which retain a deictic sense when they are used to mark movement toward the speaker (Lyons, 1995: 12).

The pair *come-go* can usually be seen as antonyms. They make some sort of distinction between the direction of motion relative to participants in the speech event (Levinson, 1983: 83). We may note that;

77. *He is coming on Friday,*

seems to be understood as: *he is moving towards the speaker location at first on Friday to where the current speaker will be on Friday.* *Come* retains a deictic sense in use, that normally carries the sense of movement towards the speaker, while *go* has a much wider range of collocational relationships in which the sense of *go* is often relatively bleached, it can be used deictically (Brown, 2000: 62) as in;

78. *My brother is going to Paris on Thursday,*

which may imply that, my brother will be going away from where the speaker lives on Thursday. *Go* is widely used as a verb which indicates only the taking place of motion from one place to another, without any implication of deictic involvement on the part of the speaker or writer, there is a deictic usage of *come* that is based on normative location or home-base when neither speaker, nor hearer is at home (Levinson, 1983: 84), e.g;

79. *I came to visit you, but you were never there.*

The pair '*depart-leave*' can be used deictically. *Depart* like *leave* appears to focus on the source from which the movement derives and implies a path between a source and a goal (Levin, 1993:264). *Leave* means; go away from, i.e, go away from that place, whereas the verb *depart* means; to go away from somewhere.

Brown (2000:63) writes;

For any verb of motion, it may be the case that source and goal are both specified or either source or goal but not both are specified, or neither is specified. Where either source or goal is left un-specified, it is always appropriate for a listener to then pose a question such as where from? or where to ?

Consider these examples,

80. *He went out of the school (source).*

81. *He went to the school (goal).*

82. *He is walking.*

The most typical use of both *depart* and *leave* appears to focus on the source from which the movement derives.

83. *We departed from Paris at 7 a.m.*

Taylor (1996: 134) claims that the verb of motion *come* suggests a comforting effect of closeness while, the verb *depart* indicates alientation from unpleasant entities.

3.4.6 The Relations between Temporal and Spatial Deixis

Lyons (1977: 685) states that in the canonical situation-of-utterance, the temporal zero-point is identical for both speaker and hearer, but they can be in different places at the same time. This happens in the situation of phone calling where the speaker and hearer share real time, but different places.

The speaker might be reporting the content of a long-distant telephone conversation. One person being in London and the other in Los Angeles, the first person may say;

84. *It is raining here now,*

in this utterance *here* and *now* are similar. *Here* will be understood as referring to the place and *now* to the time of utterance.

The difference is that both persons, knowing that they are in different places, will adjust their use of *here* and *there* accordingly. They will assume that *now* refers to the same point of time in London as it does in Los Angeles. Therefore, it makes sense for the first person to say:

85. *It is raining now in London or
What time is it now in Los Angeles?*

Lyons (ibid: 669) states that "spatial deixis is more fundamental than time deixis". Localism (the theory that refers to the hypothesis that the spatial expressions are more basic than various kinds of non-spatial expressions) seems to be in harmony with the fact that many deictic expressions in the temporal domain are borrowed from the spatial domain so, *here* and *there* are the sources for *now* and *then* (Anderson and Keenan, 1985: 298).

Spatial deictic expressions like *here* and *there* can be analysed as meaning *at this place* and *at that place* respectively, So *now* and *then* can be analysed as meaning, *at this time* and *at that time*, therefore, we can say place deictic expressions like *this* and *that* can be used in a temporal sense.

Many languages work with a moving time metaphor, so that we talk about the coming week and the past year which is natural since motion involves both space and time.

The temporal prepositions and connectives like; *in*, *at*, *before*, *for*, *since* which are temporal rather than spatial are derived historically from spatial description (Lyons, 1977: 718; Levinson, 2002: 41). Examples are,

104. (a) *That is a lion.*
 (b) *Don't touch it.*

105. (a) *That is a lion .*
 (b) *Spell it for me.*

Levinson (1983: 80) concludes that “the distinction between such sentences is clear. In the first sentence *it* is anaphoric since it refers to the same entity as a prior linguistic expression refers to”.

In the second sentence *it* is discourse deixis since it refers to a linguistic expression itself.

Lyons (1977: 673) says “deixis is more basic than anaphora”. Deixis is one of the principal means open to us putting entities into the universe of discourse. While anaphora presupposes that the referent must have its place in the universe-of-discourse.

3.5.4.1 Impure Textual Deixis

It is not always easy to draw the distinction between discourse deixis and anaphora. Consider this example;

106. (a) *George says: I've never even seen him, and*
 (b) *John responds: That's a lie (ibid: 668).*

It is obvious that *that* does not refer neither to the text sentence uttered by George, nor to the referent of any expression in it. So, its function seems to fall somewhere between anaphora and deixis.

3.5.5 Relation between Discourse, Time and Place Deixis

Discourse unfolds in time ; therefore, it is natural to use deictic words to refer to portions of the discourse (Levinson, 1983: 85). For example,

in the last section and in the next chapter.

Place deixis can also be used to refer to forthcoming or preceding portions of the discourse especially by the demonstratives *this* and *that* (ibid).

Diessel (1999: 103) summarizes the distinctions between anaphora and discourse deixis in the following table,

Table (3) Anaphora and discourse deixis

Anaphora	Discourse Deixis
1. They are co-referential with a prior noun phrase	1. They refer to chunks of discourse.
2. They keep track of discourse referents	2. They link two discourse units
3. They always refer backward	3. They refer both forward and backward
4. The referent usually persists in the subsequent discourse	4. The referent usually does not persist in the subsequent discourse.

3.6 Social Deixis

Language is part of sociocultural behavior and as such, it is both governed by social rules, and at the same time it reflects the way a given community or society works. In this sense language as a system of classification and categorisation reveals the kinds of mental representations that are encoded linguistically in different societies (Downing, 2000: 1):

Social deixis has to do with the marking of social relationships in linguistic expressions, with direct or oblique reference to the social status or role of participants in the speech event.

Social deixis is concerned with the relationship between participants and how this relationship influences the choice of deictic elements used (Fillmore, 1975: 76) as cited in (Levinson, 1983: 89).

Socially deictic expressions encode social distinctions that are relative to participant-roles (Brown and Yule, 1983: 54). Social deictic expressions are determined by certain realities of the social situation in which the speech act occurs.

In English we can use different terms to address according to our social position relative to the hearers. For example, "I would say *Mr. President* but the Attorney General might say *Bill*" (David, 1994:8).

3.6.1 Kinds of Social Deixis

Levinson (1983: 90) says that there are two basic kinds of social deictic information that seem to be encoded in languages around the world. These are *relational* and *absolute* social deixis.

3.6.1.1 Relational Social Deixis

The relational variety is the most important kind of social deixis. It is a deictic reference to a social relationship between the speaker and the referent, hearer, bystander and setting (ibid, 2002: 51).

Table (4) classification of relational social deixis in Levinson (2002:51).

Axis	Honorific	Other linguistic encoding
1. speaker to referent	Referent honorifics	Titles
2. Speaker to hearer	Hearer honorifics	Address forms
3. Speaker to bystander	Bystander honorifics	Taboo vocabularies
4. Speaker to setting	Formality levels	Register

The first axis honour can only be expressed by referring to the entity to be honoured, while in the second axis the honour may be expressed while talking about unrelated matters. The third axis is encoded in bystander honorifics which are used to signal respect to a non-addressed but present party. Dixon (1980:59) says “many Australian languages have taboo vocabularies used in the presence of real or potential in-laws, or those who fell in a marriagable section for ego but were too close to marry”. The fourth axis involves respect conveyed to the setting. For example; British English speakers can switch from first name to title plus last name according to the formality of the situation (Levinson, 2002:52).

Many languages have distinct registers used on the formal occasions where *eat* becomes *dine*, *home* becomes *residence*, etc.

Social deixis applies to the ways in which speakers can reflect their own social status or the status of the hearer or even the status of non-participants when they are talking about the ways of reflecting social relations in general.

3.6.1.1.1 Honorific Distinctions

Lyons (1968: 280) writes;

The honorific dimension is introduced to account for the differentiation of the personal pronouns in certain languages, not in terms of their reference to the roles of the participants in the situation of utterance, but in terms of their relative status or degree of intimacy.

Honorifics are socially deictic, as they are indicators of the relationship between participants. If they do not know each other, or the status of the speaker is trying to show respect for the hearer, a polite form of the personal pronoun is required (Calude, 2002: 3). For example; the use of the first person plural rather than the first person singular expresses majesty since the ruler speaks of himself in his official announcement by using the first person plural *we* rather than the first person singular *I*, and for this reason *we* is called the royal pronoun (Abbas, 1980: 29).

So, the pronoun *we* can be used to refer to the singular when the speaker has a certain high social status, it is used by and with presidents, kings, lords, etc. For example; A president or king may say, *we decree* instead of *I decree*.

In this connection Brown and Yule (1983: 54) write,

Lyons (1977:574) distinguishes between the deictic role of an individual (which assigns, for instance: first, second, and third person pronouns) and his social role or "status". Lyons points out that, for example, the terms of address used by social inferior to a social superior may be different from those used between peers, as in vocative terms like Sir or 'Doctor' or 'my lord' (in the courtroom).

A good example of a social contrast encoded within person deixis is the distinction between forms used for a familiar versus a non-familiar hearer in some languages. This is known as T/V distinction from the French tu (familiar) and vous (non-familiar) (Yule, 1996 (b): 10).

The choice of one form communicates something about the speaker's view of his relationship with the hearer. The use of third person pronouns where a second person form would be possible indicates distance. This can be done in English for an ironic or humorous purpose as when one person who is very busy in the kitchen, addresses another who is being very lazy, as in,

107. *Would his highness like some coffee?* (ibid. 11).

The distance associated with third person forms can be used also to make potential accusations, as in;

108. *You haven't washed your cup* (ibid) which can be less direct as in,

109. *Somebody hasn't washed her cup* (ibid).

The speaker can also state such rules by using the first person plural as in,

110. *We are used to wash our cups after having coffee* (ibid).

The pronoun *we* has a potential for ambiguity between exclusive *we* and inclusive *we*; The listener has to decide if he is a part of the group to whom the rules apply.

Persons make distinctions between the social status of the speaker and hearer. The higher, older, and more superior speaker will tend to use a familiar version to a lower, younger, and less powerful hearer and be addressed by the non-familiar form in return. Participants are either of equal social status or not and, if they are of unequal status, one of them will be the superior and the other is inferior. Social superiority may depend upon social status ,i.e, parents being superior to sons, teachers being superior to pupils, and an older person to a young person and so on (Lyons, 1977: 641).

But consider this case, when a young business woman with higher economic status) is talking to her older cleaning lady (lower economic status).

It is clear that there is a conflict between the two correlates and this conflict will be resolved either by their operating with an assumption of social equality ,i.e, each one refers to himself as an inferior and refers to the other as a superior or by claiming that the age distinction remains more powerful than the economic distinction and the older woman uses a familiar version and the younger uses an unfamiliar one (Yule, 1996(b): 11).

In general, only one role is taken by an individual at one particular time. But, it is also possible for more than one social status to be relevant at one time. Consider the following example,

111. *I'm not against my father only against the labour minister*

(Chomsky, 1972: 67).

We notice that the same person is referred to by the two nominal expressions. It is also possible to hold different opinions about the same individual in the perspective of more than one role or different roles.

3.6.1.2 Absolute Social Deixis

The other main kind of socially deictic information is absolute social deixis which is deictic reference to some social characteristics of a referent apart from any relative ranking of referents (Levinson, 1983: 91).

So, the form of address will include no comparison of the ranking of the speaker and hearer. There will be only a simple reference to the absolute status of the hearer, e.g. *Mr President*, *Your honour*.

3.7 Demonstrative Deixis

Demonstratives play an important role in language use and grammar. They are commonly used to focus the hearer's attention on elements in the speech situation and they are used with referents in discourse (Diessel, 2003:3). Demonstratives prototypically occur with gestures and this co-occurrence seems crucial to how children learn demonstratives which are always amongst the first fifty words learnt and often the first closed-class set acquired, and the acquisition of the pointing gesture precedes the use of the words (Levinson, 2002: 29).

Demonstratives like *this*, *these* and *here* indicate referents relatively closer to the speaker while demonstratives like *that*, *those* and *there* indicate referents closer to the hearer. These demonstratives are primarily

deictic (Lyons, 1977: 646). The distinction between “*this* and *that*”, “*now* and *then*” and between “*here* and *there*” is determined by the proximity to the zero- point of the deictic context.

Lyons (ibid: 638) argues that the spatio-temporal zero-point (here and now) depends upon the place of the speaker at the moment of utterance ;therefore, the egocentricity is temporal and spatial. Deictic expressions including demonstratives are used to locate actions in a time frame relative to the present. Demonstratives are spatial and temporal deictic expressions. Consider these examples;

112. *This city is desolate.*

113. *That is my favourite place.*

114. *At this moment.*

115. *This morning.*

116. *Those last few days.*

The distinction between *this* and *that* is similar to the distinction between the present and the past or future ,i.e, *that* as the past or future and *this* as present tense (Collinson, 1937: 71).

3.7.1 The Selective Demonstratives

Demonstratives embody within themselves two systems, they are:

3.7.1.1 Near and Far

All languages have at least two demonstratives locating the referent at two different points on a distance scale; proximal and distal. Proximal and distal are relative terms; their interpretation is based on the conceptualization of the speech situation.

Proximal demonstratives like *this*, *these*, *now* and *here* mean near the speaker while, *that*, *those*, *then* and *there* mean near you (the hearer) which are distal (Leech and Svartvik, 1975: 58). This identification is certainly, within the realm of pragmatics since we are dealing with real-world position as indicated by one's choice of a linguistic form.

Proximal and distal demonstratives indicate a deictic contrast between two referents. Usually the referents occur in different distance to the deictic centre as in figure (5) but it is also possible that the referents occur in equal distance to the deictic centre as in figure (6).

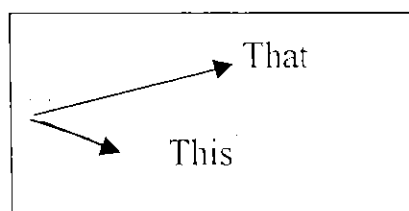


Figure (5) different distance

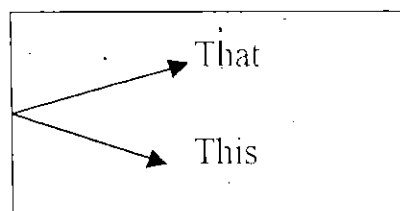


Figure (6) equal distance

Consider these two examples,

117. (a) This is a young tree.

(b) That is a young tree.

The difference between the two examples is that, the demonstrative pronoun in the first one points to the young tree and identifies it as being physically close to the speaker. In contrast, the second example identifies the tree located close to the hearer.

3.7.1.2 Participant and Circumstance

Participant demonstratives include the singular demonstratives *this* and *that* and their plural forms *these* and *those*.

Circumstance demonstratives include the place demonstrative *here* and *there* and the time one *now* and *then* that include an element of deixis.

Here means at this place that denotes closeness to the speaker while *there* means at that place, distal from speaker's location at the moment of utterance. *now* indicates the time at which the speaker is producing the utterance, the distal expression *then* applies to both past and future time relative to the speaker's present time.

Table (5) spatial and temporal deictic by Anderson and Keenan (1985:298).

Spatial deixis	Temporal deixis
From here	From now
From there	From then
Around there	Around now
Right here	Right now

3.7.2 The non-Selective Demonstrative

The non-selective demonstrative includes *the*. It is unmarked or non-selective referential deictic. *The* is derived from one form of the demonstrative, functioning as a determiner.

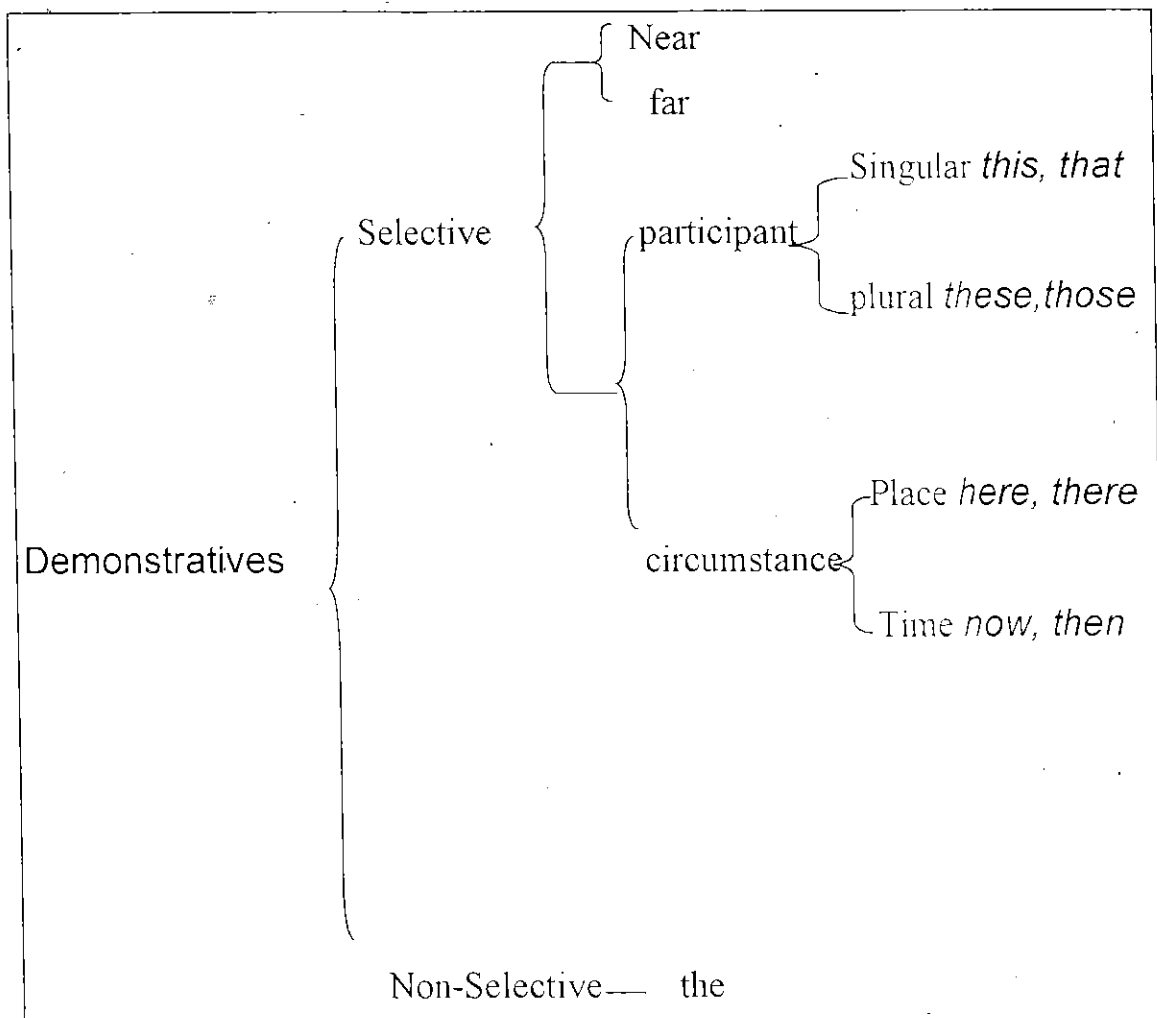


Figure (7) classification of demonstratives
in Halliday and Hassan's 1976

There are some cases where demonstratives remain ambiguous in that they are either *exophora*; uttered while looking at something within the realm of pragmatics, or *anaphora*; referring to what is said in a previous discourse. For this reason Hankamer and Sag (1976: 391) use the notion of “pragmatic control” to decide whether the demonstratives are *exophora* or not. Consider this example,

118. *I am able to pass that also.*

We do not know whether *that* in this example is exophora or anaphora but according to Hankamer and Sag's postulation such a sentence may be uttered when two persons are watching a swimmer as passing a long river. So, one of the two persons can say this utterance to the other; therefore, *that* refers to the swimmer's activity that must be pragmatically inferred. If it is so, then *that* is exophoric not anaphoric demonstrative.

The deictic pronouns *this* and *that* have particularly strong exophoric readings. For example,

119. *This* is Baghdad, and point directly to the city.

English *this* and *that* carry the tonic stress (primary stress) when they are exophoric or cataphoric since in the most general terms tonicity is associated with new information or with the referent that has not been mentioned before, while anaphoric demonstratives are not tonic (focal) because they are referring to what has gone before (Halliday and Hassan, 1976: 69).

120. *This* is what I want.

3.7.3 Demonstrative Pronouns

Demonstratives may be used deictically to refer to objects and persons in the situation, in this case they are demonstrative pronouns.

Demonstrative pronouns can be in subject or object position. The grammatical subject will be the expression which refers to what is being talked about and the grammatical predicate will be the expression which says something about the referent of the subject expression (ibid: 649), e.g,

121. That is for you.

122. Give me that.

Scheurweghs (1959: 129) displays that a demonstrative pronoun in subject position refers to human or non-human beings.

123. That must be very clever.

124. That is heavy.

Demonstrative pronouns in object position refer to non-human being. So when we hear this sentence:

125. (a) I hate these.

These refers to non-human such as a group of dogs, rats, etc, while we cannot say;

(b) I hate these.

When we want to refer to persons instead we can say,

126. I hate these boys.

Demonstratives in subject or object position have the same form.

Chapter Four

Functions of Deictic Expressions

4.1 Introduction

In order to understand the function of deictic expressions, let us consider this question;

Could there be a language without any deictic expression?

Hurford and Heasley (1983: 67) try to answer this question. They suppose that there is a language called "Zonglish". This language is exactly as English but all English deictic expressions have been omitted from it. Hurford and Heasley take an example from the English language and try to convert it to the "Zonglish" one. The example is;

127. *I want a cup of tea.*

According to Hurford and Heasley, this sentence is not a well formed "Zonglish" sentence, since it contains deictic expressions (*I, tense*). They find that even by using a proper noun instead of personal pronoun as;

128. *John want a cup of tea.*

The speaker still has the problem of informing his hearer that *he* wants the cup of tea at the time of utterance not in the past and not in the future since tense is a deictic category.

"Zonglish" Language shows that there are good reasons for all languages which English is one of them to have deictic expressions in order

to save the communicative needs of its user. So, there could not be any language without deictic expressions. Deixis is one of the most important notions in general linguistics, it is a vital connection between the real life coordinates and linguistic expressions. Nunberg (1998:159) puts “the meaning of deictic expressions are composite functions that take us from an element of the context to an element of a contextually restricted domain, and then drop away”. Deictic expressions introduce subjective, attentional, intentional and of course context-dependent properties into natural languages. Consequently, several functions of deictic expression are distinguished as follows;

4.2 Exophoric Function

Deixis has the function of relating language to immediate context .It is used to point to a situation outside a text. This is what is called exophoric function (Halliday and Hassan, 1976: 32,37). The most natural environment for the use of exophoric deixis is found in face to face interaction, when the speaker contacts his hearer visually (Hassan, 1984: 114). But being present in the context of situation does not necessary mean physically present in the interaction, rather it merely means that the context of situation permits the identification to be made (Halliday and Hassan, 1976: 49). In this case, the referents are not to be found in the immediate situation of utterance, but rather in the mind and memory of participants in the speech act .

The act of referring to something exophoric is essentially the verbal counterpart of pointing, when we point, we are saying something like ;

129. *Look at that.*

Speech roles which comprise the speaker and hearer, *I, we, you* are typically exophoric deixis. Sometimes, other roles that are comprise the third persons *he, she, it* and *they* are also exophoric deixis, such as *it* when it refers directly to the object in the immediate situation, as in the example, when someone opens a birthday present and says to the giver;

130. *Oh, it is beautiful,*

or when someone points to a picture and says the above example with no preceding or following utterance .

The definite article *the* can be used exophorically where the situation makes it clear what the intended referent is. Consider these examples:

131. *Look . The baby is walking.*

132. *They are swimming in the river.*

133. *Pass me the salt, please.*

In these examples, the referent is fully specified by the context and no further specification is needed (ibid: 59). The information that is exophorically given is concretely available in the physically-perceptual situation even though it has not been mentioned verbally. So, the first way of establishing the referent of a definite article is through exophoric deixis.

Accordingly, we can define a definite article as an entity that is already known to both speaker and hearer not only when it has been previously mentioned but also when it is known from context.

The use of deictic expressions in the immediate speech situation constitutes the basic use of deictic expressions. The other uses are derived from the immediate speech situation ,i.e, being present in the text, the thing that has just been mentioned is a special case of being present in the immediate context of situation in which their utterance or text is embedded .

Exophoric use is considered a primary function for some reasons.

1. Phylogenetic reason

In literature it is often argued that deictic pointing must have evolved very early in the history of mankind (Diessel, 2003: 13). One might argue that the exophoric use is the basic because it is closely related to nonverbal pointing gesture.

2. Ontogenetic reason

Children begin to use deictic gesture before they begin to use language. Children are particularly likely to overgeneralize the exophoric use as in the case where the listener is blindfolded or otherwise unable to infer the referent.

Such functions are used primarily to orient the hearer within the situation of utterance by directing attention to entities within this immediate situation.

4.3 Endophoric Function

It is a secondary function of deictic expressions which serve to locate items textually, it is a textual use of deictic expressions which ramified as anaphora and cataphora (Buhler, 1934: 122).

4.3.1 Anaphoric Deixis

It is used to indicate the relation between two textual elements that denote the same object, the subsequent mention of an entity already introduced is often marked by means of a particular type of noun phrase.

Buhler (1934: 122) says, psychologically the anaphoric use of words requires that the sender and the recipient have access to a text as a whole so that one could compare it with the roaming of the eyes on an optically present object ,e.g,

134. *Look at Ahmed.*

He stops a little slightly (ibid).

4.3.2 Cataphoric Deixis

It is used to indicate something which will be referred to later on in the sentence as;

135. *Look at him.*

Ahmed stops a little slightly.

These two uses of deixis are derived from the immediate speech situation and the information required for explaining some elements in the text is found in the text itself whether in the preceding or following one .So, both anaphora and cataphora may have a deictic reference.

This and *that* are used exophorically more than endophorically .they will be explained by reference to their exophoric meaning. For example, a sign may say; *this is Baghdad*, and point directly to the city.

Hassan (1968:46) suggests that the person pronouns as head of a nominal group, refer cataphorically as in:

136. *He who hesitates is lost.*

In the foregoing example, the word *he* refers forward to the construction *who hesitates*.

The anaphoric use may be described relative to the exophoric use and that the description of exophoric use is consequently primary to the description of anaphoric expressions (Lyons, 1973: 98-100).

4.4 Identifying Function

Lyons (1977:655) writes

The English demonstratives *this* and *that* used as deictic can be understood as instructing or inviting the addressee to direct his attention to particular region (or group of individuals) of the environment in order to find the individual that is being referred to.

In this case, the speaker is letting the hearer perceive which of several possible objects or persons is being mentioned and achieved by appealing to the hearer's ability to associate the intended objects, persons, temporals or places with a given referent.

137. *Can you take *this plate into the kitchen?**

In such example, the speaker gives an indication of the object (the plate) and also the location (the kitchen). Such deictic expressions help the hearer to identify the referent of a referring expression through its demonstrative and relationship with the situation of utterance (Hurford and Heasley, 1983: 62).

Consider these examples;

138. *Today not tomorrow is Sunday.*
139. *Here on earth.*
140. *This book is interesting.*
141. *You, you but not you answer my question.*

Deictic expressions in these examples function to focus the hearer's attention on entities in the speech situation. This function may be achieved in more than one way such as pointing and referring to previous discourse (Calude, 2002: 5).

The deictic expression turns the attention of the listener directly to the perceptible object, which is pointed out in the perception room. This is also the reason why non-verbal gestural signs appear in parallel with the deictic expression or even without it, for example pointing out myself with the pointing finger means *I*, pointing out the communication partner means *you*, making a circular movement with one hand and looking at all those presents means *we* etc .

Gesture is one way of securing the hearers' attention to a feature of the environment. For this reason gestural presentation has been thought to be crucial for language learning (Levinson, 2002: 11).

4.5 Alluding Function

The speaker expects his hearer to know something about things, events and persons that he talks about. Thus, the speaker does not mention them directly in the discourse. The most natural use seems to be with proper nouns that the speaker expects the hearer to be familiar with (Lakeoff, 1974:347).

142. (a) *The American state is going downhill.*
 (b) *This man is indeed lazy* (Calude, 2002: 13).

143. (a) *America has sent troop .*
 (b) *That man is unbelievable* (ibid).

The speaker in example (142(b)) uses the deictic expression *this* to refer to Bush. He expects the hearer to know who Bush is and how this links to the remark that America is going downhill. This allows him to allude to the fact that Bush (the president of America) might be responsible. In example (143 (b)) the deictic expression *that* is used to refer to the president of America who is responsible for the troop going to Iraq. Although this is not mentioned previously in the discourse, the hearer uses inference to deduce the identity of that man alluding to by the speaker.

144. *I couldn't sleep last night, that (dog) kept me awake*
 (Gundel et al, 1993: 278).

145. *Ahmed, get that out of this room.*

In these examples, it seems that the speaker and hearer share the same view or that they sympathize with one another. Demonstrative deixis here functions to activate shared knowledge.

4.6 Emotional Functions

Lakoff (1974) introduces these functions of deictic expressions that concern the emotional involvement that the speaker has in relation to the subject of conversation or to the hearer. Thus, the speaker chooses a certain deictic element over another on the grounds of emotional involvement with either the topic of discourse or the hearer (Fillmore, 1997: 123).

4.6.1 Function of Expressing Closeness

Lyons (1977: 677) writes:

It frequently happens that *this* is selected rather than *that*, *here* rather than *there* and *now* rather than *then*, when the speaker is personally involved with the entity, situation or place to which he is referring or is identifying himself with the attitude or viewpoint of the addressee.

The speaker is showing closeness and solidarity towards the hearer by using the pronoun *this* instead of *that*. The proximal demonstrative shows physical closeness to the hearer while the distal shows distance from the hearer. The two demonstratives can act in the same way when the physical distance transposed to an abstract distance (Lakoff, 1974: 353).

146. (a) So, how is this leg of yours doing ?

(b) So, how is that leg of yours doing? (Calude, 2002: 2).

The speaker in the example (a) shows closeness toward the hearer by using the pronoun *this* instead of *that*. Lakoff (1974: 349) shows that, there is some tendency on the part of the speaker to use *this* to refer to what he himself has said while, *that* is used to refer to what is said by his interlocutor.

Consider the following examples;

147. (a) Dick says that the republicans may have credibility problems. This is an understatement (ibid).

(b) Dick says that the republicans may have credibility problem. That is an understatement (ibid).

Lakoff adds that *this* is used when the two sentences are said by the same speaker. It is also possible to use *that* as in (147 (b)) but it is less likely that the speaker will say more on it.

Halliday and Hassan (1976: 61) state that a speaker would tend to use *this* in conversational narrative. It is a trick of the narrative to make the story immediate. It has psychological emotion by conveying a sense of solidarity with the hearer of shared interest and attention.

Kruisinga (1933: 208) writes:

The difference between *this* and *that* when used effectively is, of course, not a question of place or time, but subjective *this* is used to refer to what the speaker feels as something concerning him more immediately; *that* refers to what he feels as more distant, hence it may specially express dissatisfaction and contempt although *this* can also express that feeling.

148. *I am not interested in that planning business*

(Zandvoort, 1975: 148).

149. *I cannot stand that sort of fellow.*

That in these examples suggests dissatisfaction and emotive rejection; therefore, separation from the subject is shown. Linguists refer to this case as displacement. In the utterance;

150. *Get that out of here* (in this sentence, *that* refers to an animal).

The demonstrative *that* as well as pointing to the particular animal conveys the speaker's dislike. In a similar way *this* frequently occurs in jokes and anecdotes as a means of indicating familiarity (Finch, 2000: 215).

151. *There was this man, (this means a particular man).*

Lakoff (1974:347) claims that emotional closeness coming from the speaker creates a sense of participation in the hearer. Furthermore, she points out that emotionally deictic expressions are associated with vividness or closeness or sympathy. This can be seen in questioning about injuries and illness, like;

152. *How is that? (that refers to a tooth).*

The emotional use of *that* shows that the speaker and hearer share a previously-built up reaction. Lakoff (ibid:351) points out that there is a sense of colloquialism in this use of *that*. She adds that spatial *that* establishes a link between speaker and hearer by enabling them to relate spatially to one another through the intermediacy of the object presupposed to.

The closeness can be shown also when the speaker gives the impression that he is taking up the idea presented by another speaker and making it his own; therefore, he uses *this* instead of *that*.

153. *Smith says, there is this you want to meet,
(this here refers to a man).*

This and *these* and, not only *that*, *those* can be used to refer anaphorically to something introduced into the discourse by another speaker (Poutsma, 1914: 897).

154. (a) *Yes, we can just put your letter on the notice-board.*

(b) *This is the best way to do it really (Osselton, 1963: 39).*

There are some situations when speakers become away from their home location and they continue to use *here* to mean the home location as if they are still in that location (Yule, 1996(b): 12). This is what Lyons (1977:574) calls "*deictic projection*". Deictic projection means the speaker's ability to project himself or herself into a location at which he or she is not yet present and vice-versa. Thus, the utterance like; *come there now*, sounds odd, because the concept *come* encodes movement towards the speaker and the concept *there* encodes, location different from the speaker's, but if we shift the deictic centre, this expression would not be difficult to understand. A speaker may wish to mark something physically distant as when someone says to his friend over the telephone;

155. *Can I come and see you some time?*

(Hurford and Heasley, 1983: 65).

The speaker probably has in mind a movement to the place where his friend is.

Technology allows us to manipulate location; therefore, we can make use of its possibilities. If *here* means the place of the speakers utterance and *now* means the time of this utterance, then such utterance; *I am not here now*, is nonsense, but we can use a similar utterance on a telephone answering machine; *this is 809322 I am not here now. Please, leave a message.*

In such utterance, *now* applies to any time someone listens to it and not the current time of recording.

There are other cases in which a sentence like; *I will go here*, is not impossible, for example when someone is pointing on a map but such uses as Fillmore (1966:219) says are *contexts* in which it would be just appropriate to say; *I will go there*.

A similar deictic projection is used by dramatic performance when we use direct speech to something else. Yule (1996(b): 13) mentions an example;

156. *I was looking at this little puppy in a cage with such a sad look on its face. It was like, oh I am so unhappy here will you set me free?*

In this example, the speaker uses direct speech to something else (Puppy), the *here* of the cage is not the current physical location of the speaker.

Temporal deixis is similar to spatial one on the basis of psychological perspective. So, we can use the proximal deictic *this* as in;

157. *This (coming) Thursday* (ibid: 14).

We can treat temporal events as things that move towards us (into view) or a way from us (out of view). For example; we speak of the coming year. This may stem from our perception of things that we see approaching both spatially and temporally. We treat the near or immediate further as being close to utterance time by using the proximal deictic expression *this*, as in; *this evening* (said earlier in the day).

4.6.2 Function of Replacing Article

Sometimes we can find *this*, *these* in position where syntactically the indefinite article *a*, *an* is the only possibility (Stockwell and Partee, 1973:157).

Consider these examples;

158. (a) *While I was walking, I saw a blind man .*

(b) *While I was walking, I saw this blind man.*

Emotionally both of these examples are correct.

159. (a) ----- *and then I suddenly see a beggar at the corner of the street.*

(b)----- *and then I suddenly see this beggar at the corner of the street.*

In example (159 (a)) the noun *beggar* is accompanied by the indefinite article, the speaker is simply telling a story without signaling any emotional involvement in connection with the appearance of the beggar. In contrast in example (159 (b)), the noun *beggar* is accompanied by the formal form of the demonstrative *this*, the speaker carries an emotional link to it. The momentum of the event seems to pick up speech and the hearer is encouraged to be part of the narrative and re-live the series of events through the words of the speaker.

4.7 Function of Definiteness

Deictic expressions are closely tied to the speaker's context. The clear distinction is based on being proximal *this*, *here*, *now*, *you* or distal *that*, *there*, *then*, *he*, for example; if I pick up a glass and say;

160. *This glass is dirty* (Huddleston, 1984: 253).

Then such meaning component as proximate to the speaker contributes to the definition of the referent. Fowler (1971: 66) states that “the noun phrase that is specified as proximal or distal must clearly be definite, since definiteness is combined with the distinction of proximity versus non-proximity”.

So, deictic expressions are words with definite meanings and the definite description depends on deixis. Deixis can be thought of as the origin of all definite reference (Widdowson, 1975: 12; Lyons, 1977: 636).

Hurford and Heasley (1983: 71) define definiteness as a feature of a noun phrase selected by a speaker to convey his assumption that the hearer will be able to identify the referent of the noun phrase, usually because it is the only thing of its kind in the context of the utterance, or because it is unique in the universe of discourse. Using definite descriptions enables the hearer to pick out whom or what the speaker is talking about and state something about the referent that could be demonstratively identified (Bell, 1972: 23). Consider these examples;

161. *Have you heard that (song)?* (Hudson, 2000: 315).

In this example, *that* shows that the hearer is assumed to know what song is being referred to.

162. *This pen is broken.*

This sentence is definite. It can only appropriately be used when the speaker assumes the hearer can tell which pen is being referred to.

Interpreting definiteness as in interpreting personal, temporal and spatial deixis, requires us to consider the context, particularly the speaker and the knowledge which we share with the speaker (ibid).

This description that is related to the *speaker, hearer, place* and *time* framework involves a pragmatic description which is a part of the universe of discourse. Leech (1974: 168) writes;

In English, the presence of the definite feature of *the* is marked by the definite article *the* in a noun phrase; it is also present in the meaning of the personal pronouns *he, she, you, they*, etc, and in deictic expressions such as *this, that, here, now, there* and *then*.

English communicates definiteness with the definite article *the*, that is the most frequent word of English. So, it must play a very important role in marking a speaker's understanding of what he considers to be knowledge shared with hearers (Hudson, 2000: 316). For example, when a speaker says to someone;

163. *The man from Dundee stole my wallet*

(Hurford and Heasley, 1983: 62),

he would usually be assuming that the hearer will bring to mind a particular man from Dundee and be able to identify him by associating him with facts already known about him.

The definite article is used with nouns when the reference is clearly to something definite, something clear from the context (Hornby, 1976: 127).

164. This is the room I worked in. The ceiling is high. There is a carpet on the floor. The windows on one side give me a view of the garden. The windows on the other side look out on the road (ibid).

The reference will normally be to the room that is present in the situation of utterance. The nouns *ceiling*, *window* and *floor* are clearly defined. The road is clearly defined, the road on which my house is situated. The garden is defined, it is the garden of my house. The meaning of *the* is that the noun it modifies has a specific referent and that the information required for identifying this referent is available (Bell, 1972: 23; Lyons, 1977: 647).

Widdowson (1975:12) states that demonstratives are definite expressions and they have a very definite indicating function such as *this*, *that*, *here*. These words are used when the speaker assumes that the hearer knows which particular entity is referred to either through context or directly (Lester, 1971: 35).

165. This pen is new.

166. That book is for you.

Person deictic expressions are also definite noun phrases since personal pronouns replace a whole noun phrase in the surface structure.

167. (a) John Smith married Mary Brown because John
Smith loved Mary Brown.

(b) John Smith married Mary Brown because he
loved her (Akmajian and Heny, 1975: 26).

But demonstratives differ from persons in the sense that demonstratives like *this* and *that* may be used either pronominally or adjectivally while person deixis like *he* and *it* cannot be used adjectivally but they can only be pronouns.

168. *He is going to buy this car.*

169. *I like this shirt.*

English definite expressions are not distinguished for gender. There are close connections between deictic determiners, third person pronouns and the definite article. All three categories are definite and definiteness may be essentially a deictic notion.

Chapter Five

Conclusions, Recommendations and Suggestions for Further Studies

5.1 Conclusions

This chapter presents the main conclusions arrived at in this study.

1. Deixis is one of the most important notions in general linguistics. It bridges the gap between linguistic expressions (what we actually say) and the real life environment around us (physical locations, people involved, time frame, etc). This supports hypothesis number (1).
2. Deictic expressions depend primarily on features of the context involved such as the *speaker* and *hearer*, their *location in space and time*, etc. This supports hypothesis number (2).
3. Deictic expressions which are considered as closed system items serve very different communicative functions from symbols (verbs and nouns).
4. Deixis is a special type of reference but it is not a synonym for reference. Deictic expressions are grammaticalization of referential information that is processed contextually.
5. Deixis is the focus of interest for scholars from various fields such as linguistics, philosophy, psychology, and poetry.
6. Deictic expressions introduce the spatio-temporal co-ordinates of a discourse situation with regard to the point of reference held by the speaker.

7. The use of deictic expressions decreases with increasing age and vice-versa.
8. Demonstratives constitute a subclass of deictic expressions that function to focus the hearer's attention on elements in reference frame, and they play a role in *spatial*, *temporal*, *discourse* and use with *emotional connotation*.
9. Without deictic expressions, there is no communication in either verbal or non-verbal language.
10. The deictic value of the words *this* and *that*; *here* and *there* is neutralized.
11. A single appearance of the distal deictic has two different pragmatic functions;
First; to recall the identity of an object, person, event, place, time.
Two; to show solidarity and closeness with the hearer (emotional functions).
12. Deictic expressions function to activate specific shared knowledge.
13. Deictic expressions have a very definite indicating function and this definiteness is combined with the distinction of proximity versus distality.
14. Deictic use (exophoric) is the basic use from which anaphoric and cataphoric uses derive. This supports hypothesis number (3).
15. The use of deictic expressions is different from one person to another according to his culture and age.

5.2 Recommendations

In the light of the findings arrived at in this study, some recommendations can be made.

1. College programmes of English should include a careful study and analysis of deictic expressions.
2. If necessary, some remedial exercises can be assigned in the class or the exercises can be assigned as homework and presented and discussed later. This will help students to avoid some of the problematic use of deictic expressions.

5.3 Suggestions for Further Research

1. Another study may compare between deictic expressions in both English and Arabic languages
2. A research can be carried out to measure students' competence in using the English deictic expressions. Such a project is based on a discourse analysis of authentic spoken or written material between two different stages.
3. Another study that can be carried out is contrastive in nature. Two different text types such as narrative and expository can be compared for types of deictic expressions used to create contextual unity.
4. In the context of the growing interest in using the computer and internet for education purposes, it can be useful to study the deictic expressions in the internet media and their semiotic character which influence their educative function.

5. A further investigation is needed to compare the use of deixis by children and young people.
6. A study may look into how intonation, tone of voice, use of pitch and other prosodic features considered as deictic expressions.
7. Another point that can be studied is deictic gesture, since speech may be considered in certain cases unsafe, unfeasible or it may not work sufficiently well under certain conditions.

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تقع الدراسة في خمسة فصول هي:

الفصل الأول :

هو فصل تمهيدي يعرض ويحدد بإيجاز مفهوم الإشارة وتحديد المشكلة وأهدافها والفرضيات التي وضعت لها مع الإجراءات وأهمية الدراسة.

الفصل الثاني:

كرس مجموعة من التعاريف للتعبير الإشارية ومناقشة نظرية كارل بولر في المجال الإشاري ومضامينها في النظرية النحوية .

الفصل الثالث:

يضم وصفا وتحليلا لأنواع التعبير الإشارية .

الفصل الرابع:

يبين وظائف التعبير الإشارية إذ تعد واحدة من الوظائف المهمة في التواصل البشري .

الفصل الخامس:

يلخص نتائج الدراسة التي تم التوصل إليها إضافة إلى توصيات ومقترحات لدراسات أخرى .

الخلاصة

اللغة في الأساس وسيلة تواصلية ولاسيما في التخاطب وجها لوجه .
وللسياق دور جوهري في هذه العملية وتقتصر السياقات في الدراسات المتعلقة في
التعبير الأشارية على تلك التي تتعلق بالظاهرة مباشرة ، لذا أصبحت التعبير
الإشارية أوضح مثال على تكامل اللغة مع السياق .

تبين هذه الدراسة ان نظرية التعبير الإشارية نفسها ليست إلا جزءا من
التداولية اللغوية التي تسعى إلى تفسير الاستدلالات حول المعنى الذي يجيزه موقع
اللفظ في السياق . على ان اللفظ محكوم بالسياق حكما متأصلا إذ يقدمه المتكلم
للسامع في وقت معين وفي مكان معين لذلك من الضروري دراسة التعبير
الإشارية بأنواعها ووظائفها والتي لم تدرس لحد الآن بشكل واضح

. تهدف الدراسة إلى :

- 1- تبيان ظاهرة التعبير الإشارية وإبراز أهميتها .
- 2- بحث الطبيعة التداولية لمفهوم الإشارة .
- 3- توضيح العلاقة بين الإشارة والمشار إليه .

تفترض الدراسة بان التعبير الإشارية هي جزء من علم التداول أكثر من
كونها جزء من علم الدلالة الإشارة محكومة بالسياق و تعتبر الأساس الذي
تشتق منه باقي الاستعمالات.

لقد أثبتت هذه الدراسة بان التعبير الإشارية أمر أساسي في عملية التواصل
وإنها تعتمد على إيمانات التداولية في تفسيراتها الوافية . ان التعبير الإشارية
هي جزء من التعبير الدلالية لكنها ليست بالمرادفة لها ، وان معنى التعبير
الإشارية يتغير بتغير المتكلم وموقعه المكاني والزمني .

جامعة ديالى

دراسة التعاير الإشارية في اللغة الإنكليزية

رسالة مقدمة إلى مجلس كلية التربية وهي
جزء من متطلبات نيل درجة ماجستير آداب في
اللغة الإنكليزية وعلم اللغة

من قبل

نعم جعفر مجيد الربيعي

ياشرف

الأستاذ المساعد الدكتور

عمران موسى ماهود