RESEARCH IN PRAGMATICS

Biannual Publication
of the
Pragmatics Association of Nigeria

VOL 2 – No. 1

JUNE 2020

Research in Pragmatics
Vol. 2, No. 1 (June) 2020

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Entering the space of pragmatics

Wale Osisanwo
Babcock University, Ilishan-Remo, Nigeria

Abstract
This paper was commissioned by the organizers of the second annual conference of the Pragmatics Association of Nigeria, held at Bowen University, Iwo, Osun State. The paper was meant to serve as an invitation to those who are not aware of the beauty of pragmatics as a discipline. There are even many scholars in the discipline who are not conscious of the linguistic potentials of the discipline. This short paper gives some insight to the scope and promises of pragmatics and clears the way for those who might be interested in joining the moving train of the discipline.

Keywords: *pragmatics, speech act, message, meaning, context, implication, deduction, impact.*

Introduction

Entering the space of pragmatics reminds one of air space of a country, which is usually well protected. In this case, the space may not be as protected as the air space is. In our own case, we are interested in what constitutes the space of pragmatics and the people entering the space. Finally, how does pragmatics as a discipline encourage or facilitate the entering of this space? The aspects or areas of pragmatics that will answer these questions to our satisfaction are:

(i) the definition of pragmatics
(ii) the coverage or scope of pragmatics
(iii) speech acts in pragmatics

A clear discussion of these three issues should clear the air about the space of pragmatics and the entrants.

The approach adopted in this write-up is that of a simple one, not involving complex quotation or citation. This is deliberate so as not to confuse the new comers. They must be at home. In addition, the discussion avoids reference to theories. The other papers in this volume will do justice to issues relating to theories. Finally, attention is paid to the analytical nature of pragmatics, to some extent, in this introductory paper.

We can kick-off by taking a close look at the definition of pragmatics. Pragmatics is concerned with the study of meaning as communicated by a speaker or writer and interpreted by a listener or reader. For a smooth take-off, we need to pay attention to the key words in this simple and straight forward definition. These are"study", "meaning", "communicated", "speaker", "writer", "interpreted", "listener", "reader".We are still going to come across each of these items as we go on with our discussion.

Coverage or scope of pragmatics

Despite the fact that pragmatics has its source from linguistics and it is deeply connected with semantics, it still has its own features and characteristics, which actually qualify it to be a separate and distinct subject of study .In studying pragmatics, the following major issues are given full attention. They form the coverage of pragmatics or its scope.

I. The message
II. Message coding
III. Message decoding
IV. The participants
V. The knowledge of the world shared
VI. Context

VII. Possible deductions
VIII. The impact of what is said
IX. The impact of what is left unsaid
X. The impact of non-verbal aspects of the message.

It is of interest to point out that the ten items listed above have over the years been developed into volumes of pragmatics texts, journal articles and research reports. The volumes keep on growing and expanding. We need to emphasise this point, not to frighten our new comers but to prepare them for a very interesting exploit and exploration in the field of pragmatics. Each of the items can be briefly explained and expanded.

The Message

One of the key words in the definition of pragmatics is "communicated."In other words, in every communication process, no matter the distance separating them, there is always a message involved. The text on a mobile phone is a message, just as the preacher's sermon in a church is also a message. The beauty of pragmatics begins from this level, where it is possible for us to subject "message" whatever it is to serious analysis.

Message Encoding

When we talk about message encoding, we are operating at the level of SKILL. People who speak, read and write the same language, have different skills or levels of skill in the same language. This fact is of major concern to pragmaticians, as different participants are equipped to encode the same message differently. Again, this quality gives the researcher or the analyst a great opportunity to explore the beauty of pragmatics.

Message Decoding

We need to resist the temptation of lumping message encoding and decoding together for discussion. These are two different skills that

should be given adequate attention. If we take a piece of text or a literary piece and ask two people to read and interpret the text to the best of their abilities, we are not likely to have the same response from the two of them. This is an opportunity to demonstrate their decoding skill. It is another rich area of pragmatics for the analyst to explore. Pragmatics empowers its adherents in terms of how message can be encoded or decoded.

The Participants

Who are the people actively involved in the communication process, that is, the encoding and the decoding of the message? We need to note that, it is not in all instances that the two parties know each other. Let us take an advert in a newspaper as an example. The designer of the advertisement designs it for the reading public in general and not for any particular individual. In this case, the designer anticipates that the reading public are the co-participants. Pragmatics comes in here to equip its adherents with the skill necessary to create messages in this situation and also how to decode such messages. Pragmatics also equips its practitioners to carry out deep-rooted analysis here.

The knowledge of the world shared

With the dawn of each day, our life experiences increase, our knowledge of the world expands. Different people share different volumes of the knowledge of the world. Where there is a sort of balance in the amount or volumes of knowledge shared by two different participants on a subject matter, there is the likelihood of a smooth process in their communication event. Where two participants are not on the same page, in terms of the knowledge they share, there is bound to be the problem of interpretation and meaning. Again, the analyst has a field day here for his analytical investigation.

Context

Any message that is not situated within a particular context is not likely to be meaningful. However, it could carry shades of meaning. Pragmatic context has many varieties, which give different colours to the meanings of messages. Hence, we have physical context, social context, psychological context and linguistic context. All these are deep-rooted and give room for serious analysis. Pragmatic context has so many variables that directly and indirectly affect the message and meaning. For instance, under physical context we have the place of interaction - an action in progress. Sex of participants – male or female, just as these variables provide differences in shades of meaning, so also do they provide the analyst the opportunity to dig deep into the root and beauty of pragmatics.

Possible deductions

Meaning is essential to pragmatics, just as it is essential to semantics. In pragmatics however, meaning is not arrived at directly but deduced. This is where pragmatics comes in to teach the scholar how to utilize the context, knowledge of the world shared by the interlocutors to arrive at acceptable logical deductions. This is usually a beautiful stage that can sometimes be creative.

The implication of what is said

Very close to possible deductions is the issue of implicature in pragmatics, which educates scholars on how to draw implications on what is said based on context and the knowledge of the world shared.

The implication of what is left unsaid

In normal speeches, conversations, dialogues, drama sketches, playlets or even adverts, a number of word gaps are often found in the text on

hand. In pragmatics, the gaps have implications, and this is where pragmatics as a discipline comes in to educate the scholar as to what conclusion to make of such gaps, which have serious implications for meaning.

The impact of non-verbal aspect of message

We need to point out that human communication through language can be manifested verbally and non-verbally.Pragmatics is equipped to train or bring up its adherents on how to use or utilize such non-verbal aspect of message. For the analyst, advertising is a very rich source of materials.

Speech Act

In every utterance, a person performs an act such as stating a fact or an opinion, confirming or denying something, and so forth. All these are speech acts.

Verbs in Speech Acts
There are two categories of verbs here namely:

(i) Performative verbs
(ii) Constative verbs

Performative Verbs
These are verbs that are used to make performative utterances or to perform actions. For example: “I promise to pay my debt tomorrow.” “I order you to pay now.”

Constative verbs
These are verbs used to make statements, or describe situations, events, state of affairs. For example: “The medical doctor is a young lady.” There are a number of sub-groups under constative verbs namely:

(i) *Descriptive constative verbs: assess, classify, describe, diagnose, identify, etc.*
(ii) *Ascriptive constative verbs: ascribe, attribute, predicate.*
(iii) *Retractive constative verbs: abjure, deny, repudiate, withdraw.*
(iv) *Assentive constative verbs: accept, agree, assent, concur.*
(v) *Disputative constative verbs: dispute, object, question.*
(vi) *Responsive constative verbs: answer, reply, retort*
(vii) *Suggestive constative Verbs: conjecture, guess, suggest.*

Speech act types

This is another area where scholars seem to disagree on the types and nature of speech act types. Recalling our initial decision to avoid theories and arguments, it will be fair enough to stick to the popularly used speech act types – locution, illocution and perlocution. What do they entail? ***Locution***has to do with saying or producing meaningful statements or utterances where the phonology, syntax, lexis and semantics of a language interact. ***Illocution***is a product of locution; it is non-linguistic act performed through a linguistic or locutionary act. The illocutionary act takes place when the listener interprets the message of the speaker as informing, questioning, requesting, advising, baptizing, commanding, etc. The illocutionary act is often accompanied by a force referred to as "the illocutionary force."***Perlocutionary*** act has to do with the effect of the illocutionary act on the hearer or reader. The perlocutionary act can be achieved through verbal and non-verbal means (Osisanwo, 2008). The listener's response or reaction to the illocutionary act is a perlocutionary act. Allah (1986:181) succinctly summarises the hierarchy among speech acts thus: "the perlocutionary act presupposes an illocutionary act, which presupposes a denotational act which presupposes a locutionary act which presupposes an utterance act."

Classification of speech acts

Scholars of speech acts do not agree on the different ways of classifying speech acts. Allah (1986:190) says"there is no consistent way of

classifying speech acts." Verbs are relied on semantically for this classification, but some verbs do not fit into the class. We may have to look at Austin's, Allan's and Searle's classification to examine the differences existing among them.

Conclusion

If anyone was in doubt as to the space occupied by pragmatics in scholarship, the details discussed under "coverage" above should have cleared the doubt. Each of the ten pragmatic issues raised should give volumes to literature. It is interesting to note that the space of pragmatics is expanding very fast to cover all the languages of the world. What we have done in this paper is to clear the way for those who might be interested in joining the fast-moving train of pragmatics.

REFERENCES

Alba-juezz M. (2016). Micro-Pragmatics. *Rusian Journal of Linguistics* 20 (4), 43-55.

Allan, K. (1986). *Linguistic Meaning,* Vol. 1 & 2. London: Routledge & Kegan Paul Plc.

Austin, John. L. (1962). *How to do things with Words.* London: Oxford University Press.

Grundy, Peter (2008). *Doing Pragmatics*. Kent London: Hodder Education.

Leed Geoffrey (1990). *Principles of Pragmatics.* London & New York: Longman.

Levenson, Stephen (2002). *Pragmatics*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Mey, Jacobs (2006). Pragmatics. *An Introduction.* Oxford, Blackwell Publishing

Osisanwo, Wale (2008). *Introduction to Discourse Analysis and Pragmatics.* Lagos: Femolus-Fetop Publisher.

Searle, John. R. (1969). *Speech Acts: An Essay in the Philosophy of Language*. Cambridge University Press.

Searle, John. R. (1979). *"Indirect Speech Acts in Syntax Act."* Peter Cole of Jerry Lee Morgan (eds) 59-82, New York: Academic Press.

Yule, George (1996). *Pragmatics.* Oxford; Oxford University Press.

Prof. Wale Osisanwo is Professor of English in the Department of Languages & Literary Studies Babcock University, Ilishan-Remo, Ogun State.

"Humans or animals?" Herdsmen attack as game hunting in media reports of herder-farmer conflicts in Nigeria

Chuka Ononye
University of Nigeria, Nsukka

Gabriel A. Osoba
Lagos State University, Ojo, Lagos

Abstract
Studies on the farmer-herder conflict news reports have explored issues like the subjective framing of discourse participants and rhetorical strategies used by conflict victims, but have not examined the metaphorisation strategies utilised by news reporters in conceptualising conflict activities and locations as game hunting. This paper examines the linguistic metaphors and conceptual mappings deployed in Nigerian media reports on the herder-farmer conflicts. Thirty of the reports were purposively selected from three Nigerian dailies namely The Punch, The Guardian, and Vanguard, published between October 2017 and September 2018, and analysed with insights from conceptual metaphor theory and aspects of critical stylistics. Analysis reveals that two entities in the discourse are conceptually mapped onto the domain of animal habitation and/or game hunting. These are news participants activities/roles as game hunting, and attack locations as animal habitat. Thus, the linguistic metaphors and conceptual mappings in the reports are capable of representing the herdsmen attacks on rural dwellers as game hunting.

Keywords: conceptual metaphors, critical stylistics, discourse analysis, herder-farmer conflicts, media discourse, newspaper reports.

Introduction

> *A metaphor occurs when a unit of discourse is used to refer to an object, concept, process, quality, relationship or world […] a unit(s) with which it does not conventionally colligate; and when this unconventional act of reference or colligation is understood on the basis of similarity or analogy involving at least two of the following: the unit's conventional referent; the unit's actual colligate(s); the conventional referent of the unit's conventional colligate(s). (Goatly, 2005,pp. 105-106)*

The idea of using a unit of discourse to refer to another unrelated entity is one fact that cognitive linguists of all persuasions subscribe to. However, the study of metaphor has enjoyed much debate particularly among linguists, as it has equally held tremendous allure to scholars ever since the ancient times. Basically, there are two approaches to metaphor studies - namely the traditional and modern approaches, which interpret metaphor along the lines of rhetoric and cognition, respectively. The traditional view, for example, can be traced back to scholars from Aristotle to Richards. In his famous work, Poetics (1932, pp. 6-9), Aristotle writes that "Metaphor consists in giving the thing a name that belongs to something else; the transference being either from genus to species, or from species to genus, or from species to species, or on grounds of analogy" (cited in Ricoeur, 2003, p. 15). Also, in his book, The Philosophy of Rhetoric, Richards (1936) proposes the "interaction theory," which asserts that the power of metaphor is in the interaction between metaphorical expressions and the context in which they are used. Generally, the main tenet of the traditional metaphor scholarship is that metaphorisation involves "extra-ordinary" intellectual effort employed in the embellishment or ornamentation of rhetorical or poetic language, principally achieved through the use of figurative tropes (Paprotte & Dirven, 1985), and this ability was thus considered the exclusive preserve of talented public officials or writers.

This state of knowledge on metaphor was obviously overshadowed by the linguistic climate of the 1960s and 1970s, which was dominated by the formal framework of generative grammar. However, there came a general rise in the interest in metaphor and figurative language in the late 1970s (with the collections of papers published by Ortony, 1979, and Honeck & Hoffman, 1980). The major force however came from Lakoff and Johnson's Metaphors We Live By (1980), a book which did not only become an eye-opener to a new cream of linguists, but also established metaphor studies as a major area of investigation in cognitive linguistics and pragmatics. The success of Lakoff and Johnson's work follows their observation that the idea of traditional metaphor, which was seen as a "device for the poetic imagination and the rhetorical flourish" - as a matter of "extraordinary rather than ordinary" characteristic of language alone, but also as a matter of "words rather than thought or action" (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980, p. 453), was limited in scope. They have, however, redefined metaphor and demonstrated on the contrary that metaphor is not exclusive to language, but also operates in thought and action. In fact, metaphor is "pervasive in everyday life" as the essence of it "is understanding and experiencing one kind of thing in terms of another" (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980, p. 454). Kovecses' publication (1986) is one of the first studies to demonstrate, for example, that emotions such as anger, pride and love are conceptualised structure of everyday language. And this (with other related studies) has authenticated the cognitive idea that metaphor mediates human understanding and world view (Chun, 2005). What this means is that a metaphor has the capacity of providing different perspectives for perceiving and interpreting the world, thus underscoring a specific understanding of the reality while ignoring others.

Like most ground-breaking research, Lakoff and Johnson's work on conceptual metaphor has been heavily criticised (e.g. Jackendoff & Aaron, 1991; Murphy, 1996, 1997; Steen, 1994; Verwaeke & Green, 1997; Verwaeke & Kennedy, 1996). One area that has generally received criticism is their method of data collection. For instance, "it is not clear

how they accumulated the examples offered in support of their claims. The bulk of their examples seem to be constructed rather than found and are presented out of a larger context" (Krennmayr, 2011, p. 12). It therefore becomes necessary in current metaphor studies to move beyond invented examples and decontextualised materials, and one rich site of metaphorisation, as our analysis will reveal, is language of the news.

Essentially, for metaphors in newspaper texts to be analysed, they first need to be reliably and systematically identified in order to create a solid basis for analysis. Consequently, two major approaches to identifying metaphor in discourse have been identified. Firstly, the top-bottom approach, which goes from exploring metaphors to accounting for the linguistic expressions that index their mapping in texts (e.g. Chilton, 1996; Koller, 2004; Musolff, 2004). Secondly, bottom-up approach, which involves searching for metaphorically used words, and analysing them (e.g. Pragglejaz Group, 2007) without presuming a specific conceptual mapping. This paper, in retrospection of literature review of metaphor studies, devotes a large space to give an elaborate account of image schema and working mechanism of metaphor and particularly application of working mechanism of metaphor and image schema to the understanding of how the herder-farmer conflicts are largely conceptualised as game-hunting in Nigerian newspapers.

Background of study

The struggle to protect and preserve available economic sources of livelihood appears to be the major thrust of the age-long conflict between herdsmen and farmers in Africa and, perhaps, other parts of the world. In West Africa, specifically, conflicts between farmers and nomadic cattle herders, as Tonah (2006) observes, have been a recurrent feature of economic struggle amongst local nationalities for ages. In Nigeria, for example, with the introduction of irrigated farming in the Savannah-belt of Nigeria and the increased withering of pasture during dry season, the struggle for the use of agricultural land for planting and grazing has fast become not only fierce, but also increasingly widespread. Consequently,

herdsmen move southward to the coastal zones (with longer rainy season and soil moisture retention) in search of greener pasture and fresh water for their herds (Ofuoku & Isife, 2009). This southward migration often constitutes intrusion into spaces long claimed and/or cultivated by settled farmers (Olaniyan, Francis & Okeke-Uzodike, 2015), thereby generating the so-called conflict, which according to Aliyu, Ikedinma & Akinwande (2018), is believed to have existed since the beginning of agriculture within the West African sub-region.

The resurgence of conflicts between suspected Fulani herdsmen and rural farmers across many Nigerian states has become one of the topical issues in Nigeria in recent years. Among these conflicts, the Agatu bloodbath in Benue state, the Nimbo massacre in Enugu state and the unending Southern Kaduna killings in Kaduna state are different notable instances where tens of community members were killed with properties worth millions destroyed in each attack. In view of this repeated violence, the Global Terrorism Index (GTI) has ranked herdsmen the fourth deadliest militant group in the world with a record killing of 1229 people in 2014 (Eyekpimi, 2016) and nearly 1700 people - six times more people than those killed by Boko Haramin 2018 (Toromade, 2018). As a matter of fact, many studies, aimed at finding out the dynamics of the conflicts, have generally identified population explosion, desertification and proliferation of arms throughout Nigeria as the major causes (Onyema, 2015; Bolarinwa, 2016). In spite of these, the latest GTI also observes a perceived religious-cum-ideological trigger to the conflicts. According to the report:

> The Fulani herders are primarily Muslim while the southern farmers are predominantly Christian, which adds a religious dimension to the conflict over resources. Christian farmers in the south perceive the influx of Muslim herders as an Islamisation of the country at a time when Boko Haram's presence in the country is still strong (The Guardian June 7, 2018).

This underlying division in the discourse projected in the GTI report is significant, because it forms the basis upon which the conflicts are represented in the Nigerian media. Some media scholars have therefore argued that such global rankings are largely based on media reports, which may have been ideologically estimated (Ozuhu-Sulaiman, 2013; Popoola, 2015). The present study joins this conversation by examining the linguistic strategies, particularly metaphors used by the media in conveying the incessant conflicts between suspected Fulani herdsmen and rural farmers in Nigeria.

Media reporting and the herder-farmer conflict discourse in Nigeria

Media reports are represented in the "inverted pyramid structure", which typically makes two key claims; namely, that news reports begin by providing a summary of the event under consideration, and that, rather than providing a chronologically ordered narration of what happened, they are arranged so that what is "most important information" comes first and what is less important comes after (Thomson, White & Kitley, 2008, p. 13). In other words, events are seldom presented in continuous step-by-step sequence in the order in which they occurred. In corollary, the professional ethos of the media which involves "carefully collecting facts, objectively reporting them, and fairly presenting them, and without bias, in a language which is designed to be unambiguous and agreeable to readers" (Ononye, 2014, p. 1), has been questioned by a range of scholars of the media, who observe that "news is socially constructed or made to look like what news purveyors want it to be" (Tuchman, 1978, p. 97; Cohen & Young, 1981, p. 97; Ononye & Osunbade, 2015; Ononye, 2017a, 2017b).

One abundant source of real discourse is the news (Osoba, 2012). Since "society is pervaded by media language" (Bell, 1991, p. 1), news influences much of our lives. Hence, news reports and the issues they handle have attracted many studies in linguistics. Traditional, often content analytical approaches in media studies, which focused on the partisan use of language, have revealed biased, stereotypical, sexist or racist images in texts, illustrations, and photos. The critical dimension

was introduced from the various media issues studied by Roger Fowler and his associates at the University of East Anglia (Fowler, Hodge, Kress, & Trew, 1979). While earlier critical approaches to the analysis of media images included such studies as Davis and Walton (1983), later critical discourse analytical (CDA) approaches in media studies were proposed by Fairclough (1995), van Dijk (1993), Wodak (1989), etc. These notable media approaches have, in various degrees, continued to influence media discourse elsewhere in Nigeria, where scholars have largely applied the perspectives in interpreting a plethora of media products on the recurrent herder-farmer conflicts (e.g. Chiluwa & Chiluwa, 2020).

Studies on herdsmen-farmers conflicts in Nigeria can be categorised into two; namely, linguistic and non-linguistic studies. The latter include studies that have accommodated the occurrence and activities (e.g. Gever & Essien, 2017; Abdulbaqi & Ogaga, 2017), causes and effects and solutions (e.g. Bello, 2013), and political dimensions of the conflicts (e.g. Oli, Ibekwe & Nwankwo, 2018; Obi, Chinweze & Onyejebu, 2018; Odunlami, 2017). The former, being more relevant to the present study, embrace works that have largely employed discourse analytical tools in investigating language use in news texts (e.g. Bello, 2014; Chiluwa & Chiluwa, 2020). Bello (2014), for example, drawing insights from both critical and multimodal discourse analyses, explores textual and contextual constraints to the bias and subjective framing used by news reporters in reporting herder-farmer conflicts, and reveals two kinds of subjectivity. They are linguistic subjectivity (applying the descriptive frame) and rhetorical subjectivity (the persuasive frame). The study also observes that "news reports are sometimes made from an a priori perspective based on frames recalled and rebuilt in fresher news and that actors and actions are constructed to suit the perspectives" (p. 70). By focusing on linguistic and rhetorical subjectivity, the paper differs from the present one which deals with metaphorisation strategies in news texts. Chiluwa and Chiluwa(2020), relying on corpus-based discourse analysis, study not only the representation of herder-farmer conflict actors in Western and Nigeria media, but also the ideological implications of the representations. Specifically, they examine the

keywords that reflect negative attitude towards the herdsmen in the Nigerian herder-farmer conflict. The study relates to the present one because they both focus on media reports and their representation of news actors; although the current study focuses purely on local reports. They however differ in terms of analytical focus. While Chiluwa and Chiluwa (2020) employcorpus linguistics approach this study relies on metaphor theories in the content analysis of reported conflict activities. Specifically, the study examines the metaphors used in Nigerian newspaper reports in terms of identifying the underlying mappings that index the conceptualisation of herdsmen's attacks as game hunting of Nigeria rural farmers, and describing the linguistic strategies and forms through which the textual practice is achieved. In the next section, we describe the different aspects of these theories, especially those aspects upon which our analysis of news texts is based.

Theoretical framework

To analyse the metaphorical expressions in the media reports, the paper combines two theoretical perspectives: Lakoff and Johnson's (1980) conceptual metaphor theory (CMT) and aspects of Jefferies' (2010) critical stylistics model. The major view behind the theory of conceptual metaphor is that metaphor is ubiquitous, which goes contrary to the traditional Aristotelian view "that metaphor is no more than an ornament, a rhetorical device or, at best, a mechanism for filling lexical gaps in the language" (Deignan, 1997, p. 6).Research leading to the development of CMT (e.g. Lakoff & Johnson, 1980, 1999; Lakoff, 1987, 1992; Kövecses, 2000) is generally anchored on two significant observations: first, the observation that metaphor is a cognitive phenomenon, rather than a purely lexical one; and second, the observation that metaphor involves the analysis of the mapping between two domains. The cognitive nature of metaphor deals with the fact that it is not a mere lexical phenomenon, situated apparently at the level of the language, but is instead a subconscious conceptual phenomenon that determines the way we think and not just the way we speak. In this way, metaphoric images may be used creatively and for evaluation as in the case of our

newspaper texts, because the sets of expressions that illustrate metaphoric patterns are open-ended; they do not only comprise conventionalised expressions, but may also attract new ones. The mappings inherent in metaphoric patterns conceptualise a target domain in terms of the source domain, and "such a mapping takes the form of an alignment between aspects of the source and target" (Geeraerts, 2010, p. 206).

Lakoff and Johnson (1980) therefore propose that conceptual metaphor is set up as 'A is B', where 'B' (the source domain) is employed to understand 'A' (the target domain). This involves the knowledge of the two conceptual domains (the concrete source and the abstract target domains) through a set of systematic mapping (or correspondence) between them (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980, p. 7). However, Grady (1999) reports that not every item in the source domain can be mapped onto the target domain (p. 207). Therefore, the correspondences which provide an understanding of target domains can be mapped from the source domain onto the target domain, and this—as the analysis will show—will reveal the ideological mapping which constrains Nigeria's news reporters to conceptualise Fulani herdsmen attacks on rural farmers as hunting games. To achieve this level of analysis however, critical stylistic tools are combined here with CMT.

Critical stylistics, as a developing new area of applied stylistics, incorporates "critical" perspectives to the mainstream stylistic methods (Ononye, 2014). Jeffries' (2010) model includes ten critical stylistic tools capable of supporting a textual analysis, thereby illuminating the stylistic strategies (whether conscious or not) used by a text producer, and helping the reader discover the underlying content of the text. "Naming and describing," being one of the ten critical stylistic tools proposed by Jeffries, is found relevant in the analysis of metaphors, because it largely focuses on the nuances of naming and describing entities in a news event, for example. The concept of naming and describing, according to Ononye (2014, p. 45), "tasks the analyst's knowledge of the structure of

the English noun group and/or verbal group". The strategy is, therefore, concerned with the part of the sentence that typically "names" an entity. This is for the reason that the chief ideological essence of noun and verb groups in texts is that "they are able to 'package up' ideas or information which are not fundamentally about entities but which are really a description of process, event or action" (Jeffries, 2010, p. 19). The linguistic model of naming covers a number of linguistic strategies, which include the choice of a metaphor to indicate a referent, and the construction of noun and verb groups with modifiers to further determine the nature of the referent. Referents are therefore named and described through the modification of the structural component, which "does not form the proposition of the clause ... but instead labels something that is thus assumed (technically, supposed) to exist" (Jeffries, 2010, p. 21; emphasis original).

Methodology

The paper is essentially a descriptive study. The data comprise thirty reports on the herder-farmer conflicts published between October 2017 and September 2018, ten of which were purposively sampled each from three Nigerian dailies; namely, The Punch, The Guardian, and Vanguard. These have respectively been presented for analysis on the numbering basis of A01-10, B11-20, and C21-30. The newspapers were chosen not only for their comparative consistency in reporting the conflicts over the twelve-month period selected, but also for the similarity in ideological and metaphorical patterns observed in the conflict stories. The data sets were subjected to a discourse analysis, with insights from Lakoff and Johnson's (1980) conceptual metaphor theory, Jeffries' (2010) critical stylistics, and aspects of Systemic Functional Grammar discourse. While the former identifies the metaphors (in the data) and their marked domains of conceptual mappings in the data, the latter handles the strategic linguistic-stylistic choices through which news participants' activities and their locations are conceptualised and hence conveyed as game hunting in the conflict discourse.

Findings and discussion

The general pattern of metaphorisation observed in the data is that the alleged Fulani herdsmen (hereafter AF herdsmen) employ hunting tools and techniques in tracking, ambushing and preying on their victims, Nigerian rural farmers (hereafter NR farmers) and their households. On the other hand, the NR farmers, aside getting the effects of AF herdsmen's attack, utilise whatever means at their disposal to predict the attack, make conscious effort to avert it, position themselves and dwell in certain locations in order to successfully carry out defensive activities against subsequent attacks. The linguistic items deployed in naming and describing the entities involved in the herder-farmer conflict activities outlined above have been observed to have one broad metaphorical code: herdsmen attack is game hunting. Game hunting itself is realised here from the general mapping or image schema played up through the linguistic forms used by news reporters in conveying information on AF herdsmen's attacks on NR farmers in a number of Nigerian states. Therefore, two categories of entities in the conflict discourse have observably been named and/or described with hunting metaphors; namely, the activities involved or roles played by news participants in the attacks, and the locations of the attacks. These will be discussed in succession.

News participants' activities/roles as game hunting

The reporting of the activities and/or roles played by news participants in the herder-farmer conflict news reports is observably motivated by the three genre-conventional reasons for providing information; namely, the need for the narrator to introduce the entities existing or connected to the social actions being described; to summarise past events for the reader to appreciate the current ones; and to describe the nature or role of the entities engaged in the actions. To achieve these, two linguistic models have been utilised in the data, namely, choice of a conceptual metaphor (to indicate different categories of participants and their activities) and the construction of noun groups with modifiers (to further establish the

nature of the participants and their activities). Let us consider how these linguistic devices are deployed in the texts that follow. The relevant portions of the texts, as will be manifest in others used in the analysis, are italicised for ease in reference.

> **Excerpt 1**
> The suspected herdsmen who took most residents and security agencies within the community off guard invaded the communities between the early hours of 1am and 3am.
> (Text C25 – Vanguard Mar. 19, 2018)

> **Excerpt 2**
> Several attack attempts have been made by the suspected Fulani herdsmen, particularly targeting Bassa and Riyom and other peripheral areas of the community. This had caused morbid fear and panic, which have drained the little resistance left. Yesterday's attack, which resulted in the slaughtering of many community members, loss of properties and sacking of some groups of people, has left the few survivors with various degrees of gunshot wounds and machete injuries, which they now live with.
> (Text B17 – The Guardian Oct. 07, 2017)

In the samples above, there are peculiar choices of conceptual metaphor from the domain of hunting and gathering, which have been observed to fall into two patterns; namely, those describing AF herdsmen activities (e.g. "took…off guard" [in Excerpt 1], "attempts…made", "targeting", "slaughtering", "sacking" [in Excerpt 2]), and those representing the effect of their activities on NR farmers (e.g. "morbid fear and panic", "little resistance", "gunshot wounds", machete injuries", and "live with" [in Excerpt 2]). One important point to be made here is that these metaphorical items have been deployed to conceptualise the activities going on in the herder-farmer conflict discourse as those largely relating to hunting of game. For instance, by describing the AF herdsmen's activities in the reported stories as "taking the security agents off guard"

or "targeting and slaughtering many community members" or "sacking the survivors" most of which "now live with" the agony, an insight is offered into the kinds of preying attack unleashed on their victims. In fact, without including the bearers/recipients of these actions, one can easily relate them to actual game hunting. The NR farmers, on the other hand, are described as having 'morbid fear and panic', putting up 'little resistance', sustaining 'gunshot wounds and machete injuries'. These acts underscore the consequence of AF herdsmen activities in the discourse.

The linguistic metaphors used call to mind the effect of hunting on the prey. Two patterns of linguistic metaphors have been observed; namely, verbs/verb phrases (e.g. "targeting", "slaughtering", "sacking", "took … off guard", "live with"), and noun phrases (e.g. "morbid fear and panic", "little resistance", "gunshot wounds", and "machete injuries"). It can perceptibly be said that the verbal category relates to the AF herdsmen considering the fact that they are largely reported as agents of the actions. The nominal category, on the other hand, pertains to the NR farmers because they are mostly represented as the participants receiving or being affected by the actions of the AF herdsmen. This linguistic pattern is generally significant to the naming strategy found in the news reports. The noun group modification, for example, is utilised in describing and evaluating news participants' activities. In fact, one strategic importance of the noun group with regards to naming is that the news reporter is able to package-up ideas or opinions about the entities being described (Jeffries, 2010, p. 20). Let us consider the noun groups modified in the following excerpts for the actualisation of the naming/describing strategy:

> **Excerpt 3**
> The attack launched by heavily armed men suspected to be Fulani herdsmen who were said to have sneaked into the area at night, might not be unconnected to the disagreement over the recent non-grazing law in the state....
> (Text A05 – The Punch July. 7, 2018)

Excerpt 4
The latest attack, which came from the western bush part of the community, has caused a renewed vigilance and policing of the areas that have especially experienced loss of lives and properties through ambushing and butchering of rural community members.
(Text B12 – The Guardian Aug. 20, 2018)

Two recognizably preponderant patterns of noun modification here are by relation (where the post-modifiers are connected to the head noun (phrase) with relative pronouns, as manifest in the first subordinate clause in Excerpt 4) and by passivisation (where the post-modifiers are anchored on passive transformation, as seen in the rank-shifted clause in Excerpt 3). Specifically, the first subordinate clause in Excerpt (3) is a case of passive transformation, comprising a NG (from "The attack" to "the area at night") as the grammatical subject of the passive verb ("might not be unconnected") and another NG (from "disagreement" to the end) as its grammatical object. Excerpt (4) is also made up of a grammatical subject (from "The latest attack" to "the community"), a verbal phrase ("has caused"), and a grammatical object ("a renewed vigilance and policing of the areas"), which in itself has a relative clause but functioning as a post-modifier (from "that have especially experienced..." to the end). Let us examine the structure of the noun groups, to ascertain what pieces of information are added and to what evaluative end they are brought into the noun group. Some of the NGs in the texts can further be analysed in the following ways:

NOUN GROUP			
SLOT 1: Determiner/ Enumerator	**SLOT 2: Pre-Head Modification**	**SLOT 3: Head Noun**	**SLOT 4: Post-Head Modification**
Excerpt 3			
The		attack	*lunched* by *heavily armed men*
		(...men)	suspected to be Fulani herdsmen
		(...Fulani herdsmen)	who were said to have *sneaked* into the area at night...
Excerpt 4			
The	Latest	Attack	which came from the western bush part of the community
...a	Renewed	vigilance and policing	of the areas
		(...areas)	that have especially experienced *loss of lives and properties* through *ambushing* and *butchering* of rural community members
Excerpt 5			
...their		*hamlets* and *ridges*	which have been described as *dens* of herdsmen, abductors, and killers of innocent women and children...

Table 1: Noun group modification

From the breakdown, it is observed that the texts are characterised by heavy use of the modification SLOT 4, which is largely used for the supply of information on SLOT 3 (head noun). Consider the information in SLOT 4; it contains not only lexical items that are evaluative, but also conceptual metaphors that allow the reporters include their personal opinions on the head nouns. The metaphorical items contained in SLOT 4 of the excerpts bifurcate into those used in describing discourse participants (e.g. "heavily armed men"), and those that capture their activities or the roles they played in the reported events (e.g. "launched",

"sneaked", "ambushing", "butchering", "loss of lives and properties", etc.). The naming of the discourse participants and description of their activities with such choices of metaphors present 'heavily armed men as sneaking into farming communities and launching attacks by ambushing and butchering the rural farmers, the result of which is the loss of lives and properties'. These can easily be mapped onto such domains as hunting and gathering of game, because, through the linguistic forms the reporters are able to evaluate and present the activities going on in the discourse as those involving one group of participant hunting another.

One thing that can hardly go without notice is the relationship that noun group modification has with choice of noun as two linguistic devices utilised for the naming strategy. Even Table (1) helps to show that noun modification in our data deals more with SLOT 4 while choice of noun uses more of SLOT 2. Another point of difference is that, unlike the latter, the former scarcely will realise synonymy, though it is possible to feature a few collocations. The two devices, however, make good use of metaphors and adjectives, which do not only modify them, but also contribute to achieving the motivation behind describing news participants' activities and/or roles as game hunting. Let us turn to locations of attack.

Locations of attack as animal habitat

The locations of AF herdsmen attack are largely the farmlands and homes of NR farmers, which can be extended to mean that both the latter's properties and means of livelihood are being attacked. These locations are often variously conceptualised in the news texts as bushes, dens, burrows, ridges, sheds, farms, hamlets, stables, huts, etc, and, as such, easily mapped onto not only the domain of animal habitats but also to the hunting activities/roles earlier identified with news participants in the discourse. In the excerpts below (5-8), we examine some of the conceptual metaphors used in describing the locations of the encounters/attacks:

Excerpt 5

... That is the only condition made by the displaced locals for them to return to their hamlets and ridges, which have been described as dens of herdsmen, abductors, and killers of innocent women and children.... (Text A8 – The Punch Jul. 3, 2017)

Excerpt 6

The chairman of Baga Council ... who broke the news of a third attack yesterday, said in the community burnt huts and farms were the only visible structures found in the violence-torn community....
(Text C21 – Vanguard Nov. 16, 2018)

Such lexical items in the texts as "hamlets", "ridges", "dens…" (in Excerpt 5), "burnt huts and farms", "violence-torn" (in Excerpt 6), "thatches", "sheds", "stables", "burrows" (in Excerpt 7), "coops" and "kennels" (in Excerpt 8) are metaphors—principally sourced from the domain of animal habitation, deployed to vividly paint a picture of not only the locations of AF herdsmen attack, but also the effect of violence on such locations. The persistent description of NR farmers' homes (as hamlets, thatches, sheds, huts, coops, kennels, etc.) and sources of livelihood (as dens, ridges, burrows, stables, etc.) with a selected range of conventional metaphors can easily cull up different images of animal habitats in the reader's mind. These habitats trifurcate into habitats associated with untamed animals (e.g. dens, burrows, etc.), those that relate to tamed animals (e.g. sheds, stables, coops, kennels, etc), and those that are neutral (e.g. ridges, thatches, huts, farms, etc.). Notice from the texts that the untamed category is used to name the locations from where the AF herdsmen operate. By presenting AF herdsmen's location of operation as a "den", for instance, an allusion is not only made to the lion's den, but also to the gripping danger that can possibly be associated with animals from such locations. From this angle, the choice of metaphors shows the degree of aggression meted out to the rural farmers and dwellers, who—as Excerpt (5) hints—now fear to "return to their hamlets and ridges". And this point corroborates Ononye's (2018, p. 82)

submission that the "choice of linguistic metaphors is capable of betraying the domain and degree of activities involved". The tamed category, on the other hand, largely describes the homes of NR farmers. Representing the rural dwellers' settlements with such the lexical items as "sheds" and "stables", for instance, an image of poverty and lack of comfort associated with the residents is quite clear. The last category is also mainly used to describe the rural farmers' places of abode and work. However, some of the metaphors used here are neutral; that is, they do not pertain to the source domain of animal habitation. A number of metaphors in this category—like "thatches" and "huts" —however conceptualise the rural dwellers' low-profile condition of living. And this is probably one of the many factors that makes NR farmers easy prey to their predators.

Generally, two categories of conflict locations are observed in the data; namely, residential (i.e. locations within the living area) and non-residential (i.e. locations outside the living area). The former however features most in the news texts probably considering the fact that most of the conflict activities occur within residential areas. Some text samples can be considered:

> **Excerpt 7**
> The suspected herdsman … were reported to have razed all the thatches, stables and sheds in the rural community and disappeared into their burrows in the bush before dawn.
> (Text B15 – The Guardian Mar. 28, 2018)

> **Excerpt 8**
> Yesterday's hit was the third in a row and the highest. It was said to have been well planned and executed, and the heat affected all lives in the village … whether [lives] in huts, coops or kennels.
> (Text A02 – The Punch Feb. 04, 2017)

In the texts sampled in this section, such items as "hamlets" (in Excerpt 5), "huts" (in Excerpts 6 and 8), "thatches", "stables", "sheds" (in

Excerpt 7), "coops" and "kennels" (in Excerpts 8), for example, belong to the residential category. Other items like "ridges", "dens" (in Excerpt 5), "farms" (in Excerpt 6), and "burrows in the bush" (in Excerpt 7) relate to the latter category. All the location names here, however, have negative dimensions to their evaluation. For instance, such items in the texts as "hamlets" or "community" are terms that have a neutral content, but the negative dimension given to them in the texts is co-textually and contextually derived. For example, a "den" which is a negative metaphor, is an aphorically used in describing NR farmers' "hamlets" and "ridges" in the first excerpt. In the same manner (in Excerpt 6), neutral terms are made negative by the company of negative adjectives "violence-torn" and "burnt," which exophorically qualify the residential locations of the rural community dwellers they keep in the texts.

Looking at the linguistic pattern of metaphorisation in this section, modification of noun by relation, earlier identified as the principal linguistic pattern in the previous section, is also observed. In Excerpt (5), for example, the nominal element "hamlets and ridges" is modified by a relative clause (starting from "which have…" to "…women and children"). Aside noun modification, the two patterns of linguistic metaphors discovered above regarding news participants' activities/roles also play up in this section. For example, the verbal category includes such items as "razed", "disappeared" (in Excerpt 7), "planned" and "executed" (in Excerpt 8), which are observably associated with the AF herdsmen. Those of the nominal category such as "hit" and "heat" (in Excerpt 8 alone), however, relate to the NR farmers.

Conclusion

The metaphors deployed in Nigerian media reports on farmer-herder conflicts often represent the specific entities in the conflict discourse as game hunting. The paper set out to identify these metaphors, their conceptual mappings, and the linguistic forms that characterise the conceptual metaphors and mappings. With insights from conceptual metaphor theory and aspects of critical stylistic strategies, newspaper

reports on the conflict events were analysed, and two entities in the discourse have been conceptually mapped onto different domains of animal habitation and game hunting; first, news participants' activities or roles as game hunting, and second, locations of attack as animal habitat. Two linguistic models are utilised in order to realise these conceptual mappings; namely, choice of conceptual metaphor—to indicate different patterns of news participants' activities and encounter locations, and the construction of noun groups with modifiers—to include an evaluation of news participants, their activities, and their places of dwelling and work. By choosing peculiar metaphors from the domain of game hunting, for example, two patterns of news participants' activities have been observed—those describing AF herdsmen activities and those representing the effect of the activities on NR farmer; and these have been conceptualised as one group of predators hunting on another group of prey. From the analysis, generally, the AF herdsmen are evaluated as hunters, attackers, killers and destroyers, operating from locations associated with aggressive and untamed animals. The NR farmers, on the other hand, are assessed as prey, victims, hunted, of low-profile, particularly residing and working in locations associated with weak and tamed animals. From these findings, it has been demonstrated that the metaphorisation strategies, conceptual mappings and linguistic forms in Nigerian media reports on herder-farmer conflicts essentially represent the herdsmen attack on the rural dwellers as game hunting. Therefore, as the main source of people's knowledge and attitudes, the Nigerian press sustains this representation of the conflict to, first, satisfy their professional ethos of treating issues in the news with transparency and reality, and second, to maintain their ideological positions. This linguistic practice of the media corroborates Ononye's (2017b, p. 4) submission that news is socially constructed or made to create the images news purveyors desire. And this makes the question of how news is presented and how it affects the reader an endless area of humanistic (particularly linguistic) research. There is also the danger of the news being used as propaganda to sustain the perennial tribal suspicion and sometimes, hatred between the north and south of Nigeria. By frequently constructing the activities of the herders as violence and terrorism, especially viewing the killing of Christian farmers as “game hunting,”

the reading public (especially the south), will most likely resort to a violent solution; thus, escalating the conflict.

References

Abdulbaqi, S. S., & Ogaga, A. (2017). Newspapers framing of herdsmen-farmers' conflicts in Nigeria and its implication on peace-oriented journalism. The Creative Artists,11(2), 57-103.

Aliyu, M. K., Ikedinma, H.A., & Akinwande, A. E. (2018). Assessment of the effect of farmers-herdsmen conflicts on national integration in Nigeria. International Journal of Humanities and Social Science, 8(10), 118-128. https://doi.org/10.30845 /ijhss.v8n10p13

Aristotle. 1982 (1932). Poetics. (Trans. by W. Hamilton Fyfe). Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press.

Bell, A. (1991). The language of the news media. Oxford: Blackwell.

Bello, Umar. (2014). Linguistic and rhetorical subjectivity in media discourse. Internation Journal of English Linguistics, 4(1), 70-83.

Chilton, Paul (1996). Security Metaphors: Cold War Discourse from Containment to Common European Home. Frankfurt: Peter Lang.

Chiluwa, I., & Chiluwa, I. M. (2020). 'Deadlier than Boko Haram': representations of the Nigerian herder–farmer conflict in the local and foreign press. Media, War and Conflict, 1-22. https://doi.org/10.1177/1750635220902490

Chun, L. (2005). Cognitive linguistics and metaphoric study. Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching and Research press.

Cohen, S.,& Young, J. (1981). The manufacture of news: Social problems, deviance and the mass media. New York: Constable.

Davis, H.,& Walton, P. (eds.) (1983). Language, image, media. London: Basil Blackwell.

Deignan, A. H. (1997). A corpus-based study of linguistic features of metaphor. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Birmingham.

Eyekpimi, O. (2016). History of Fulani Herdsmen and Farmers Clashes in Nigeria. Retrieved October 2nd 2016 from: http://www.inforguidenigeria.com

Fairclough, N. (1995). Media Discourse. London: Edward Arnold.

Fowler, R., Hodge, B., Kress, G., & Trew, T. (eds.) (1979). Language and control. London: Routledge & Kegan Paul.

Geeraerts, D. (2010). Theories of lexical semantics. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Gever, C. V.,& Essien, C. F. (2017). Newspaper coverage of the herdsmen-farmer conflicts in Central Tiv Land, Benue State, Nigeria. Media, War & Conflict, 1-19. https://doi.org/10.1177/1750635217741912

Goatly, A. (2005). The Language of Metaphors. London: Routledge.

Grady, J. (1999). A typology of motivation for conceptual metaphor. Correlation vs. Resemblance. In Gibbs, R. & Steen, G. (eds.), Metaphor in cognitive linguistics. Amsterdam: Benjamins, 79-100.

Honeck, R. P.,& Hoffman, R. R. (eds.) (1980), Cognition and figurative language. Hillsdale (N.J.): Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Jackendoff, R., & Aaron, D. (1991). More than cool reason: A field guide to poetic metaphor by George Lakoff and Mark Johnson. Language, 67(2), 320-328.

Jeffries, L. (2010). Critical stylistics: the power of English. New York: PALGRAVE MACMILLAN.

Koller, V. (2004). Metaphor and Gender in Business Media Discourse: A Critical Cognitive Study. Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.

Kovecses, G. (1987). Metaphors of anger, pride and love. Amstendam: Benjamins.

Kovecses, G. (2000). Metaphor and emotion. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Krennmayr, T. (2011). Metaphors in newspapers. JK Utrecht: LOT.

Lakoff, G. (1987). Women, fire and dangerous things: What categories reveal about the mind. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Lakoff, G. (1992). The contemporary theory of metaphor: Metaphor and thought. Cambridge: Cambridge University.

Lakoff, G. & Mark, J. (1980). Conceptual metaphors in everyday language. The Journal of Philosophy, 77(8), 453-486.

Murphy, G. L. (1996). On metaphoric representation. Cognition, 60, 173-204.

Murphy, G. L. (1997). Reasons to doubt the present evidence for metaphoric representation. Cognition, 62, 99-108.

Musolff, A. (2004). Metaphor and political discourse: Analogical reasoning in debates about Europe. Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.

Paprotte, W. & Dirven, R. (eds.) (1985). The ubiquity of metaphor. Amsterdam: John Benjamin Publishing Company.

Ofuokwu, C. A., & Isife, B. I. (2009). Issues in developing a national policy on agricultural extension service in Nigeria: The

perception of extension professionals. Agricultural Journal, 4(1), 22-26.

Olaniyan, A., Francis, M., & Okeke-Uzodike, U. (2015). The cattle are "Ghanaians" but the herders are "strangers: Farmer-herder conflicts, expulsion policy, and pastoralist question in Agogo, Ghana. African Studies Quarterly,15(2), 53-67.

Ononye, C. F.(2014). Style, lexical choices and media ideology in selected English-medium newspaper reports on Niger Delta conflicts. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Ibadan, Ibadan.

Ononye, C. F.(2017a). Lexico-stylistic choices and media ideology in newspaper reports on Niger Delta conflicts. Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics, 7(1), 167–175. http://dx.doi.org/10.17509/ijal.v7i1.6870

Ononye, C. F. (2017b). Language, contexts and power relations in Nigerian newspaper headlines on President Muhammadu Buhari's inaugural address. Journal of English and Literature (UUJEL), XI, 1—17.

Ononye, C. F.(2018). Linguistic identity and the stylistics of nativisation in Adichie's Purple Hibiscus. GEMA ONLINE: Journal of Language Studies, 18(4), 81-94.http://dx.doi.org/10.17576/gema-2018-1804-06

Ononye, C. F., & Osunbade, N. (2015). Naming strategies and lexical choices in Niger Delta-based newspaper reports on Niger Delta conflicts. Journal of Humanistic and Social Studies, 6(1), 93–107.

Ortony, A. (ed.) (1979).Metaphor and thought. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Osoba, G. A. (2012). (Mis-) use of language in conflict management in Nigeria's Niger Delta crisis. Papers in English and Linguistics (PEL), 13, 134-141.

Ozuhu-Sulaiman, Y. (2013). Media and peace building in Israel/Palestine: An empirical study. Kaduna: Rich Values Concept Ltd.

Popoola, M. (2014). Political godfather-son conflict in South-western Nigeria, 2004-2006: The role of the press. Journal of Mass Communication Journalism, 4(7). 12-19. http://dx.doi.org/10.412/2165-7912.1000205

Ricoeur, P. (2003). The rule of metaphor: The creation of meaning in language. London: Routledge Classics.

Richards, I. A. (1936). The philosophy of rhetoric. London: Oxford University Press.

Thomson, E. A., White, P. R. R., & Kitley, P. (2008). "Objectivity" and "hard news" reporting across cultures: Comparing the news report in English, French, Japanese, and Indonesian journalism. Journalism Studies,9(2), 1-27.

Tonah, S. (2006). Migration and farmer herder conflicts in Ghana's Volta Basin. Canadian Journal of African Studies, 40(1), 152-178.

Toromade, S. (2018). How El-Zakzaky Has become the face of Shiite persecution in Nigeria. News and Entertainment- Latest Updates in Nigeria. Pulse.ng, November 7. https://www.pulse.ng/news/local/how-el-zakzaky-has-become-the-face-of-shiite-fight-in-nigeria-id9055093.html.

Tuchman, G. (1978). Making news. New York: Free Press.

Steen, G. (1994). Understanding metaphor in literature: An empirical approach. New York: Longman.

Van Dijk, T. (1993). Principles of critical discourse analysis. Discourse and Society,4(2), 249-283.

Verwaeke, J.,& Green, C. D. (1997). Women, fire, and dangerous things: A critique of Lakoff's theory of categorization. Metaphor and Symbolic Activity, 12(1), 59-80.

Verwaeke, J.,& Kennedy, J. M. (1996). Metaphors in language and thought: Falsification and multiple meanings. Metaphor and Symbolic Activity, 11(4), 273- 284.

Wodak, R. (1989). Introduction. In R. Wodak (ed.), Language, power and ideology (pp. i-ix). Amsterdam: Benjamins.

Dr. Chuka Ononye is a Senior Lecturer at the Department of English and Literary Studies of the University of Nigeria, Nsukka. His research interests include discourse analysis, pragmatics, stylistics, and critical linguistics, with specific focus on conflict/violence and peace discourses. He is a visiting research fellow of Leibniz-Zentrum Moderner Orient in Berlin.

Dr. Gabriel Osoba holds a professorial chair at the Lagos State University. His area of specialisation is stylistics, especially literary texts. He also has over 50 academic book chapters and journals articles in both local and international outlets.

Linguistic politeness markers in Print media war reports

Alu Azuma Osu
University of Lagos, Nigeria

Abstract
This study examines the use of tact, modesty and approbation maxims to describe the principles of politeness in the language of war reports of the Israel-Lebanon war of 2006. The data consist of seventeen news extracts from both the Western and local print media; namely, THISDAY, the New York Times, Newswatch and TIME. New York Times and TIME are published in the United States of America, while THISDAY and Newswatch are published in Nigeria. The study analyses the significant roles of linguistic politeness in the interpretation of war incidences and how they are constructed in the media. Leech's (1983) politeness principles shed more light on how linguistic markers are expressed in print media war reports and helps to demonstrate the influence of context in the way incidences are constructed in war and conflict situations.

Keywords: War reporting, politeness principles, pragmatics, print media, Israel-Lebanon war 2006, Libyan civil war 2011.

Introduction

War is probably one of the most important social phenomena regarded as an enormous challenge to peace globally. It also has been reported that war is the sixth of ten biggest problems facing mankind (Smalley 2008:246). Akinwunmi (2004) agrees that armed conflict indeed retards and mostly impedes development and that hostility and outright wars are increasingly being experienced among different communities and nations of the world. It is estimated that 40 major conflicts broke out across the world in 2000, while in 2007 the world was plunged into 30

major armed conflicts (Nwankpa2015:33). The Israel – Lebanon war of 2006 and the Libyan civil war of 2011 had devastating effects on human lives, economic, political, religious and infrastructural development.

The print media plays strategic roles in the representation, reporting and analysis of war incidences. War reporting, which is a brand of journalism, focuses on the reportage of war. Conflict is compartmentalized into analytical or critical "by-stander" reporting, in which a reporter describes the event as objectively as possible (Bell 1977:16).

The essential function of language in news reporting is to guarantee effective communication of the intended message. In particular, language is of the essence in making available to the public information concerning on-going and previous wars. For example, Galadima and Goshit (2013:165) argue that "since language and communication are the veritable tools of trade of the media, they can be used to manipulate and control crises as they emerge." A tactical use politeness in language is useful here. It is even more significant in war situations where according to Pam (2012:63) "linguistic items carefully selected by newspapers help them to achieve their intentions and goals."

Pragmatic politeness principle is a linguistic concept, which is consciously or unconsciously explored in virtually all contexts. Although, it has been investigated in relation to a good number of written texts, it is observed that in the research content of newspaper and magazine reports on the Israel-Lebanon war of 2006 and the Libyan civil war of 2011, politeness has not been fully investigated by linguists, the volume of journalistic outputs from both wars notwithstanding. Consequently, there exists a yawning gap in the study of language use in the above-mentioned war reports. The current study is an attempt to fill that gap.

The primary purpose of this study is to provide answers to the following questions:

(i) What are the different categories of linguistic politeness strategies employed as language in the data?
(ii) What are their communicative impacts?

This study is limited to newspaper and magazine reports on the Israel-Lebanon war of 2006 and the Libyan civil war of 2011. Two newspapers - THISDAY and The New York Times; and two magazines - TIME and Newswatch are selected as sources of data for the study. The papers were selected because of their wide coverage of international issues, especially those related to the two wars being examined. The selected publications use the English language in a manner that reflects international standard usage. It is important to point out that Newswatch magazine and THISDAY newspaper are published in Nigeria, while the New York Times and TIME magazine are published in the United States of America.

Israel – Lebanon war (2006) and the Libyan civil war (2011)

The Israel-Lebanon war was a month-long conflict between Israeli and Hezbollah forces in Lebanon during the summer of 2006. The war was instigated by Hezbollah guerillas when they conducted a cross-border raid, killing eight Israel defence soldiers and abducted two others. The war led to heavy losses on both sides of Israel and Lebanon. The fighting ended on August 14 with the signing of a United Nations brokered cease fire. In total, Israel lost 121 soldiers, including the two kidnapped soldiers, with more than 600 injured. Forty-four civilians were also killed with nearly 1,500 injured. Though estimates vary, Israel claims to have killed more than 600 Hezbollah fighters (Matthew, 2008).

Similarly, the Libyan armed conflict began in Benghazi on February 15, 2011, when a series of nationwide peaceful protests in support of reform movements in Tunisia, Egypt and elsewhere, known as Arab Awakening, were met with force by the Libyan government for five days. Riots

expanded throughout northern Libya as rebels and resistors began to shape the unorganized protests into social and political movements. With the arrival of NATO forces, including the United States, Great Britain and France, the conflict was transformed from a national armed conflict into an Article 2 international armed conflict. This international phase of the armed conflict ended on October 20, 2011 when the rebel forces captured and killed Gaddafi (INSCT, 2012).

War Reporting

War reporting is generally conceptualized as the idea of looking at the way news from the frontline is made and focuses on the reportage of war and conflict. It is often considered an important and authentic form of journalism not only in terms of the genre's newsworthiness but more because it involves significant elements of suffering, tension, danger and threat (Allan and Zelizer 2004). From the perspective of the linguist, however, the focus is usually not on the profession itself but on the way and manner in which language is employed by the journalist in carrying out this dangerous task. Linguists specifically investigate the place of language in how stories are built and understood - the appropriateness of words and expressions that make a story. Many scholars have examined war reporting in line with language use (see Richardson 2007:47-49, Popoola2015:64, Allan and Zelizer 2004:4, Thussu and Freedman 2003:4-10). Thussu and Freedman (2003) identify three roles of mainstream media in communicating conflict namely (a) critical observer (b) publicist and (c) battleground - the surface upon which war is imagined and executed. Popoola (2003:64) points out that existing research is beginning to explore how the tone and language with which the media cover terrorism influences the attitudes and behaviours of the mass public, as well as potential sympathizers with terrorist movements. In this study, we examine the significant roles of linguistic politeness in the interpretation of war incidences and how they are constructed in the Israel-Lebanon war and the Libyan civil war.

Review of Literature

As highlighted above, this study investigates politeness strategies in the language use of war reporting as evident in the selected newspapers and magazines stories of the two wars. The main aim is to explicate how linguistic politeness markers are realized in war reports. Language is of essence in making available to the public, information about ongoing and previous wars. For example, Lukin (2005:38) identifies deep grammatical patterns in speeches, media reports, press releases that create the climate for war. She illustrates this with the State of the Union address by George W. Bush after the September 11, 2001 attack on the World Trade Centre in the United States. She analyses the grammatical resource of modality as the second strategy in the process of creating the semiotic conditions for war. Accordingly, Lukin identifies modality words like: "perhaps", "probably", "maybe", "might", "could", "must" and phrases like "I think that…, or "we judge that …" functioning as strategies of tact to establish politeness in the language of war reporting.

Oha (1994 cited in Chiluwa 2012:61), examines how the conflict between the two warring sides was demonstrated in language. Oha's study focuses on oral war rhetoric and how various meanings are determined by stylistic strategies. The outcome of Oha's study as noted in Chiluwa (2012) shows that "a better understanding of verbal behaviour in war situation depends on the recognition of the inter-dependency relation between style (language choice) and situation on the one hand, and style and meaning on the other" (61). In addition, Chiluwa (2012) explains that language was demonstrated (in Oha's study) as an instrument to support or condemn and is also used as a weapon to control social behaviour.

Adegbija (1988 also cited in Chiluwa 2012:60) examines "military coup speeches in Nigeria entitled; "1, Major – General X Discourse Tacts in Military Coup Speeches in Nigeria: The aim of the research was to investigate from a general pragmatic perspective military coup speech in Nigeria as discourse. The research reveals that the speeches were

uniquely sensitive to the anomalous discourse context and relied on the socio-cultural constraints on discourse and the values of the Nigerian people "relating to indirectness, social rank and collective essence", (Adegbija, 1988:1). The paper also demonstrates that the speeches employed "at least eight crucial discourse tacts germane to self-identifying and discourse initiating, atmosphere sanitizing, discrediting of incumbents, garnering of support, assuming and exercising authority, confidence building, survival and departure. In addition to the above, Adegbija's paper further demonstrates that discourse tact was pragmatically effective to convey their illocutionary forces "to assist and maneuver the addressees into making the intended inference". This paper has an influence on our paper from the perspective of employing pragmatic tact discourse in the analysis.

Chiluwa (2012: 135-136) demonstrates many aspects of encoding meaning in the Nigerian press, particularly in news magazines. He examines the subtle ways of encoding meaning with their potential illocutionary functions of "tact." According to the study, tact is informed by a desire to communicate effectively– "effectively" meaning to achieve the desired goal of the message. Chiluwa further views tact not just as encoding discourse information in a way that does not cause offences but also in a way that demonstrates that tact could be confrontational as a strategy to further critique, denounce, and expose socio political scandals and prevent crisis in Nigeria (Chiluwa, 2010). Chiluwa, (2012) in the analysis, applies both Leech's (1983) concept of conflictive goals of tact and Searle's representative and directive acts and Adegbija's concept of "discourse tact" to analyze the headlines, their over lines and leads to further show the various social crises, political scandals and how the Nigerian press responded to them. Chiluwa categorizestact and critical strategies as follows: (1) Strategies of denouncing, satirizing and attacking (2) Tacts of revealing, exposing and probing (3) Strategies of informing, educating and persuading (4) Methods of motivating, inciting and support garnering (5) Instigating fear and uncertainty (6) Tact of encouraging, praising and eulogizing. Chiluwa's work has a

major influence on the present research because his choice of application of Leech's (1983) politeness principles and the conflictive goals of tact, and the categorization of the various tact strategies are valuable and fit into some of our categorization on the study of linguistic politeness markers in the print media war reporting.

However, a research study that comes close to this paper from the perspective of subject matter is Aziz (2007), which applied content analysis to investigate the New York Times and Associated Press coverage of the Palestinian and Israeli deaths during the second Israeli invasion of Lebanon in 2006 (July 12, 2006 – September 8, 2006). The study finds that both news sources expressed their pro-Israeli bias through legitimizing and de-legitimizing Israeli and Palestinian killings respectively. Also, the University College of Law, Syracuse identifies and analyses the various war crimes - crimes against humanity, and Libyan domestic crimes perpetrated during the Libyan armed conflict between February and October of 2011. The study focuses mainly on crimes perpetrated by the Libyan national armed forces and reveals that the national and armed forces were responsible for most of the alleged violence(INSCT, 2012: i).

There have been studies that illustrate the potential values and usefulness of employing the politeness principle in a text to give it extra meaning. Adekunle (2016:558) observes that in English at L1 and L2 levels, the depiction of an act of politeness or impoliteness, is mainly mirrored through language, while the message intended can only be pragmatically interpreted. Using Leech's (1983) politeness principle, Adekunle identifies politeness in greeting in a market situation, telephone conversation, begging for arms, Christian songs and prayers and advertisement, particularly within the context of English in Nigeria.

Chiluwa (2012:57) identifies “tact” as a core form of politeness strategy, where the speaker or writer encodes meaning subtly to avoid appearing too confrontational or impolite. The study contends that (as an example

of tact) a question may not intend to elicit any answer at all, but aim at eliciting another kind of response from the participant. An example of this politeness strategy as employed in the war reports is the rhetorical question, which appeared on the cover story of THISDAY (October 22, 2011) after the death of Colonel Gaddafi, "What next for Libya?" Chiluwa (2012) asserts that a statement may also be encoded to function as a question and is meant to be interpreted as such. Some aspects of Leech's (1983) politeness principles in the analysis of language use in print media war reporting were adopted with a view to determining the ways in which context influences the manner war incidences are constructed and conceptualized in the media.

Theoretical framework

This study is anchored on Leech's (1983) Politeness Principles. Leech proposed a set of politeness maxims which aims to describe the interactional principle that underlie language use. The maxims are (i) tact maxim, (ii) generosity maxim (iii) approbation maxim (iv) modesty maxim (v) agreement maxim (vi) sympathy maxim.

Politeness refers to the choices that are made in language use that give people space and show a friendly attitude to them (Cutting, 2002). For Watts (2003), polite language is a language a person uses to avoid being too direct, or a language that displays respect for others. Politeness as a pragmatic concept has received the attention of linguists within the last decades. Scholars such as Lack off (1973), Leech (1983), and Brown & Levinson (1987) have in their studies generally established that linguistic politeness is employed to avoid conflict in communication. The consideration of these maxims in this paper is limited to the ones that occur frequently in the data such as (i) tact maxim – a maxim that suggests "low value to speaker's wants" (Leech, 1983:93). In other words, a speaker should deploy expressions that express more benefit to the hearer. (ii) Approbation maxim – a maxim recommends "a high value to others qualities" (Leech, 1983:93). This implies that a speaker should

maximize praise of others and minimize dispraise of others. This type of maxim exists in expressives and assertives, which express what the speaker feels. In other words, one should "avoid saying unpleasant things about others." This maxim can be realized in praise of others, approvals and giving of compliments. (iii) Modesty maxim - this maxim states: "give a low value to speaker's qualities" (Leech, 1983:94). This maxim implies self-depreciation, dispraise of oneself and absence of being better than the other.

Leech (1983:104), also identifies four illocutionary/social "functions" or "goals" of tact as follows:

i. Competitive: goals include ordering, asking, demanding, begging.
ii. Convivial: goals include inviting, greeting, thanking, congratulating.
iii. Collaborative: goals include asserting, reporting, announcing, instructing.
iv. Conflictive: goals include threatening, accusing, cursing and reprimanding.

Adapted from Chiluwa (2012:58)

According to Chiluwa (2012:58), of the four functions, only the first two mostly involve politeness, usually to mitigate tension, reduce conflicts, or achieve what the speaker or writer considers as implicating good manners or socially acceptable. In addition, Chiluwa notes that, the convivial function for instance is "intrinsically courteous" (Leech 1988:105). In the collaborative function, politeness is irrelevant as it seeks to announce or report. However, the last category as noted by Chiluwa (2012) is in the least courteous. The study further states that it is naturally designed to cause offense by criticizing or denouncing. In other words, the last two illocutionary functions capture the goal of causing fear, threat and uncertainty and the strategy of motivating, uniting and support garnering.

The rationale for applying linguistic politeness principle for analyzing war reports

The relevance of politeness principle framework in the analysis of the data from war reports, is that it is a veritable linguistic tool for uncovering how language is used in a socio-cultural context such as the context of the Israel-Lebanon war and the Libyan civil war. Furthermore, the choice of the linguistic politeness strategy in analyzing war reporting is because the politeness markers oil the wheels of communication (Adekunle, 2016:557). Generally, politeness according to Bossan (2017:58), involves two entities: the self and the other. In linguistic studies, politeness strategies have variously been used to create meaning. For example, Norton (2000:472-473) contends that "Linguistic politeness is language usage which enables smooth communication between participants according to the norms of social interaction in a particular contextual situation within a given speech community. In Adekunle's view point, politeness is often achieved through the appropriate choice of verbal and nonverbal communication strategies which allow the message to be conveyed in a manner favourable to the addressees in conformity with their expectations regarding communication norms. This then means that in war reporting, the essential function of language is to guarantee effective communication of the intended message. On this note, it can be asserted that politeness phenomenon is a germane trend which measures how language in any context is used and how it should be used in order to be adjudged as relatively acceptable within its context of usage (Adekunle, 2016: 557).

Therefore, the politeness principle is relevant to the understanding of language use in war reporting. Its basic proposition according to Thomas (2003:16) is the practical application of good manners or etiquette. Adekunle (2016:559) further agrees that politeness as a culturally defined phenomenon defers from place to place as what is considered polite in one culture can sometimes be considered rude or simply eccentric in another cultural context. For example, proverbs, native

idioms and catch phrases deployed by Nigerian journalists in the reports are used to advise people to do good deeds and shun violence and acts that may be regarded as acts of terrorism.

Methodology

The pragmatic analysis in this study is qualitative. The goal is to unearth the language use and communicative strategies in the war reports under focus using aspects of pragmatic politeness principles as analytical tools. The data consist of extracts from newspapers *(THISDAY* and *New York Times)* and the magazines *(Newswatch* and *TIME)* under study. In this research, the headline and lead, editorial and features are analysed. These are the different components of the data. The headline and the lead were chosen because they summarize the war events and display significant linguistic and graphological elements. The editorials were chosen for their explicit opinion, argumentative and persuasive structure, while the feature articles were chosen for the background knowledge and context analysis of the war texts. The purposive sampling method was carried out for this study. According to Daramola et, al, (2011:100), purposive sampling means the selection by design or by choice and not by chance. This method was chosen since the choice of data was based on the researcher's judgment of their significance to the study. Another reason was to meet the study's aim and objectives as set out by the researcher. There was also the need to have a sizeable and manageable data set. It is very important to point out that the analysis of the different categories of politeness strategies employed as language use in the data and their communicative functions are simultaneously analyzed. This means that no separate section is provided for the analysis of the communicative functions.

Table 1: *Sampling table for news reports on the Israel-Lebanon War*

	THISDAY	***Newswatch***	***TIME***	***The New York Times***	***Total***
Headlines	2	-	-	-	2
Editorials	1	1	-	-	2
Features	-	-	1	-	1
Total	3	1	1	-	5

Table 2: *Sampling Table for News Reports on the Libyan Civil War*

	THISDAY	***Newswatch***	***TIME***	***The New York Times***	***Total***
Headlines	1	-	-	-	1
Editorials	3	1	-	1	5
Features	6	-	-	-	6
Total	10	1	-	1	12

The disparity in the number of extracts used in the various war reports stems from the fact that the Israel-Lebanon war (2006) lasted for a period of one month while the Libyan civil war (2011) lasted for a period of eight months. Therefore, the latter (Libyan civil war) attracted more reports as the situation lingered.

Justification for choosing the data

THISDAY, Newswatch, the *New York Times, TIME* exemplify sufficient use of linguistic politeness principle features, which serve the functions of information dissemination. The choice of these papers and magazines is also based on their popularity in terms of geographical spread, and local and international coverage. All the papers and magazines in the

different localities command large readership as a result of their in-depth analysis of events especially war reports.

In addition, we decided to explore language from the perspective of pragmatic politeness strategy because it generates loaded meaning and conveys clear messages in any socio-cultural context.

Method of data collection

This study sought to investigate forms of linguistic politeness markers employed as language strategy in war reports under study and how they enhanced meaning in the reports. The selection of the data was based on the significance of the period covered by the media war reports i.e. from 12th July – 11th August 2006 when the Israel-Lebanon war was fought and 25th February – 23rd October 2011 when the Libyan Civil war took place. The data set was categorized under H-headlines, E-editorials, F-feature articles such as the following: The Israel-Lebanon war of 2006 news report headline (ILW H), editorials (ILWE), and feature articles (ILW F) (Table1). For the Libyan Civil War of 2011 news report headline, (LCW H), editorials (LCWE), and feature article, (LCW F) (Table 2). The dates of the data extracted publications are as follows: The Nigerian print media represented by *THISDAY* and *Newswatch* were extracted in January 2014 from the Archive section of the University of Lagos Library, while the American *TIME* and the *New York Times* were extracted in May, 2015 – downloaded from the Texas Southern University Online Library, Houston.

Analysis and discussions

The findings from the data indicates that some instances of achieving politeness include the following: (i) Politeness in the use of proverbs (native idioms and catch phrases) (2) Politeness in WH-questions (3) Tact of praising and commendation (4) Tact of appealing, allegiance and vowing. (5) Instigating fear and Threat. These findings are discussed under the different subheading below:

Politeness in the use of Proverbs (native idioms and catch phrases)

In line with objective I, the findings reveal that the journalist's unique contexts and traditions influenced the way the war reports were constructed. Also, it was found that the use of proverbs was deployed by journalist as tactful linguistic politeness makers and strategies to persuade people to reject the acts of war. Examples are illustrated in the extracts below:

> *EXTRACT LCW E1*
> At last Gaddafi's sojourn came to an end last Thursday, in a bloody inglorious manner. *Ever since the snake took in, did we know that it will deliver a long offspring (THISDAY* October 22, 2011)
>
> *EXTRACT LCW E2*
> His predecessors in the oppressor's club died the same way. *As they say, the dog that will get lost will never hear the hunter's whistle (THISDAY,* October 22, 2011)
>
> *EXTRACT LCW E3*
> He (Gaddafi) was a maximum leader who brooked no opposition. Human Rights were out of the question. But as the saying goes, *there are many days for the thief and one day for the owner (THISDAY,* September, 2011)
>
> *EXTRACT LCW F4*
> Like Saddam Hussein, Gaddafi was once *the apple of America's eye (THISDAY* October 3, 2011)
>
> *EXTRACT LCW F5*
> But the Gaddafi in Africa is worse. Later it was Ibrahim Babangida's banning, un-banning and rebanning *abracadabra (THISDAY* 30, 2011)

EXTRACT ILW E6
During September, 11 terrorist attack in US, no Muslim leader came out to condemn it since it was the US and these acts were executed by supposed Arabs and since the US is a supposed enemy of Islam, the crime against the God we all claim to worship is right. *Haba! (THISDAY* August 20, 2006)

As can be seen in the use of linguistic markers the journalists avoid the imposition of a direct request by minimizing the cost of the desired action on the reader. Thus, the tact maxim is observed. The deployment of the native proverbs, idioms and catch phrases presupposes a cultural attitude and cultural background of the Nigerian journalists. The linguistic items marked off in italics in the above extracts are politely employed to reflect the socio-cultural values of the Nigerian journalists as non-native users of English. They also employ a softening device in the use of the proverbs, idioms to express his opinion. For example, in Extract LCW E1 *ever since the snake took in, did we know that it will deliver a long offspring?* Extract LCW E2 *as they say, the dog that will get lost will never hear the hunter's whistle,* Extract LCW E3, *there are many days for the thief and one day for the owner,* suggest that the journalist utilizes the African proverbs in the above extracts to add not only to colour but secondary meanings to them. The above expressions have their "base in the multi-lingual and multi-culturalism," nature of the journalists 'background (Nwagbara, 2003:81). The proverb, "ever since the snake took in, did we know that it will deliver a long offspring?" makes allusion to the behaviours and attitudes of Nigerian leaders. As can be observed, the journalist subtly cautions and appeals to leaders to always steer clear acts of war and conflict, because, whatever they sow is what they will reap. In other words, if they sow peace, they will reap peace and if they sow conflict, they will reap war. In another instance, a proverb used in Extract LCW E2 "as they say, the dog that will get lost will never hear the hunter's whistle" is used to warn against African rulers' insensitivity to warnings of impending danger, as bad consequences that often follow negative actions. "The native idiomatic expression in Extract LCW F4, Gaddafi was once "the apple of America's eyes" means that Gaddafi was once in

the good books of America – This is a decontextualized proverb derived from the Bible's "the apple of God's eye." The linguistic device "abracadabra" in Extract LCW F5 is carefully constructed to inform and influence the reader. It highlights the deceptive nature of some African rulers' actions that are inimical to development. "Abracadabra" is a ruse word, though historically believed to have magical powers, often used as an incantation to ward off evil. It is used here to imply that the Nigerian government under Ibrahim Babangida was merely deceiving the people. The expression "Haba!" in ILWE6is often used as an interjection to express strong feeling of surprise. Pragmatically, the journalist's employs it to show his/her utmost dismay on the unreliable attitude of some African leaders, whose actions are often fraught with contradictions. From these samples, it is clear that the use of proverbs (native idioms, catch phrases) demonstrates the socio-cultural consciousness of the reporting journalist. And in a war context, language of the news is often expected to sound hostile, anxious and confrontational, but interestingly, in these reports, there is the evidence that news reports can convey some element of tact to reduce the atmosphere tension and anxiety. Thisfurther illustrates how the cultural context can influence the manner in which war incidences are constructed and conceptualized in the media – at least in the Nigerian context.

Politeness in the use of WH-questions

The findings reveal that rhetorical questions are used to arouse the reader's interest in the war and conflict reporting. A question may be regarded as an emotive device employed to appeal to the cultural and historical experiences of the reader. The journalist here, employs politeness in asking rhetorical questions that elicit no actual reply, since the answers are implied in the context. In the examples from the data (e.g. ILWF7), the context of the reports on the Israel-Lebanon war of 2006 and the Libyan civil war of 2011, show that the questions are politely asked to encourage the reader to consider a particular view point.

EXTRACT ILW F7
Why do they fight? What is it about the Middle East that makes its conflict intractable, such that one summer's guns ineluctably conjure up so many earlier spasms of violence? Why the hate, and where is the healing? *(TIME* August 15, 2006)

EXTRACT LCW H8
What next for Libya? *(THISDAY,* October 22, 2011)

EXTRACT ILW H9
Israel – Hezbollah: Impossible Compromise? *(THISDAY* August 6, 2006)

EXTRACT ILW H10
Will UN Resolution Halt the Month-long Conflict? *(THISDAY* August 10, 2006)

Rhetorical questions in the above extracts as politeness strategy is used to consider the purpose, logic and outcomes of the two wars. Questions such as "What is it about the Middle East…? why the hate ….? and "what next for Libya?" are some of the questions, which although elicits no deficit answers are reflective on the circumstances and motives of the wars. As it is noticed, the sentences reveal linguistic features of "repetition" in the deployment of why, what, why, what – WH patterns employed to raise thought provoking issues in order to draw attention to the war situation. Importantly, the journalist's tone of voice in the use of these linguistic politeness markers expresses concern on the general effects of the war situation in the Middle East and Libya. The findings further reveal the use of the tact maxim. For example, this maxim is exhibited in the use of politeness in asking rhetorical questions, which do not require any response from the reader. The journalist politely avoids making a blatant imposition thereby minimizing the cost of the desired act on the addressee/reader. In EXTRACTS ILW F7 and LCW H8, the journalists express optimism that the UN can mediate between the two warring sides

to find a lasting solution to the crises in the Middle East. In the headline, the journalists suggest that there is still the possibility of the two sides coming together to arrive at a compromise, which could be for the benefit of all. The journalist's employment of the rhetorical questions is subtly, polite and appealing in tone. The use of phrases like "month-long conflict" pragmatically connotes optimism, expectation of dialogue and compromise as a solution to the war and conflict. The use of the modal auxiliary "will" also pragmatically implies not only obligation but also optimism. According to Opeibi (2009), rhetorical questions enables a speaker who wishes to avoid stating the obvious to use questions to suggest that what is not obvious is obvious. Opeibi further suggests that rhetorical questions can be used to avoid giving a defence for what one wishes to assert, especially when the asserted proposition is not obviously true. In the above example, the journalist avoids a personal opinion about the complex Middle East question by simply asking "What is it about the Middle East?"

Tact of pledging allegiance, vowing and appealing

At the level of pledging allegiance, making vows and appealing, there are instances where the participants in the war deploy linguistic politeness markers to serve purposes of mitigating tension, reducing conflict (Chiluwa, 2012), and arousing a sense of confidence in their people or influencing the people to support the leader's actions. The extracts below substantiate the above claims:

> *EXTRACT LCW E11*
> This is my country, I will die here, I will fight to the last man… I will not be president… I am not elected… I am not King… I am a leader… Libya wants me, my people love me…" *(THISDAY* October 24, 2011)
>
> *EXTRACT LCW F12*
> "Qaddafi doesn't have the power, he doesn't have the position

> to leave, "he said of himself. With my rifle, I will fight for my country *(The New York Times,* May 1 2011)

The speaker in the above extracts is late Muammar Gaddafi. As can be noticed, Gaddafi made the statement as expected within the ambits of his position as the former Libyan leader who occupied the office of head of Libyan government from September 1969 – October 2001 and in line with the expected norm, a leader might express himself and his intentions through tact of appealing, to persuade, encourage or even to change the behavior of his citizens into accepting him. Based on the above and as indicated from the extracts, it can be revealed that Gaddafi made a declaration of intent of who he thinks he is. This indication of who he thinks he is reflected in the following linguistic politeness markers, "I am not elected…" "I am not King… I am a leader… Libya wants me, my people love me…" From a practical point of view, the statements above can pragmatically mean that he (Gaddafi) is tactfully appealing to the patriotic zeal of his countrymen to accept him, because of his love for Libya. In addition, he wants to be identified with his own people (i.e. civilians) by making them feel he is one of them. For example, the use of the linguistic marker, "my" in "my people love me," depicts a strong sense of affection for Libyans. From EXTRACTS 11 and 12, it is clear that Gaddafi pledged an allegiance to fight for his country. Gaddafi's intent in the statement displays positive politeness strategy, which serves the purpose of endearing the speaker to is Libyan people and as a result might have achieved effective communicative purpose. In addition to tact, modesty maxim is also displayed by Gaddafi in his language use. He minimizes praise of self and maximizes dispraise of self. Put differently, Gaddafi gives preference to his country at his own expense. The linguistic politeness marker in the above extracts that depicts the modesty maxim is couched in this statement, "I will die here", "I will fight to the last man" and "I am not king. "Therefore, this analysis suggests that the pragmatic import of politeness tact strategy in Gaddafi's speeches may have contributed to his popularity as Libyan's revolutionary leader and in addition reveals the usefulness of Leech's (1983) politeness principles in

the analysis of a text. War reporters here deliberately highlights this supposed patriotism and profound sense of nationalism in order to make the reader to probably feel that Gaddafi died for a just cause and possibly create a sense of patriotism in the Libyan public who may be sympathetic to the Libyan nation. Unfortunately, this modesty tact and claim of Ghaddafi and the media representation of his death as martyrdom, could be responsible partly to the instability being witnessed in Libya today, where groups loyal to the memory and maxims of Ghadaffi, still clamour for a fair share of political and economic authority.

Tact of praising and commendation

The findings here reveal that in their editorials, journalists employ the tact of praising and commendation as a means of expressing politeness to highlight the positive contributions of actors in the wars and to minimize their negative aspects. In the data, the reports show a number of remarkable development changes during Ghaddafi's leadership. From the sample below, the impressive social and infrastructural development in Libya attract praises and commendations of the reporting journalists.

> *EXTRACT LCW F13*
> Unlike other oil producing countries in Africa, Libya under him (Gaddafi) witnessed tremendous improvement in the welfare of citizens, infrastructural development and investments, Gaddafi aided the liberation movement in Africa in the struggle against colonialisation and imperialism… he drove himself in military vehicles and lived intents *(THISDAY* October 29, 2011)

> *EXTRACT LCW F14*
> Under Gaddafi, Libya had a good record in education, in health, in welfare… yet he came to power in 1969 at age 27 on the crest of mass euphoric. Within the Arab world and Africa Gaddafi cut a romantic figure of the archetypal revolutionary *(THISDAY* October 23, 2011).

One will vividly observe from the extracts that the journalists exploit the approbation maxim, which, recommends that one should minimize dispraise of others and maximize their praise in expressive and assertive terms (Leech, 1983). As indicated in the EXTRACTS LCW F13and 14, the reports emphasize the achievements of Ghaddafi: "Libya under Gaddafi witness tremendous improvement", "Ghaddafi aided the liberation movement in Africa in the struggle against colonialism." These contributions earned Gaddafi the accolades, praises and commendations of the journalist. The word: "tremendous" in the second line of EXTRACT LCW F13 is used here to highlight Ghaddafi's huge positive contributions to the welfare of Libyans. Furthermore, some good personal qualities of the former Libyan leader are emphasized in the following statements: "he drove himself in military vehicles" and "lived in tents" – also highlighting the politeness tact of praise and commendation.

Instigating fear uncertainty and threatening

Besides the use of politeness markers, one other major finding of this study is that - very clear in the context of language use in war reporting is the deployment of the acts of instigating fear, uncertainty and threatening, which falls within the conflictive goals of tact identified by Leech (1983). This strategy is used to depict the rhythm of war activities as evidenced in the following samples from the data:

> *EXTRACT LCW E15*
> Gaddafi demanded a renegotiation of the oil contract and threatened to shut off production if the oil companies refuse. He challenged the oil companies by telling them "people who have lived without oil for 5000 years can live without it again for few years in order to attain their legitimate right *(Newswatch,* September 5, 2011).
>
> *EXTRACT LCW F16*
> We shall exterminate the rats and cockroaches. It is the rodents

> that have a problem. And I shall exterminate them one by one, Insha Allah!!! *(THISDAY* October 24, 2011).
>
> *EXTRACT ILW E17*
> Then, Ehud Olmert, Israel prime minister, made a speech in southern Israel which has been heavily attacked since the crisis erupted. He said that," there would be pain, tears and blood" … *(Newswatch,* August, 10 2006)

The extracts above are attributed to the former Libyan President, Col. Muammar Gaddafi and the former Israeli Prime Minister Ehud Olmert. Both Gaddafi and Olmert made their utterances /statements on different occasions in their capacity as the leader of then Libya and the then Prime Minister of Israel respectively. In the two extracts attributed to Ghaddafi, there is evidence of the expressions of threats and attacks, which is intensified and magnified in the reports. In the statements, Gaddafi's attacks and threats of oil expatriates directly violate the tact maxim, which recommends that a speaker should deploy expressions that express benefit to the hearer or the addressee, rather than expressions that will imply cost or constraint on the hearer (Leech 1983). Hence, the examined extracts indicate that Gaddafi's language use depicts impoliteness. It is hash and forceful. Gaddafi's choice of words could be likened to Chiluwa's (2012) observation that a conflictive goal of tact could be confrontational as a strategy to denounce injustice.

As informative as EXTRACT LCWE15 is, it has some pragmatic implication intended to instigate fear and anxiety in the Libyan civilians. For instance, Gaddafi's statement in extract LCW F16 has a negative linguistic import. Consider this: "We shall exterminate the rats and cockroaches". "It is the rodents that have a problem." "And I shall exterminate them one by one, Insha Allah!!" The linguistic markers, marked off in italics are metaphors that are negatively employed to downgrade the personalities of the rebels. These statements display commissive acts associated with threatening, vowing and instigating fear, which is the speaker's primary goal of making the statement. Also, it

is important to add that Gaddafi's communicative practices in the above extracts are inherently impolite. The pragmatic implication of *"Insha Allah"* shows that Gaddafi subjects his statement to God - suggesting that God alone can prevent him from carrying out his threats of exterminating the Libyan rebels.

Similarly, the statement in EXTRACT ILW E17 attributed to Ehud Olmert is characterized by negative linguistic markers which he employed to instill fear in the minds of Israel and Lebanon civilians during the 2006 war. Just like Gaddafi's utterances, Olmert engaged the use of linguistic violence markers to heighten the fear of the Israeli and Lebanon civilians. Olmert stated that, "there would be pain, tears and blood …"As can be seen, the pragmatic import of "pain", "tears" and "blood" are a strong, concrete and vivid war messages. War images are rife in war reporting, which is why critiques of war journalism have argued that war reporting is most likely to aggravate war incidents and inspire greater war than mitigate it. For instance, by highlighting violence, audiences reading war reporting are more like to support violent "solutions" (see Galtung, 2000; Chiluwa & Chiluwa, 2020).

Conclusion

This paper has examined the politeness principles in the war reports on the Israel-Lebanon war of 2006 and the Libyan Civil war of 2011. It has demonstrated that journalists deployed different aspects of pragmatic politeness principles such as the different shades of tact to generate loaded messages such as the tact of praising and commending, tact of pledging allegiance, vowing and appealing and the conflictive goal of tact in the form of instigating fear, uncertainty and threatening. The study reveals that politeness linguistic markers such as proverbs, idioms and catch phrases, and rhetorical questions, are common in war reports and were employed by journalists as extra means of generating meanings. In addition, the findings show that linguistic politeness strategies are used to show ways in which context influence war reporting and how war incidences are constructed and reported in the print media.

References

Allan, S. & Zelizer, B. (eds) (2004) Reporting war: Journalism in wartime. London: Routledge

Adekunle, O.M. (2016). "Exemplications of Politeness Phenomenon in some English As A Second Language Encounter" In Gramma Applied Linguistics and Society: Odebunmi, Osisanwo, Bodunde, Epe (eds). Ile-Ife: Obafemi Awolowo University Press.

Adekunle, O.O. (2016), "Exemplifications of Politeness Phenomenon in some English As a Second language Encounters" In Grammar Applied Linguistics and Society: A Festschrift for Wale Osisanwo. Akin Odebunmi, Ayo Osisanwo, Helen Bodunde, and Stella Ekpe. (eds), Ile Ife: Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile-Ife.

AICE, (2019) "Second Lebanon war; Background & Overviews" In American – Israeli
Cooperative Enterprise. (Available online)
https://www.jewishvirtuallibrary.org/background- andoverview-second-lebanon-war

Akinwunmi, A.O. (2004) "The Effects of Armed Conflicts on Women", In Communication,
Media Conflict Management in Nigeria. Ikechukwu E. Nwosu& Des Wilson (eds).
Enugu: ACCE (NIGERIA CHAPTER) AND PRIME TARGETS.

Allan, S.& Zelizer, B.(2004) Reporting War: Journalism in Wartime. London: Routledge

Aziz, M.A. (2007). An Analysis of Print Media Coverage of the Palestinian-Israeli Conflict
https://tigerprints.clemson.edu/all_theses/79/ Assessed 18/12/2018

Bell, M. (1977), "TV News: How far should we go?" in British journalism Review1, 7-16.

Bossan, R. (2017), "History and Scope of Pragmatics", In Discourse Analysis and Pragmatics: Issues in Theory and Practice. GbengaIbileye (ed.) Lagos: Malthouse Press.

Brown, P. & Levinson, S. (1987). Universals of Language Usage Politeness Phenomenon. In: Goody, Esther (ed): Questions and Politeness. 56-324. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Chiluwa, I. & Chiluwa, I.M. (2020) "Deadlier than Boko Haram": Representations of the herder-farmer conflict in the local and foreign press." Media, War & Conflict (Sage) https://doi.org/10.1177/ 1750635220902490

Chiluwa, I. (2012) Language in the News: Mediating Sociopolitical Crises in Nigeria. Frankfurt am Main: Peter Lang.

Chiluwa, I. (2010)'A Discourse Study of Naming among Christian Charismatic Movements in Nigeria.' In. AyoOgunsii, Ayo Kehinde and Akin Odebunmi (eds) Language, Literature and Discourse: A Festschrift in Honor of Prof. Lekan Oyeleye. Munchen: Lincom, 233-248.

Cutting, J. (2002) Pragmatics and Discourse (A resource for students). London: Routledge Taylor and Francis group.

Daramola, I and Daramola, B. (2011). Research Methods in Social Science & Management. Lagos: Rothan Press

Galadima, D. and Goshit,R.(2013) "The Media and the challenges of Institutionalizing the Culture of Dialogue in Nigerian Democracy" In Politics, Culture & The Media in Nigeria Umaru P. Chinenenye, N. NsikakIdiong (eds). Ibadan: Stiring Horden Publishers.

Galtung, J. (2000) "The task of peace journalism." Ethical Perspectives, 7(2-3), 162-167

INSCT, (2012)Libya in Conflict: Mapping the Libyan Armed Conflict. Syracuse: Institute for National Security and Counterterrorism. Syracuse University College of Law.

Lakoff, Robin. The logic of politeness; or minding your P's and Q's. Chicago: UP, 1973

Leech, G. (1983). Principles of Pragmatic. London: Longman Group Limited

Lukin, A. (2005)Race, Religion and Rhetoric: Conference Report 2004. Sydney: Forum on Australia's Islamic relations.

Mathews, M.M (2008) We Were Caught Unprepared: The 2006 Hezbollah-Israel war. US Army Combined Arms Center Combat Studies Institute Press: Fort Leavenworth Kansas

Norton, Bonny,(2000). Identity and Language Learning: Gender, Ethnicity and Educational Change. Longman, New York.

Ntekim Rex, Y. (2008). Idioms in Yoruba Culture Used to Caution Against Acts of "Terrorism". in Global Understanding in The Age of Terrorism. Olikoya, A. and Falaiye, M. (eds) Lagos:

University of Lagos Press

Nwagbara, A (2003) "Iconicity and the Pragmatics of Communication in Nigerian Poetry in English: The Example of Niyi Osundare In (LARES)Lagos Review of English Studies: A Journal of Language and Literary Studies. Vol. 14, 1 & 2 pp81-89.

Nwankpa, N.N. (2015), "Tracking Media Coverage of Armed Conflicts around the Globe: A Critical Appraisal", In Journalism Practice and Terrorism in Nigeria, Issues, Trends and Techniques".Olushola O. Ishola and Muyiwa Popoola (eds), Ibadan: John Archers.

Odebunmi, A. (2015). "Pragmatics" In Kamalu, I and I. Tamunobelema (eds.) Issues in the Study of Language and Literature. Ibadan: Kraft Books Limited

Oha, O. (1990) Language in War situation: A stylistic analysis of war speeches of Yakubu Gowon and Emeka Ojukwu: An unpublished Ph.D Thesis, University of Ibadan: Ibadan In Chiluwa language in the News: Mediating Socio-Political Crises in Nigeria. Frankfurt au Meim: Peter Lang.

Opeibi, T.O. (2009), Discourse, Politics and the 1993 Presidential Election Campaigns in Nigeria: A Re-invention of June 12 Legacy. Lagos: Nouvelle Communication swww.tundeopeibi.com

Pam, K.J. (2012). "A Linguo-Stylistic Analysis of Newspaper Reportage on the 2010 and 2011 crises In Jos.A case study of the Nation and Thisday. In ATREN LAIGENS: An International Journal of Language: Literature and Gender studies. Bahir Dar, Ethiopia; Vol. I, pp.52-64.

Popoola, M. (2015) "Media and terrorism: An exposition of relationship drives." In: Isola,

O.O and Popoola, M (eds). Journalism practice and terrorism in Nigeria: Issues, Trends and Techniques. Ibadan: John Archers.

Richardson, J.E. (2007) Analyzing newspapers: An Approach from Critical Discourse Analysis.
New York: Palgrave Macmillan

Second Lebanon War: Background & Overview In http://www.jewishvirlibrary.or/ background-and-overview-second...

Smalley, R.E. (2008). "Smalley Institute Grand Challenges" (http://cnst.rice.edu/content.aspx?id=246ed.) Rice University.4/6.Available (2014).

Thomas, J. (2003). Politeness. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press

Thussu, D.K & Freedman, D. (2003) War and Media London: Sage Publications.

Von Oppen, K., (2009). Reporting from Bosnia: Reconceptualising the Nation of 'Journalism of Attachment'. In Journal of Contemporary European Studies. 17, (10.) Pp.21-33

Watts, R.J. (2003). Politeness. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press

Alu Azuma Osu, *is a doctoral student of the Department of English, University of Lagos, Nigeria. Her research interests are pragmatics, stylistics and semiotics. Her doctoral thesis is entitled:*"A pragmatic analysis of the style of print media reportage of Israel-Lebanon war (2006) and Libyan Civil War (2011)."